



Open access online journal

JOURNAL OF TOURISM RESEARCH



Review of Tourism Sciences

Volume 22
June 2019

Tourism Research Institute

ISSN 2241 - 7931

Journal of Tourism Research, Volume 22



JOURNAL OF TOURISM RESEARCH

V. 22

June 2018

Published by:



Activities for the Development of Tourism and Tourism Education



Tourism Research Institute

13 Kydonion, 11144 Athens, Greece

Tel: + 30 210 3806877

Fax: + 30 211 7407688

URL: www.jotr.eu www.dratte.gr

Email: info@dratte.gr, tri@dratte.gr

Editor: *Laloumis Dimitris*

SCIENTIFIC COMMITTEE

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

TABLE OF CONTENTS

MULTILEVEL GOVERNANCE POTENTIAL FOR CULTURAL TOURISM IN GREECE – THE CASE OF THE REGION OF SOUTH AEGEAN	5
Dimitrios Skiadas, Sofia Boutsiouki & Eleftheria Ftaklaki	
TOWARDS THE SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY OF MUSEUMS: APPLICATION ON THE NUBIAN MUSEUM IN EGYPT	23
Nashwa Fouad Attallah & Asmaa Mozammel	
HOTEL MARKETING PRACTICES EMPLOYED TO ENCOURAGE AND MANAGE ONLINE GUEST REVIEWS	34
Karam M. Ghazi	
TOURISM AND LITERATURE - COMPARISON BETWEEN CREEK AND BRITISH WRITES	55
Manola Maria	
SUPPORTING THE ENABLING FACTORS FOR SUCCESSFUL KNOWLEDGE SHARING ADOPTION BY THE EGYPTIAN TOURISM COMPANIES	63
Mahmoud Ahmed Aboushouk, Hala Hilaly & Nashwa Fouad Attallah	
THE ROLE OF PHOTOGRAPHIC TOURISM IN CONSTRUCTION OF AN EGYPT'S IMAGE AS A TOURIST DESTINATION	89
Rania Magdy Orabi	
ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL FACTORS AFFECTING THE PURCHASING POWER OF CUSTOMERS IN FAST-FOOD RESTAURANTS ((APPLIED IN MARSA MATROUH CITY))	107
Dalal Abd-El Hady , Amr Abd-El Hameed & Samar Mohamed Shebl Nada	

MULTILEVEL GOVERNANCE POTENTIAL FOR CULTURAL TOURISM IN GREECE – THE CASE OF THE REGION OF SOUTH AEGEAN

Dimitrios Skiadas¹, Sofia Boutsiouki² & Eleftheria Ftaklaki³

¹Department of International and European Studies, University of Macedonia, 156 Egnatia, 54636 Thessaloniki, Greece, dskiadas@uom.edu.gr

²Department of International and European Studies, University of Macedonia, 156 Egnatia, 54636 Thessaloniki, Greece, sofiab@uom.edu.gr

³Department of Sociology, University of the Aegean, Administration Building, University hill, 81100 Lesvos, Greece, el.ftaklaki@gmail.com

ABSTRACT

The paper examines the prospects of multilevel governance in the case of cultural tourism strategy in Greece. Besides the analysis of the relevant EU policy framework and priorities, the paper analyses the Greek national strategy on cultural tourism. The paper uses the South Aegean Region as a case study and examines the potential implementation of a new governance model, of a multilevel and participatory nature, in the field of cultural tourism, capable of establishing a shared vision and a strong sense of ownership among regional and local actors.

Key Words: Cultural tourism, Governance, Greece, EU

1. INTRODUCTION

This paper explores the possibility of developing a multilevel governance model with regard to –especially cultural– tourism in Greece. The content is organised in the following parts: first, the EU policy framework regarding tourism is analysed and its main priorities over the years are highlighted. Then, the paper focuses on the basic characteristics of the Greek tourism policy and uses the region of South Aegean as a case study in order to examine the feasibility of multilevel governance in tourism development. Finally, the paper, based on the European and the national approach regarding a tourism policy agenda, attempts to designate a model of multilevel governance that would be able to deploy the existing advantages, as well as the potential of public and private stakeholders in the field of cultural tourism.

2. EUROPEAN UNION AND CULTURAL TOURISM POLICY

For many years tourism remained at the periphery of the European policy interest, although it is one of the most important sectors of activity due to its association with significant economic and social outcomes, as well as to its strong impact on the region's image in the world. In 1984, the Council emphasised the need for the tourism dimension to be taken into consideration in the Community's decision-making process on the basis of consultation between member states and the European institutions. It also set the initial guidelines that would appear in the tourism policy framework during the following years, while it clarified that, although the main responsibility for tourism lies with the member states, the Commission could submit relevant proposals to the Council (Council of the European Communities, 1984). The change in the approach was evident; tourism was officially recognised as an action useful for the European integration process that should be dealt with by the member states and supranational institutions (Estol & Font, 2016).

The first time that a European Treaty mentioned tourism was in 1992, after the Maastricht Treaty amendments. The Treaty for the European Union regards it as a policy field with significance for economic development and sustainable growth, as well as for the improvement of employment performance, living standards, social cohesion and solidarity among member states. As a result, the Council introduced a 3-year action plan for the development of tourism and set a budget of 18 million ECU, as well as the criteria of reference for the suitability of measures. Moreover, it made special reference to cultural tourism that could enhance the importance of cultural heritage and facilitate the better knowledge of cultures, traditions and ways of life of Europeans. Moreover, it recognised the need for initiatives supporting the development of new European cultural tourism routes in cooperation with state, regional and local authorities, the creation of networks of professionals (tourist operators, cultural institutions), and the exchange of experiences (Council of the European Communities, 1992).

Linking culture with tourism in an EU context should not be a surprise. From the early 1970s onwards, the EEC institutions sought to develop, even without a legal basis in the Treaties, cultural initiatives in order to shore up popular support for European integration. The early attempts were cautious and largely symbolic, such as the European Community Youth Orchestra, the European Sculpture Competition and, in 1985, the European City of Culture Competition, with Athens being the first capital to be awarded the title. In 1993, the Maastricht Treaty introduced Art. 128 in the EC Treaty (now Article 167 TFEU), thus allowing the EU to take direct action to “contribute to the flowering of the cultures of the Member States, while respecting their national and regional diversity and at the same time bringing the common cultural heritage to the fore”. This action was limited to the adoption of policies (usually in the form of recommendations) and incentive measures. The most significant political initiative was included in the European Commission's 2007 communication on “A European Agenda for Culture in a Globalising World”. The Agenda identified overarching EU cultural objectives, designed to focus future European activity in the cultural field, and for its consideration of how the Commission's ability to formulate effective cultural policies and integrate cultural concerns into its other policies might be improved (Craufurd Smith, 2011). One of these policies has been the EU policy on tourism.

In 1995, a “Green Paper on Tourism” analysed the added value of tourism for the Community and underlined its importance for the reinforcement of the economic and social cohesion, the sustainable development and the promotion of the European identity. In addition, it

investigated the possible scenarios for the Community's future role as regards tourism and raised questions about the formulation of a tourism policy, which would mainly be used in order to coordinate information exchanges and to supplement tourism-related state actions (European Commission, 1995). Later on, in 1997, the European Parliament recognised the role that could be exercised by tourism in the European unification process and included it in the areas to which the procedure of codecision should be extended (European Parliament, 1997).

It was the Lisbon agenda which gave a new impetus to the Union's actions by proactively promoting the open method of coordination as an instrument of governance, thus affecting the process of developing a European tourism policy. The Commission played an essential role in the consolidation of the growth and sustainability objectives in the tourism sector within the framework of multilevel governance. In 2001, it introduced specific measures fostering the interface and the development of partnerships between the European institutions and various stakeholders from the tourism industry, the civil society and the national, regional and local authorities under the open method of coordination approach (European Commission, 2001). Similarly, in 2006 it introduced a renewed EU tourism policy that elaborated on the establishment of a stronger partnership approach for the inclusion of more potential actors for the development of tourism (European Commission, 2006).

However, it was not until the Lisbon Treaty in 2007 that the EU competence in tourism was established, which allows the EU to exercise a complementary role by supporting, coordinating or supplementing member states' actions in tourism. The main objective of the European competence in tourism is to contribute to the creation of a framework for action and to enhance the coordination of European actors in order to increase the sector's competitiveness and sustainability. This offers the EU the opportunity to establish specific measures – complementary to national ones– without requiring the harmonisation of the relevant national regulatory frameworks.

In 2007, the EU introduced an “Agenda for a sustainable and competitive European tourism”, which elaborated on the challenge for European tourism destinations to find the right balance between economic activity, environmental protection and society. The Agenda highlighted the ability of tourism to foster synergies, thus allowing tourism destinations to respond on the basis of preserving their natural environment, cultural distinctiveness, social interaction, security and well-being of local populations. The Agenda invited all actors to respect specific principles in their effort to develop competitive and sustainable tourism. The approach of tourism should be holistic and integrated, taking into account its impact on society, economy and the environment. It should include long-term provisions, appropriate development planning, information availability and continuous monitoring, in order to improve the management of the risk of environmental or social damage, the allocation of costs and the limitation of the destinations' capacity for tourism development and flows (European Commission, 2007).

The EU for many years associated tourism with its regional development and economic, social and territorial cohesion. The unification process together with the freedom of travel and the use of a single currency in many of its members, the adoption of its competence in tourism and the multiplication of its initiatives, as well as the sector's inclusion in interventions targeting structural policies appear to have positively affected its dynamism, but they could not ensure the final outcomes (Lehmeier, 2010). In April 2010, the EU Ministers of Tourism adopted the “Madrid Declaration”. The Declaration underlined the need for a consolidated tourism policy framework with the support of member states and proposed the basic directions for action

(Council of the European Union, 2010), but no references to a coherent tourism strategy were included.

Soon, the European Commission introduced its anticipated proposal for a renewed tourism framework that aspired to make Europe world's first tourist destination. Tourism policy is clearly connected not only with the sector's prosperity, but also with concerns relating to social matters, territorial cohesion and the protection of and capitalisation on natural and cultural heritage. The Commission highlighted the need for the EU to adapt to the ongoing social developments and to confront the constraints arising from the sector's structural characteristics and the conditions in the socioeconomic context. On one hand, tourism policy is called on to consider the changes in the demography and the economic capacity of individuals, which affect their behavior as tourists; on the other hand, global competition obliges the EU to improve its attractiveness especially through the transformation of its tourism strategy and the diversification of the tourism product and of the target groups. Also, new dimensions were added to the tourism policy agenda, which should not be overlooked: environmental awareness, adaptation to the digital era and changes in the consumer and the production models can benefit European tourism by contributing to an innovative approach of its focus and organisation. For this reason, the European institutions put forward the priorities under which future actions favouring tourism should be promoted (European Commission, 2010):

- a. Stimulate competitiveness in the European tourism sector.
- b. Promote the development of sustainable, responsible and high-quality tourism.
- c. Consolidate the image and profile of Europe as a collection of sustainable and high quality destinations.
- d. Maximise the potential of EU financial policies and instruments for developing tourism.

The new approach contributed to the development of an implementation rolling plan, which required the collaboration of public authorities, tourism associations and other public/private stakeholders. Greater priority was given to particular fields of interest: increasing tourism demand from within the EU and beyond; improving the range of tourism products and services on offer; enhancing tourism quality, sustainability, accessibility, skills and ICT use; enhancing the socioeconomic knowledge base of the sector; promoting Europe as a unique destination; mainstreaming tourism in other EU policies (European Commission, 2010/updated 2013).

In general, the policy framework that was introduced in 2010 by the EU had a complementary role to the member states' policies and tried to coordinate their efforts to increase the added value of tourism, provided that all stakeholders remain firm to their commitments and have the necessary capacity to work together for the common cause. Furthermore, the official texts set the main lines of action for the implementation of the priorities and led to new initiatives for tourism development, such as the "European Strategy for more growth and jobs in coastal and maritime tourism" (European Commission, 2014). The particular type of tourism had been included in the five policy sectors with high potential for jobs and growth, which were identified by the "Blue Growth" strategy in 2012, and was highly regarded for its significant contribution to the sector's sustainability and added value. Cultural tourism is especially referred to in the strategy; it is valued as a generator of development, growth and jobs both at the European coastline and inland itineraries (European Commission, 2012).

The EU initiatives were supplemented by the activation of private stakeholders, who announced the "Tourism for Growth and Jobs Manifesto" in 2017 (see details in <https://www.tourismmanifesto.eu/>). 41 stakeholders joint forces with other representatives of the

tourism sector, 40 members of the European Parliament and 70 members of the European Committee of the Regions, in order to set the priorities for the coming years. The Manifesto proposes 44 interventions that are organised in 8 distinct axes: competitiveness, digitalisation, good governance, joint promotion, reduction of seasonality, skills and qualifications, sustainability and transport connectivity.

Although over the years the European Union has been involved in the formation of supportive actions targeting tourism in compliance with the principle of subsidiarity, until today it lacks a comprehensive strategy on –cultural especially– tourism. It limits its interventions to the construction of a tourism policy, which is implemented at national, regional or local level, and to targeted actions that affect the tourism product in its various forms. Consequently, the need for an umbrella strategy able to include all aspects of tourism development and at the same time to allow regional and local stakeholders to act with relative autonomy remains strong.

3. GREEK POLICY ON TOURISM & CULTURAL TOURISM

3.1. Historical Overview

Greece, since the beginning of the 20th century, has been a place of attracting visitors from all over the planet, due to its geophysical location and comparative advantages, its natural beauty, its rich cultural heritage and the temperament of its inhabitants, with their spirit of hospitality and respect for diversity.

The first organised effort of a Greek state structure for the management of tourism took place in 1914 in the form of the independent Office (Art. 15, Law 241/1914), which, however, due to the First World War, did not operate until 1918, when it was reactivated under Law 1698/1919, as the Independent Office of Foreign Affairs and Exhibitions. In 1929, the Greek National Tourism Organisation (GNTO) was established as an independent public legal entity, under the supervision of the Ministry of National Economy. Its legally defined purpose was to strengthen and promote the coordination of the actions of any public, municipal or community authority, private bodies and businesses in tourism, both within and outside Greece. In 1935, a Supreme Council of Tourism was established. It was abolished in 1950. Since its inception, the GNTO has undergone several stages. It was abolished in 1936 (Law 45/1936) and was replaced by the Sub-Ministry of Press and Tourism, which was also abolished in 1941 and had its responsibilities transferred to the Ministry of National Economy under the Legislative Decree 19/1941). In 1952, the first systematic program for the development of Greek tourism is drawn up within the framework of the Marshall Plan. The Ministry of Press and Tourism was re-established in 1950 (Law 1565/1950) and the GNTO's supervision was entrusted initially to the Ministry of Finance and then to other ministries such as the Ministry of Coordination (1968), the Ministry of the Government's Presidency (1974) and the Ministry of National Economy (1985). In 1989, the independent Ministry of Tourism (Law 1835/1989) was established and was responsible for the GNTO's supervision until this Ministry's abolition in 1991 (Presidential Decree 417/1991), when the Ministry of Finance took over its supervision once again. The Ministry of Tourism was re-established in 1993 (Presidential Decree 459/1993) and re-entrusted with the GNTO's supervision. In 1996, the GNTO's supervision was transferred to the Ministry of Development, which was created from the merger of the Ministry of Tourism, the Ministry of Industry, Energy and Technology and the Ministry of Trade (Presidential Decree 27/1996), while

in 2000 the General Secretariat for Tourism (Law 2837/2000) was established within the Ministry of Development. The Ministry of Tourism was again restored with the Presidential Decree 122/2004, with the responsibilities of the General Secretariat for Tourism of the Ministry of Development, and subsequently the Ministry of Tourism Development was established under Law 3270/2004 and the GNTO's supervision was transferred to it (Mylonopoulos & Kondoudaki, 2011, pp. 207-209).

In 2009, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism was created with the merger of the Ministries of Culture and Tourism Development (Presidential Decree 186/2009) and in 2010 the General Secretariat for Tourism was established in the new Ministry (Presidential Decree 15/2010). The Ministry of Culture and Tourism was abolished in 2012 (Presidential Decree 85/2012), following the re-establishment of the Ministry of Tourism. In 2015, the Ministry of Tourism was merged with the Ministry of Development and Competitiveness, the Ministry of Shipping and the Aegean Sea and the Ministry of Infrastructure, Transport and Networks creating the Ministry of Finance, Infrastructure, Shipping and Tourism (Presidential Decree 25/2015). Finally, in November 2016, the Ministry of Tourism was re-established (Art. 2 of Presidential Decree 123/2016).

This brief historical overview displays clearly an erratic and fragmented political understanding of tourism, at least as a field of organised/institutionalised public policy.

However, there are also other actors, apart from the GNTO and the relevant ministries/sub-ministries for tourism, that are complementary to the implementation of tourism policy, such as Local and Regional Authorities (municipalities, prefectures, regions), or professional bodies such as the Hellenic Hoteliers Federation, the Hellenic Chamber of Hotels, the Greek Tourism Confederation (SETE), the Hellenic Association of Travel and Tourist Agencies (HATTA), etc.

In terms of the various types of tourism that were developed in Greece during the historical course of the modern Greek state, one may identify mainly sightseeing tourism, while during the period 1950-1965 cultural tourism also emerges in combination with sightseeing tourism, as many of the foreign visitors that arrived in Athens, departed from there to visit archaeological sites (e.g. Delphi, Peloponnese, Attica, etc.). Due to the internationalisation of demand, especially during the late second half of the 20th century, a new type was developed: mass tourism. It has been noted that “in the period 1965-1985 we have the development of organised tourism, numerical increase and spatial expansion of tourist infrastructure in our country. And since 1985, we enter the period of industrialised mass tourism, with the unplanned growth and the segmentation of tourism demand” (Tsartas, 2010, pp. 18-22).

This situation set the main standards of tourism demand trends in Greece as follows: mass organized tourism, covering the bulk of the tourist market and linked to the development of hotel units and tourist accommodation of various types, and addressing tourists that simply want to “enjoy the Sun and the Sea” and relax. This standard was essentially interconnected with tour operators and the “all inclusive” policy.

3.2. Development of Cultural Tourism in Greece

Culture creates significant and measurable external economies in tourism-related activities, primarily related to the hospitality and nutrition of visitors to tourist destinations, but also, more broadly, to a wide range of services ranging from transportation to trade. At the same time, culture has a distinct role as a "catalyst for creativity" as it improves the attractiveness and the brand name of a country, its regions and cities; it encourages research and innovation within the

knowledge society and the new economy and ultimately creates more and better jobs, especially for young people.

Undoubtedly, cultural tourism is one of the fastest and most dynamic sectors in the tourism industry (Wang et al., 2008) and its demand in Europe has increased significantly over the last 50 years, as a new middle class society with relatively high levels of income and education has emerged.

Culture and cultural heritage constitute a strategic opportunity at local, national and European level, which supports innovative business initiatives with an emphasis on sustainable management and resource utilisation. The results of the implementation of coordinated and active policies in the field of culture, through a balanced combination of "hard" and "soft" highly specialised actions, are not confined to the economic strand, but they acquire a wider development dimension that includes education and excellence and has a direct and tangible impact on improving the environment and quality of life.

It is also a key driver for the development of special and alternative forms of tourism beyond cultural tourism, such as religious tourism, gastronomic tourism, hiking tourism, etc, which ensures the sustainability of resources, while it has a high added value as it relates to the "Economy of Experiences" (see Boswijk et al., 2012, for details).

Undoubtedly, over the years, the comparative advantage that highlights Greece's image in international affairs is its culture due to its long history, tradition and civilisation. Culture in Greece is interwoven with the history of the country as the country's centuries-long, intercultural journey has left its mark on every corner of the Greek territory. The high-value archaeological finds and monuments, the rich tradition and the customs of each region, the folklore and the myths combined with modern culture and various cultural events, create a unique canvas for the visitors that want to get to know Greece through its culture.

The development of a type of tourism that promotes diachronic Greek values and is directly connected to the culture of Greece, which guarantees the high added value of Greek culture in its evolution over time, was expressed in the national tourism policy during 2009-2012 through the establishment of the Ministry of Culture and Tourism. The Ministry of Culture and Tourism was the Greek state body whose task was to protect, preserve and promote cultural heritage, as well as to develop the arts in general in Greece. The Ministry's decentralised services consisted of Antiquities Services, newer monuments Services and museums, forming a wide network throughout the Greek territory. It was also responsible for all aspects of tourism development in the country. However, despite the importance of this combined ministry, which came from the merger of the Ministry of Tourism with the Ministry of Culture, it was treated with caution by the representatives of the tourist bodies, who expressed their concerns that the actual contribution of tourism to the national economy might be overridden (Kousounis, 2009), thus leading to its abolition in 2012.

It is interesting to note that both the tourism bodies and the administration authorities have unilaterally turned their interest to the achievement of the numerical target related to the volume of arrivals and overnight stays, without any substantial reflection on the impact of this political choice on the economy, as numbers can be impressively large but the relevant per capita income is disproportionate, as well as on the environment itself and the bearing capacity of the destinations. Therefore, the development and enhancement of specific forms of tourism is a classic answer to the question regarding destination viability, since the "specific" comes to address the problems caused by the "massive". Cultural tourism is one of the most iconic forms of specific tourism, as it has all the qualitative features required to attract visitors with high

standards. A most interesting relevant case study is the case of the South Aegean, a predominantly polynesian region with 48 inhabited islands, many of which are internationally recognised as the most popular destinations (such as Rhodes, Kos, Mykonos, Santorini, Naxos etc.).

3.3. Case Study: The Region of South Aegean – Culture as Development Leverage for Quality Tourism

3.3.1. South Aegean: A Popular Destination, with Significant Governance Challenges

The most important sector of the South Aegean economy, accounting for 78.48% of the total regional employment, is the tertiary sector, with tourism being the main activity of the overall economy. The dynamism of the tourism industry is such that places the South Aegean Region, along with the Regions of Crete, the Ionian Islands and Central Macedonia, among the four "tourist Regions" of Greece. In terms of employment, dynamism and prominent activity, the South Aegean Region can be described as a single "tourist zone" at national, European and international level. According to the analysis included in the Regional Operational Programme for the Spatial Unit of Crete - Aegean Islands for the 2007-2013 programming period, the distinct areas with almost exclusively tourist activity are mainly found in some islands such as Rhodes, Kos, Mykonos, Santorini, Syros, and secondarily in Naxos, Ios, Karpathos and Andros, while on the other islands this activity is mixed with permanent or holiday residence.

The strengths of tourism in the South Aegean are: the world's recognition of South Aegean as a tourist destination, the existence of important cultural resources of national and international scope (archaeological sites, museums, monuments and elements of urban and rural cultural heritage), the adequate and high-quality hotel infrastructure in the big islands, etc. Its weaknesses include the spatial overconcentration of tourist flow and activity, the seasonality of tourism (and seasonal unemployment), the limited exploitation of cultural resources and of innovative actions to promote them, the inadequate link between tourism and other sectors of the economy (primary sector, manufacturing), the lack of high-quality hotel services in smaller islands and the inadequate use of ICT in the tourism sector (Skiadas, 2016).

However, tourism also suffers from the effects of insularity; problems related to the interconnection of the islands (intra-regional communication), the lack of suitable and adequate infrastructures for interconnecting them, shortages in health care when dealing with emergencies in health and the absence of specialist doctors. All these factors largely affect tourism and its specific forms, with the situation being further aggravated particularly in the small islands. Also, the small size of most islands limits the potential for the development of scale economies, increasing the cost and timing of dealing with problems arising in relation to tourism activity. The lack of specialised personnel in the tourism professions, mainly in the smaller islands and in specific sectors (hotel staff, chefs, marketing specialists, etc.), and especially in those related to the design and implementation of actions for special forms of tourism (mountain guides, lifeguards, diving instructors, etc.), constitutes a serious problem for tourism in the islands of South Aegean.

The seasonality effect is another major problem for tourism in the South Aegean, as high demand is limited mainly to summer months, resulting in higher unemployment and reduced

population during winter months. Indeed, in recent years seasonality has considerably increased, since the six-month tourist season has shrunk to include only summer months.

However, beyond the inherent weaknesses and challenges for the islands of South Aegean, the implementation of tourism policy faces a big two-fold deficiency: the lack of a decentralised governance model that assigns substantial responsibilities to regions and municipalities in terms of tourism policy, in combination with the absence of specialised structures and monitoring mechanisms of the tourism product, such as the Destination Management and Marketing Organization (DMMO), the operation of the Sustainable Tourism Observatory and the Regional Tourism Council. Today, local and regional authorities are involved in promotional and communicative actions under the guidelines of the Ministry of Tourism. Any attempt by local authorities to create relevant structures has not been successful so far due to the absence of a supportive institutional framework. The attempt of the Municipality of Thira is an indicative example.

These institutional deficiencies result in a lack of continuity in initiatives for the creation and operation of structures or successful policies, which cause additional problems in the development of tourism. For instance, the model of the South Aegean Region's tourism governance, although developed with a multiannual perspective (2013-2020), or the Sustainable Tourism Observatory in the South Aegean, established in 2014, were both dropped in 2015, following the change of political authorities in the region.

A significant institutional change would entail a decentralised model of tourism governance, where the central administration will retain the competence regarding legislation (implementing an insularity clause – “the effects on the islands of all public policies must be studied and taken into account before their implementation”) and national branding, while the regional and local authorities will have competence in the operation of integrated tourism planning structures and of a mechanism for the management and control of the tourist product. Increasing the responsibilities of local/regional institutions and developing cooperation networks can facilitate the development of tourism at regional and local level. It is important for the implementation of a tourism policy to take into account the concept of locality, as it is something that varies from region to region and is indissolubly linked with the characteristics of each place.

According to the UNWTO, the stakes in tourism governance are about “...how and to what extent institutional capacity for coordination, collaboration and cooperation can be efficiently used as a governance practice (the efficiency of governance) to improve tourism information systems, helping to transform needs into solutions and opportunities for improving the measurement and analysis of tourism” (Durán Fuentes, 2013).

Tourism governance at local level is called upon to develop regulatory mechanisms linking the state, the local government, associations, the market and businesses. This means that tourism governance refers to the creation of appropriate institutional arrangements (structures and procedures) for the management and sustainability of tourism. It therefore involves organisational relations between a significant number of public and private stakeholders involved in the tourism sector. Clearly, a prerequisite for their implementation is the existence of a flexible, efficient and decentralised administrative management system involving the market and the citizens in this process and within a network (Sarantakou, 2014).

Specifically, for the South Aegean Region the challenge of tourism governance is particularly complex given the division of competences between the three levels of administration and local government, and the particular role of the Municipalities in the islands,

since each island is a particular destination and it should be highlighted as such. The innovation of the South Aegean Region's tourism policy in 2013-2014 was based on the creation of structures and mechanisms for the development and monitoring of the tourist product and the coordination of all relevant stakeholders, such as (Ftaklaki, 2013):

a. Regional Tourism Council: It is an innovative system in the framework of tourism governance, first implemented in the Region of South Aegean (February 2014), with specific responsibilities and aiming to function as the central advisory body that would coordinate vertically and horizontally the individual actions of all tourism stakeholders at local/regional level. It was a mechanism for consultation and decision making for the region's tourist product. This body included representatives of the Regional Council, the Presidents of the Municipal Committees for Tourist Development and Promotion of the South Aegean Municipalities, representatives of the Greek National Tourist Organisation, the Ministry of Tourism, the Ministry of Development, the Ministry of Environment, Energy and Climate Change, the Hellenic Chamber of Hotels, the Greek Tourism Confederation (SETE), the relevant chambers of commerce and of the regional tourism stakeholders, according to the relevant decisions by the competent authorities.

b. Sustainable Tourism Observatory: It was the first to be established in Greece in 2014 under the auspices of the World Tourism Organization (WTO). It operated as a South Aegean Region's initiative in cooperation with the University of the Aegean and was co-funded by the EU, with its headquarters in Rhodes. The creation of the Observatory in the South Aegean island complex was a prerequisite for effective strategic planning as well as a basic precondition of any attempt to anticipate and formulate proposals for the improvement of tourism in the South Aegean region. Its function was based on the need to collect and process information on the basis of a specific methodology that would make it easier for regional and local decision-makers to make decisions, in order to improve on one hand business performance and on the other, the overall long-term benefit for the destination from tourism in terms of sustainability (Spilanis, 2014a).

c. Destination Management and Marketing Organization (DMMO): It would aim at improving the provided public (common) destination management and marketing services, as well as at creating viable tourist destinations based on the principles of the Regional Tourist Organisation (RTO). The services provided by the destination include the promotion-information system for tourists either directly or through the tourist agents.

d. Island Identity: Development of a strong island identity per destination by deploying existing capabilities to develop specific tourist products and to highlight the specific features and resources of each destination (both tangible and intangible) in order to diversify destinations. For this purpose, a thematic classification per island for the construction of an island identity was carried out. It included references to the particular elements that distinguish the islands not only from each other, but also from other island and non-island destinations, and would be capable of attracting tourists and of designating the ingredients of each island's particular identity and image. The chosen categories, apart from the fact that they concern the two major groups of resources, namely nature and culture, are also linked to the specific themes that this study deals with, such as cultural, naturalistic-hiking, religious, congress and marine tourism (Spilanis, 2014b).

3.3.2. Cultural Tourism in the South Aegean

The overall goal of the proposed activities was to promote the South Aegean islands' culture ranging from classical antiquity to modern artistic creation and to connect culture and tourism, with the aim of creating a strong and unique island identity in each island. This entailed: a) highlighting each destination individually; b) creating island clusters with similar strong features or monuments; and c) developing Cultural Routes and activities that highlight the natural, cultural and productive features of the islands and promote modern cultural (artistic) and creative production.

In the cultural sector, the disadvantages caused by insularity can be addressed by targeted actions aiming at: a) the use of innovative means for the promotion of cultural resources (creation of innovative museums or applications and theme parks); b) the development of cultural heritage, the enhancement of modern cultural creation by establishing or improving art schools; c) the emergence of alternative forms of tourism based on naturalism and culture, together with the development and strengthening of "green" archaeological routes and parks; and d) the improvement of networking between islands to showcase their cultural resources and activities (cultural trips, large-scale network events, museums network).

Culture also provides the background for the development of island business activity areas, which contribute decisively to income and employment creation and to the provision of quality cultural services to the general public. It is imperative to prioritise actions aiming at: a) the promotion and capitalisation of cultural heritage (e.g. protection, visibility and promotion of archaeological sites and monuments, facilitation of tourists who visit sites, monuments and museums by creating and enhancing island marine archaeological-tourist routes, etc.); b) the support of cultural and creative industries and modern culture (cinema, audiovisual media, publishing, design, visual arts, performing arts - music, dance, theater, etc.); and c) the support of modern Greek creativity by encouraging young artists to take professional initiatives in the field of visual and performing arts.

Finally, the cultural wealth of the islands is highlighted through the protection and promotion of monuments and archaeological sites selected according to strict criteria such as: a) the archaeological and historical significance of the site or the monument; b) their inclusion in UNESCO's World Heritage list (such as the Asklepion in Kos); c) their function as tourist attractions; d) their inclusion in wider upgrading projects of urban areas or of sites of environmental importance.

All these elements can be used to enrich and diversify the tourist product of the islands. Thus Culture has become the growth leverage of the South Aegean Region's tourism policy in order to attract quality tourism to the South Aegean islands. This concept was represented explicitly in the initiative to establish 2014 as Year of Culture of the South Aegean Region, an initiative followed by the relevant operational plan, including actions related to the promotion, development and production of cultural tourism.

More specifically, the main objective of the thematic Year of Culture (Ftaklaki, 2014) was the promotion of the South Aegean islands not only through the concept "Sea and Sun", but also through the richness of tradition, the cultural heritage and the civilisation of the South Aegean islands, highlighting the Region's identity as an Archipelago of Culture, and gave

tourism a new development course by capitalising the cultural wealth of the place. The main axes of the South Aegean Region's thematic cultural year were the following:

- Cultural Routes in the South Aegean: Cultural routes represent a new approach, as far as quality is concerned, to preserving cultural heritage by identifying a predetermined course in its monuments within a narrowly defined thematic, historical or conceptual context. Each cultural route incorporates components of cultural intangible or tangible heritage into a common system and creates new relationships between them, giving a new perspective that provides a more accurate view of history through the experience of the visit. More specifically, it was decided to develop routes that had as a core the Classical and Hellenistic Age, Ulysses' Routes, the sea routes of the ancient Phoenicians in the historical cities and ports of the Mediterranean, the medieval routes, the wine routes, the fire routes (a network of volcanoes), an industrial heritage network comprising pre-industrial and industrial complexes and buildings in the South Aegean, and the green routes (natural beauty areas, Natura areas, etc.).
- Promotion of folk culture: Recording and promotion of local festivals and creation of a folk events guide serving as a cultural calendar.
- Promotion of the creative industry: They constitute a highly dynamic and growing component of the economy of cities and countries and as such, in recent years, they attract the focus of international and European development strategies.
- The development of a myth per island derived from the islands' mythology, can strengthen not only the cultural character of the South Aegean islands, but also their cultural identity. The revival of myths, traditions and legends and their interconnection with the respective monuments and sites of the Aegean islands will contribute to the emergence of the destination identity and their educational value will be perceived. The selected myths were bundled and digitised in 3D animation.

In addition to these actions, other actions were also carried out in the South Aegean in cooperation with the Municipalities and cultural institutions, associations and other entities, highlighting to the maximum extent the multifaceted cultural dimension of the particular Region. Overall, the thematic development of the Year of Culture for the Region of South Aegean in 2014 was successful and it set the foundations for further actions in this field, such as the European Capital of Culture claim, made by the Municipality of Rhodes for 2019, and the successful petition put forward by the South Aegean Region to be awarded the title of the European Region of Gastronomy 2019. Such integrated initiatives contribute to a comprehensive approach to cultural tourism and can establish the South Aegean as a destination with qualitative features.

4. GOVERNANCE AND CULTURAL TOURISM IN GREECE IN THE EU CONTEXT

The Greek experience, as demonstrated above through the analysis of the South Aegean Region, in formulating and implementing public policies and specific projects in the combined fields of culture and tourism, requires the development of a governance scheme that will encompass elements fitting to both these fields.

First of all, it is necessary to define what is a governance scheme in order to avoid any misconceptions with similar notions, notably the notion of government. Governance can be defined as a set of actions by institutions and actors, involving input from both the public and private sector, contributing to the formulation and implementation of public policies, leading to

the production, in common or separately, and enactment of norms, rules and laws for the society. It is an activity based on the complementarity of actions between public and private actors. This complementarity is also expressed as a form of competition between the actors involved (Skiadas, 2017, pp. 111-125 and the references therein).

In other words, a scheme of governance determines who has power, who makes decisions, how other players make their voice heard and how account is rendered. It reflects the economic, social, cultural and political system in which it exists. Typically there are four types of governance (Hall, 2011), ranging from hierarchies (state governance) to markets (essentially private economic actors and their associations) to networks (dominated by various forms of public-private partnerships and associations) to communities (governance at the most local level with direct public involvement).

Given that state actors claim a dominant role in being competent in formulating policy in fields such as tourism and culture, usually the hierarchical model is employed in order to identify the position of tourism and culture in the overall public policy agenda, and, based on that, to plan and implement policies driving positive social and environmental change by providing a more meaningful role for host communities. However, interesting findings have been noted, with regard to tourism, into governance on networks and communities; the former, because the organisations that are set up to direct tourism development and its marketing are almost exclusively constituted of partnerships that involve public and quasi-public sector organisations and tourism business interests, while the latter are advanced as the solution to ensuring that benefits from tourism are maximised for the local population and the conservation of the environment (Joppe, 2018).

Based on these conceptual approaches, there are certain factors that need to be taken into account when establishing the parameters of such a governance scheme with regard to cultural tourism. The first factor is that in Greece, the policy fields of culture and tourism, while being substantively interconnected, institutionally they have been developed, each in a separate governance framework that has been, throughout the years, characterised by sectoral barriers, not allowing for formal interactions. This option, as reflected by the existence of two separate ministries, which have had only a very brief period of time in a single institutional scheme, as demonstrated above, has led to the development and implementation of policies in the respective fields that do not take into account the possibilities of interaction amongst them. The result is the lack of a formal public policy on cultural tourism. There are only actions, sometimes formulated into programmes, that are treated as strategy, thus allowing for the understanding that cultural tourism (and perhaps any other form of tourism) has as its main aspect, the economic dimension of the activities involved, given that the relevant debates on such programmes are focused on their financial elements (sources of funding, cost-benefit analysis, expenditure level, etc.). Thus, there is a plethora of governmental papers proving the focus on tourism's economic contributions above all else and the main volume of tourism policy is focused for instance on how to increase revenues from visitors, and more specifically international overnight tourists. Hence, where national or regional policies exist, these are focused on a better understanding of the tourist markets, their potential, catering to their needs, and strategies to attract them. On the contrary, there are limited but notable examples of integrated attempts of adopting a more general approach in formulating a policy on culture and tourism, one of them being the Strategic Plan for the development of cultural tourism in the region of South Aegean "2014: Year of Culture".

Furthermore, consideration must also be given to the status of both tourism and culture as fields of policy that are included in the complementary competences of the EU. This means that

the institutions of the EU have a limited competence in addressing policies in the field of cultural tourism, as they are entitled only to carry out actions to support, coordinate or supplement the actions of the Member States (see Art. 6 TFEU). This means that the EU's interventionist capacity is very limited as the institutional arsenal of the EU in producing policies and legal texts, i.e. the ordinary legislative procedure as defined in Article 294 TFEU, cannot be employed in the fields of culture and tourism. The "Community Method", involving the sole right of the European Commission to initiate legislation, the co-decision power between the Council and the European Parliament, and the use of qualified majority voting in Council, is not a scheme of regulatory governance that the EU may use in the fields of culture and tourism. In other words, the EU activity in these fields cannot lead to the harmonisation of the Member States' respective laws or regulations (Rossi, 2012).

On the contrary, a more intergovernmental method is applicable, which entails the following features: the Commission's right of initiative is shared with or given exclusively to the EU countries, the European Council often plays a key role in setting policy orientations which the national authorities have to follow, and their actions are monitored and evaluated as successful or not by their peers within the Union, the Council generally acts unanimously and the European Parliament has a mainly consultative role. This is known as the "open method of coordination", a governance scheme which has been articulated as a means of coordinating national action within the EU context, without crossing the limits of EU competences (Craig & De Burca, 2008, pp. 150-154).

Furthermore, another factor to be taken into account entails the multiple layers of authority which exist, at national level, with regard to the distribution of competences between the central, regional and local authorities in the fields of culture and tourism. There are various models of such distribution, ranging from complete centralisation of competences to central authorities (Ministry, National Organisation, etc.) to complete decentralisation of competences to the regional or local authorities, depending on the national traditions and understanding of governance in every state. The multi-level governance experience in the EU in fields such as the EU Cohesion Policy or the Common Agricultural Policy, may serve as useful examples of formulating a balanced scheme of governance and this balance will be two-fold: Horizontal, i.e. a balanced distribution of competences between the EU authorities and the national authorities, and Vertical, i.e. a balanced distribution of competences between the central, regional and local authorities of each country. Employing the concept of the partnership principle - well established in the field of EU Cohesion Policy (European Commission, 2016) - may provide an innovating approach to the formulation of a governance scheme focusing in the fields of culture and tourism and their combination.

Any possible objections to such a scheme, based on the argument of the complementary nature of the EU's competences in these fields may be addressed by the counter-argument that the concept of competence is a functional notion, not an organisational one. Therefore, it is the density of competences provided to the EU or the national bodies that will serve as a measure of controlling whether such a governance scheme is actually surpassing the formal division of competences between the EU and its member states, as enshrined in the Treaties.

In this context, the main aspects of such a governance scheme should be focused on the following elements:

- Establish a solid and integrated organisational structure, which, at national level, may take the form of a Ministry for Culture and Tourism or of a Permanent Interministerial Committee for Cultural Tourism (as an executive body). Such an institution will have the

political authority and the legal competence to prepare the relevant formal strategy in the field of cultural tourism, making use of the input provided by the existing bodies in both fields (culture and tourism). Furthermore, as a means of vertical distribution of authority, a multilevel governance scheme may be employed, by granting the regional and local authorities the legal competence of developing their own policies, within the framework of the national strategy on cultural tourism. Their role will not be limited in merely presenting annual or multiannual action programmes (participating in exhibitions, presenting media and advertising campaigns, etc.) but will be extended in producing actual political choices, focused on the cultural and touristic characteristics of their regions/areas, and involving the regional and local actors of culture and tourism, both from the public and private sector.

- Develop a dedicated strategy with clear aims, objectives, indicators and actions for cultural tourism. This strategy may be formulated at EU level, in the form of policy guidelines, by the European Council (thus demonstrating the political importance attributed to the field in question) and then articulated and adjusted at national level. It is crucial to involve in the relevant proceedings, at both levels, EU and national, all culture and tourism stakeholders in order to capitalise from their input and create the necessary conditions for consensus “on the spot”, i.e. by those involved in the actual implementation of the policies. Ensuring the systematic and active involvement of cultural tourism’s private-sector stakeholders, is imperative in that perspective.
- Prevent regulatory duplication and remove regulatory contradictions within the single market for cultural tourism services, by ensuring better coordination of policies and regulations affecting tourism among the various actors with regulatory competence, both at EU level (mainly in terms of policies’ contents) and, especially, at national level (mainly in terms of producing national legislation and rules in implementing the policies adopted)
- Identify and promote good practices in cultural tourism, reflecting the experience gained by models of institutional development with verified added value such as the Destination Management Organisation (DMO) and the Cultural Tourism Observatory, all these supported by active research schemes, involving Universities, that may provide invaluable analysis of data and documentation of choices. Such schemes may serve as platforms of regularly monitoring and evaluating the performance and impact of the visitor economy, for instance on the overall economic performance in terms of accurate sustainability and employment data.
- Enact and maintain an integrated and stable fiscal governance element, which will entail the following aspects: the provision of appropriate notice (at least two years) for any changes to relevant regulations (tax or other) affecting cultural tourism, the simplification of tax law and consumer protection law in terms of contents and ensuring their consistent enforcement, and the establishment of a transparent system of tax collection and the use of the tax revenue arising from the visitor economy, in order to establish the clear contribution of the cultural tourism in the Gross Domestic Income.
- Provide sources of smart and sustainable funding or investment incentives to cultural tourism actors, in relation to their impact on growth and job creation, while taking into account the needs of visitors, workers, enterprises, at local, regional, national and European level.

5. CONCLUSION

The main point highlighted in this paper is the necessity as well as the possibility to develop an effective governance scheme that will allow the formulation and implementation of public policies and political choices in the field of cultural tourism. This scheme will involve both public and private actors, at all levels, thus activating all possible synergies and forms of cooperation, that will make the initiatives undertaken in the field of cultural tourism attractive and viable. The contents of the combined elements of culture and tourism require an integrated approach that will balance the substance of the options offered to all those visiting Greece as tourists of any form. This sort of governance focuses on the capacities of the tourist product as well as on the expressed or anticipated desires of the tourists. The modern traveler does not seek only to consume the various elements of tourist product (location, climate, hospitality, nutrition, etc), but also wishes to "live the experience", to understand the environment (social, economic, natural, or even political) of the selected destination, and to feel that he/she becomes a part of it, even for a brief time frame. Therefore, the choices of "experience trips" on behalf of the tourist are very frequent, as such trips are consistent with contemporary mentality and culture, according to which after having already covered the needs for survival and security, the quest for higher goals and deeper meanings in life arises, allowing the opportunities for self-realisation as described by Aristoteles! And cultural tourism provides the concept as well as the means for such an experience.

REFERENCES

- Boswijk, A., Peelen E. & Olthof, St. (2012), *Economy of Experiences*, European Centre for the Experience Economy.
- Council of the European Communities (1984), Resolution of 10 April 1984 on a Community policy on tourism, [1984] OJ C 115/01-28, of 30.04.1984.
- Council of the European Communities (1992), Decision 92/421/EEC of 13 July 1992 on a Community action plan to assist tourism [1992] OJ L 231, of 13.08.1992, pp. 26–32.
- Council of the European Union (2010), Declaration of Madrid within the scope of the informal ministerial meeting for tourism under the Spanish Presidency in April 2010 in Madrid under the motto "Towards a socially responsible tourism model", COMPET 161, TOUR 2, 9864/10 of 18.05.2010, Annex.
- Craig, P. & De Burca, Gr. (2008), *EU Law – Text, cases and materials*, Oxford University Press.
- Craufurd Smith, R. (2011), 'The evolution of cultural policy in the European Union'. In P. Craig, Gr. De Burca (Eds.), *The Evolution of EU Law* (pp. 869-895), Oxford University Press.
- Durán Fuentes, C. (2013), *Governance for the tourism sector and its measurement*, United Nations World Tourism Organization.
- Estol, J. & Font, X. (2016), 'European tourism policy: Its evolution and structure', *Tourism Management*, 52, pp. 230-241.
- European Commission (1995), Green Paper on The role of the Union in the field of tourism, COM(1995) 95 final.
- European Commission (2001), Communication on Working together for the future of European tourism, COM(2001) 665 final.
- European Commission (2006), Communication on A renewed EU tourism policy: towards a stronger partnership for European tourism, COM(2006) 134 final.
- European Commission (2007), Communication on an Agenda for a sustainable and competitive European tourism, COM(2007) 621 final.
- European Commission (2010), Communication on Europe, the world's No 1 tourist destination – a new political framework for tourism in Europe, COM(2010) 352 final.

- European Commission (2010/updated 2013), Implementation rolling plan of tourism action framework, COM(2010) 352 (update: 6 May 2013).
- European Commission (2012), Communication on Blue Growth opportunities for marine and maritime sustainable growth, COM(2012) 494 final.
- European Commission (2014), Communication on A European Strategy for more Growth and Jobs in Coastal and Maritime Tourism, COM(2014) 86 final.
- European Commission (2016), *Implementation of the partnership principle and multi-level governance in 2014-2020 ESI Funds*, Final Report, July 2016, Publications Office of the European Union.
- European Parliament (1997), Resolution on the Amsterdam Treaty (CONF 4007/97 - C4-0538/97) A4-0347/97.
- Ftaklaki, E. (2013), *Strategy of the South Aegean Region for Tourism*, as approved with the approval/amendment decisions nos. 321/26-04-2013 and 105/18-07-2013 of the Regional Council of South Aegean.
- Ftaklaki, E. (2014), 'Tourism – Culture and Mass Media'. In Proceedings of the Scientific Conference in Rhodes (12-13 June 2014) (pp. 22-26), Lipson Publications.
- Hall, C. M. (2011), A typology of governance and its implications for tourism policy analysis. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 19(4–5), pp. 437–457.
- Joppe, M. (2018), 'Tourism policy and governance: Quo vadis?', *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 25, pp. 201–204.
- Kousounis, St. (2009), 'The administrative structure of the ministry of tourism changes every four years', *Kathimerini*, 10 February 2009. Accessed 5 September 2018 from: <http://www.kathimerini.gr/372536/article/oikonomia/ellhnikh-oikonomia/ka8e-tessera-xronia-allazei-dioikhtikh-domh-to-yp-toyris moy>.
- Lehmeier, H. (2010), 'Tourism policy and regional development in the European Union', *Geographica Timisiensis*, 19(2), pp. 121-131.
- Mylonopoulos, D. & Kondoudaki, A. (2011), *Communication policy in the public tourism sector. Strategies and techniques in the European Union member states*, Open Library Publishing.
- Rossi, L.S. (2012), 'Does the Lisbon Treaty provide a clearer separation of competences between EU and Member States'. In A. Biondi, P. Eeckhout & S. Ripley (Eds.), *EU Law after Lisbon* (pp. 85-106), Oxford University Press.
- Sarantakou, E. (2014), Analysis and evaluation of the governance system in the South Aegean Region and suggestions for improvement in the direction of innovative tourism governance, in the study entitled *Recording of the current situation of tourism offer and demand in the South Aegean in terms of Sustainability* (3rd module), University of the Aegean. Accessed 5 September 2018 from: <http://tourismobservatory.ba.aegean.gr/>.
- Skiadas, D. (2016), *Updated Strategic Plan - South Aegean Region Operational Programme* (issue VI, July 2016), as approved with the decision 169/26-8-2016 of the Regional Council of South Aegean.
- Skiadas, D. (2017), *Regulatory governance – Theory and experience in Greece and the European Union*, University of Macedonia Press.
- Spilanis, Y. (2014a), 'Creation of scientific tourism monitoring mechanisms in the Region of South Aegean'. In the study entitled *Promotion of the South Aegean Region tourist product*, University of the Aegean. Accessed 5 September 2018 from: <http://tourismobservatory.ba.aegean.gr/>.

- Spilanis, Y. (2014b), 'Support for the development of sustainable tourism in the South Aegean. In the study *Promotion of the South Aegean Region tourist product*, University of the Aegean. Accessed 5 September 2018 from: <http://tourismobservatory.ba.aegean.gr/>.
- Tsartas, P.A. (2010), *Hellenic touristic policy: characteristics, investigations, proposals*, Kritiki Publications.
- Wang, S., Fu, Y., Cecil, A. & Avgoustis, S. (2008), 'Impact of cultural tourism upon quality of life: the resident's perspective'. In *Proceedings of the 2008 International CHRIE Conference*, pp. 516-523.

TOWARDS THE SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY OF MUSEUMS: APPLICATION ON THE NUBIAN MUSEUM IN EGYPT

Prof. Nashwa Fouad Attallah

Tourism Studies Department, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels,
Alexandria University, Egypt
Email: nashwafouad1@yahoo.com

Asmaa Mozammel

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

ABSTRACT

Many museums search ways to improve their sustainability, yet the methods to proceed towards and measure sustainability are still under discussion. Social sustainability has become a growing priority within sustainable development programs, and is now often described as a fourth pillar, equal to economic, culture, and environmental concerns. Museums play an important part in socio-cultural and natural sustainability. In particular, they stimulate the sense of place, social cooperation, memory, training and environmental awareness. They assist maintain cities as potential socio-cultural centres and are considered “means” for the revitalization of cities. This paper reviews the indicators of social sustainability in museums and applied it on the Nubian Museum in Egypt to investigate its current situation and explore whether it is socially sustainable and contributes to the sustainable development of the Nubian local Community. The results revealed that the Nubian Museum is to some extent socially sustainable. However, there are some defects that should be addressed. As only few studies have been carried out about the topic of this study, its findings will have useful implications for the museum’s management,

Keywords: Sustainable development, Social sustainability, museum, indicators, Nubian Museum, Egypt.

1 INTRODUCTION

Sustainability is the aim for many institutions, including museums, but as yet there are no museum-specific methods for measuring sustainability. Museums can be both sustainable businesses and essential components of sustainable communities through the preservation and presentation of their collections of the past for the future (Adams, 2010). Nevertheless, museums often lack the required development to keep on their work and exchange knowledge, history and culture through generations. Several plans of development, which help the sustainable development of museums, were adopted by the museums' management all over the world. However, the most promising approaches that have resulted in a sustainable development were the ones that were typically, based on changing the focus of the organization from looking inside to looking outwards to visitors and societies (Hooper-Greenhill, 1994). However, many museums seem to be unsustainable. This relates to the manner and rate of obtaining objects, as well as, the poor policy and future vision of museums' management (Davies, 2008). On the other hand, it is clear that challenges like change in the visitors' demographic profile, alteration in audience culture and needs, the introduction of knowledge age, adjustments in museums external environment and financial constraints on museums have negatively affected the sustainability of museums. Therefore, development models, as well as, adoption plans should be developed based on the intensity of the different forces, to suit the multiple changes which occurred in the past three decades to enhance their viability (El-Adawy, 2016).

This study presents the four pillars of the sustainability but it focuses on only one facet of it which is social sustainability. This is in order to deepen the understanding and measurement of social sustainability and as a relevant starting point to a more comprehensive approach to exploring the sustainability of museums (Adams, 2010).

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Museums and the Sustainable Development

Sustainable development is the notion of the relationship between economic growth and the environment. The term was first used in 1987 by the World Commission on Environment and Development. It was defined as "development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (United Nations, 1987, p.9). That's why, museum managers have tried to overcome the increasing difficulties that occurred as a result of several changes in visitors' numbers, demographics, education and the change in the leisure industry (Hooper-Greenhill, 1994; Marstine, 2006; Friedman, 2007; Davies and Wilkinson, 2009; Black, 2012; Falk and Dierking, 2012). In addition, elements of sustainable development were being investigated in museums to come up with practical frameworks that are suitable and applicable in a museum context and which are expected to support its sustainable development (El-Adawy, 2016).

According to Friedman (2007), to become sustainable, a museum should have a long-term vision about its objectives and what it aims to offer society and to make sure that its objectives meet the wants and needs of it.

2.2 Museums and the Pillars of Sustainability

Sustainability is often considered to have three components: environmental, social and economic sustainability. These are sometimes referred to as ‘pillars’, and generate the concept of ‘triple-bottom-line’ reporting (Hawkes, 2001). Therefore, investigating the triple-bottom line of sustainability was a basic approach to understanding how the concept is organized in museums (Davies and Wilkinson, 2009).

Social sustainability focuses on community development as the major interest of museums. It is an indicator of how positive and sustainable the relationship between museums and their audience is and to what extent society supports the museum’s existence and continuity. Through their own behavior, museums can act as a model for sustainable living. By initiating community activities related to local culture and by being responsible to the same community, museums can strengthen society and further contribute to community sustainability (Adams, 2010). Museums preserve the well-being of a community by providing a place that is socially inclusive and encourages unity, and a place where knowledge can be shared in a specialized environment. In general, museums have a positive effect on society (Museums Association, 2008).

Economical sustainability puts stress on sustaining museum by granting funds, good allocation and control of gained funds and other capital resources (El-Adawy, 2016). Economic factors are a perfect example of the mutual nature of the museum community relationship. The society supports the museum with time, money or in non-monetary ways such as volunteering, and directly through donations (Creative City Network of Canada, 2005; Lord, 2009). On the other hand, the museum stimulates the local economy by, for instance, employing people and by purchasing local goods for their daily needs (Creative City Network of Canada, 2005). Moreover, museums can raise revenue for themselves through their gift shop, publications, café and other activities which in turn help them to maintain their services to the community (Scott, 2002).

Environmental sustainability requires a responsible environmental performance in the extraction of artifacts and their preservation, waste generation (by explaining environmentally sound waste management programs) and water use (through their displays and exhibitions), as well as, energy use (by using energy-efficient tools, by purchasing ‘green’ energy, by installing energy generators such as solar panels and by harvesting rainwater for appropriate re-use) (Adams, 2010).

Furthermore, museums can encourage environmentally-friendly methods of arriving to a place such as shuttle buses, or give information on public transport, or provide secure bicycle routes. In addition, museums can interpret the natural environment for visitors, and perhaps increase their appreciation of and desire to care for their environs. Besides, museums can interact with current events and news by hosting discussions or exhibitions (Adams, 2010).

Gaining a general understanding of the triple-bottom line fields of sustainability in a museum context helps museums’ professionals to have a holistic view of their situation which is considered a strong starting point for a promising development strategy (El-Adawy, 2016). However, achieving sustainability does not necessarily mean equally and simultaneously working on the triple-bottom line. According to McKenzie (2004), the approach for sustainable development is to be utilized based on the context in which it is being employed.

In 2001, Jon Hawkes developed the concept of a ‘fourth pillar’ (cultural sustainability). He believes that the ‘cultural aspect is as important to a sustainable and healthy society as

environmental responsibility, social equity, and economic viability (Museums Association, 2008). The fourth pillar emphasizes the interdependent nature of culture and sustainable development (Hawkes, 2001). Museums play an important role in helping communities protect and create their system of their ‘culture’ or values, and this in turn affects the decision-making process about sustainable development and finally their sustainability (Davies, 2008). By being an access point to cultural heritage, museums encourage people to experience their own and others culture (Crooke, 2007). Cultural heritage is a valuable tool for creating a sense of well-being, and for creating the basis of increased quality of life. Museums also have a good role in promoting a location as a cultural destination, attracting tourists and potential citizen alike (Creative City Network of Canada, 2005).

2.3 SOCIAL SUSTAINABILITY INDICATORS

“In terms of measuring sustainability, there are no indicators that have been specifically designed for museums and are widely available. As such there is no general sustainability measurement model for museums. However, there are indicator-based models for measuring performance -both in museums and in other sectors of industry and society - which may be adapted” (Adams, 2010, p.39). According to Mckenzie (2004), most of the effort exerted in the field of social sustainability is still theoretical to a great extent. Nevertheless, “a promising measurement tool for sustainability was developed by Chris Butters. This tool was applied on several projects to measure the level of their sustainability” (El-Adawy, 2016, p.42). The researcher adopted the measurement indicators for social sustainability applied on the Nubian Museum from Butters (2004) and El-Adawy (2016). Table 1.

Table 1 Indicators of social sustainability

Indicator	Description
Involvement	Participation, connection, shared responsibility
Accessibility	Inclusivity for all groups, accessibility to persons with disabilities and the elderly
Community support	Willingness to help and participation , provide a support
Identity	Sense of place, belonging, history and culture
Credibility	Ability to ensure reliable, proper service

Source: Butters (2004); El-Adawy (2016)

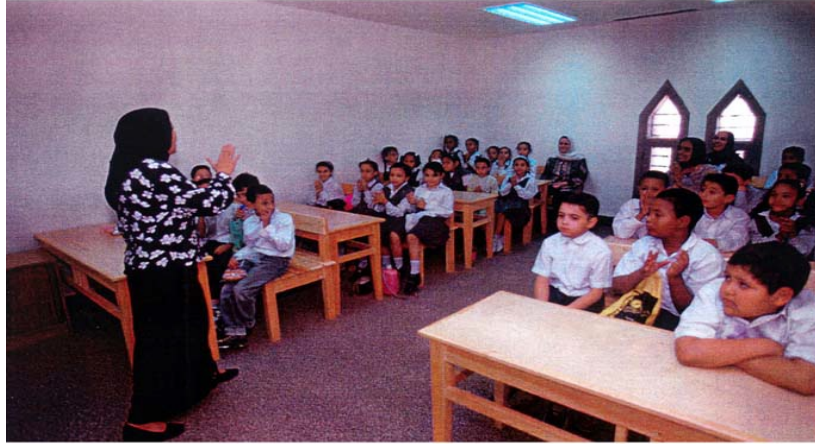
2.4 The Nubian Museum (The study area)

The Nubian Museum illustrates the culture and civilization of the Nubian region of Egypt from prehistoric times to the present. It is located in the city of Aswan, on the eastern bank of the Nile, 899 kilometres south of Cairo. The museum is a three-storey building with an outdoor exhibition area (picture 1). It contains not only three thousand objects found in the UNESCO expeditions, representing the history of the area from the prehistoric, Pharaonic, Roman, Coptic and Islamic ages, but also a diorama of the daily life of the Nubian people, who sacrificed their homes for the continued progress of the Egyptian nation. It houses the main finds of the UNESCO salvage campaign carried out at the time of the High Dam building, which eventually flooded that whole region. Another major exhibit is a diorama which shows the daily life of Nubian villagers (UNESCO, 1997).

The Nubian Museum is part of a wider policy of the Supreme Council of Antiquities to display Egypt's many civilizations over the centuries. It aims to play the role of 'community museum' through its education section, which organizes school trips around the museum itself (picture 2) and also to neighbouring temples, and hosts cultural events by Nubian artists in the outdoor amphitheatre (organized by the Ministry of Culture and recently brought under the management of the Egyptian Opera House). In April 2000, the museum was approved by UNESCO as a centre for the preservation of archaeological remains for Africa and the Middle East (UNESCO, 1995).



Picture 1 Entrance of the Nubian Museum
Source: UNESCO (1997)



Picture 2 School children learn about Nubian culture in a classroom located in the south side of the museum

Source: UNESCO (1997)

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

- This research is descriptive analytical. “The descriptive analytical method is used to obtain information concerning the current status of the phenomena and to describe "what exists" with respect to variables or conditions in a situation” (Jackson, 2009, p. 89). The theoretical part focuses on highlighting the sustainability concept, its pillars with regard to museums, as well as, the indicators of social sustainability. Furthermore, it describes the Nubian museum which represents the study area.
- The practical part used the questionnaire as a survey method to collect data about the Nubian museum’s visitors and its current status as regard its social sustainability based on the indicators discussed in the previous section.
- The questionnaire was put on an online web site targeting a purposive sample of the Nubian community. It is divided into six parts. The first part concerns the demographic profile of the respondents and each of the five other parts represent a component of the social sustainability construct. Figure 1.



Figure 1 The Construct of Social Sustainability.

Source: authors

4 RESULTS

After two months, the researcher obtained 175 completed and valid questionnaires for analysis.

4.1 Respondents' demographic profile

- The results revealed that 53% of the respondents were male and 47% were females. As for their age, 53.6 % of them aged between 24-36 years, 41.7% between 12-24 years, 2.5% between 36 to 50 years and only 2.4% were above 50 years.
- The respondents showed a high educational level as approximately two-thirds of them (87.3%) have completed their university degree, while those who received high school education represent 12.7%. Besides, the results showed that over half of the respondents (74.1 %) are single, while about (25.9%) of them are married.
- In addition, (49.4%) of the respondents are employees, while 33.7% are students and only 16.9% are not employed yet.

4.2 Social Sustainability indicators

4.2.1 Accessibility

- First, participants were asked about their knowledge of the Nubian museum. The results indicated that around 44.8% of respondents claimed that they have had an average knowledge about the Nubian museum via family and friends, whereas around 20% stated that they have known about the museum through their school or university. In addition, only 8.6% of the respondents have recognized the museum through the social media (Internet).
- As regards their previous experience of visiting the museum, the results demonstrated that about (54.8%) had previous experience of visiting the museum ranging from one visit to more than three visits, while the remainder (33.9%) of the respondents visited it for the first time, and only 11.3 % have not visited the museum yet.
- Concerning the preferred method for the respondents to reach the museum, (62.8%) of them accessed it by car, followed by (20.2%) of them reached it by school or university bus and only (17%) used other means of transportation to access it.
- 92.3%, of the respondents clarified that the access of the Nubian museum was very easy while only 7.7% of them adopted the opposite point of view.
- Furthermore, respondents were asked whether there are enough guiding signs to the museum. Around 67.7% of them pointed out that there are clear guiding signs, while only 32.3% of the respondents disagreed with that.

4.2.2 Credibility

- Concerning credibility, the results revealed that 66% of the respondents agreed that the museum has a role in serving the community, whereas, 34% of them disagreed with that.

4.2.3 Identity

- As regards the identity, 88.7% of the respondents agreed that the museum holds a unique identity in culture and history, while only 11.3% were against this argument.

4.2.4 Community support

- Regarding the community support, the results indicated that only 13.7% have participated in the Nubian museum activities or have attended the workshops conducted in the museum which is considered as a low indicator. Additionally, respondents were asked about the means through which they would like to support the museum. Almost 85.4 % of the respondents stated that they would give recommendations to others to visit the museum. Another 12.7% of the respondents said that they wanted to participate as volunteers in the museum activities, while 1.3% claimed that they would like to support the museum only financially.

4.2.5 Community involvement

- With regard to community involvement, 93.6 % did not give any suggestions or complaints to the museum managers, whereas only 6.4% gave suggestions and complaints either through the direct contact with the Nubian museum managers, the Nubian museum staff or through the museum suggestions' box. However, some of them expressed that the managers of the Nubian museum like many museum managers do not like to accept that they have any defects.

5 CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

This paper aimed at highlighting the indicators of social sustainability in museums and applying them on the Nubian Museum to explore whether it is socially sustainable.

The findings revealed that more than half of the respondents had previous knowledge of the Nubian museum either from family members or friends or from school and university which indicates that the word of mouth is very important factor in Aswan and encourages more efforts to be done as regards the promotion of the museum and its activities.

Furthermore, the majority of the Nubian Museum visitors confirmed that the arrival to the Nubian museum was very easy and they are to great extent satisfied with the guiding signs to the Nubian Museum which is a good indicator.

The results also revealed that the respondents believe that the museum is doing its role towards the community and the theoretical part testifies that the Nubian Museum offers various activities, such as lectures and workshops. However the museum is expected to increase its offered activities to better serve the community.

In addition, the visitors found that the Nubian museum hold unique objects and this contributes positively to the identity of place both culturally and historically. These results are in line to a great extent with the study of El-Adawy (2016).

On the other hand, the results indicated that the majority of Nubian Museum visitors did not participate significantly in the museum workshops and activities, although the museum has continuously announced its workshops via the social media channels. Yet the museum still could work hard to strengthen such perception. Additionally, most visitors have the desire to support the museum by encouraging others to visit it. Other visitors said that they would like to participate in volunteer activities, while a less percentage of visitors claimed that they like to support the museum only financially

The findings also showed that the majority of the visitors didn't give any recommendations or suggestions to the management and staff of the Nubian museum and when they talked to the management of the Nubian museum they were unsatisfied because the management as a many museum administration does not like to accept its defects.

These results indicate that the Nubian museum is to a great extent socially sustainable; however it needs to exert some efforts to overcome some weak points. Therefore, the study findings will help managers to develop a new perspective on how to conduct a development approach that increase the level of social sustainability of the museum and provide better services that meets the visitors' needs.

6 RECOMMENDATIONS

- The Nubian museum management is advised to have various activities outside the museum premises and to create interactive activities that combine educational with leisure activities to better contribute to community development.
- Managers should create different methods and ways to disseminate knowledge about the museum to different groups and not to focus on specific groups as a way to raise visitors' awareness.
- Managers are advised to facilitate community involvement in the museum through volunteering or involvement in the decision-making process which would help its development with fewer burdens on the government in terms of resources.
- Visitors should be invited to attend discussions tackling future developments, and experience that their views and opinions are taken into consideration by museums' professionals.
- It is recommended to add a marketing unit within the Nubian Museum that conducts periodical research on visitors to discover their needs, desires and problems.
- Managers should accept that they have some weak points and should react to the visitors' complaints in order to overcome their problems and to achieve the practical community involvement.

- Furthermore, programs for various groups should be developed and work on the publicity of the museum should be conducted which is an important step towards the social sustainability of museums.

7 FUTURE RESEARCH

Future research could deal with the other two major factors of sustainability including environmental and economic sustainability. The financial constraints are a big problem facing the governmental museums in Egypt. That's why research that contributes to their economic sustainability through volunteer activities and donors is an extremely important facet to be studied.

Moreover, it is recommended to develop specific more detailed indicators for the sustainability of museums.

REFERENCES

- Adams, E. (2010). *Towards Sustainability Indicators for Museums in Australia*. Australia: University of Adelaide.
- Black, G. (2012). *Transforming museums in the twenty-first century*. London: Routledge.
- Butters, C. (2004). 'A Holistic Method of Evaluating Sustainability'. *Building and Urban Development in Norway: A Selection of Current Issues*, 38–43.
- Creative City Network of Canada (2005). *Making the Case for Culture*. Creative CityNetwork of Canada. Available from: [https://www.creativecity.ca/database/files/library/arts_positive_change\(1\).pdf](https://www.creativecity.ca/database/files/library/arts_positive_change(1).pdf) (Accessed on 28/4/2018).
- Crooke, E. (2007). *Museums and the Community: Ideas, Issues and Challenges*. London: Routledge.
- Davies, M. (2008). 'A Sustainable Future'. *Museums Journal*. 108(6), pp 28-31.
- Davies, M. and Wilkinson, H. (2009). *Sustainability and museums: Your chance to make a difference*. London: Museums Association.
- El-Adawy, E. (2016). *A visitor-centric Approach to Socially Sustainable Museums: The Egyptian Geological Museum* A Thesis Submitted to Centre for Sustainable Development . Cairo: the American University.
- Falk, J. H., & Dierking, L. D. (2012). *Museum Experience Revisited*. Walnut Creek, CA, USA: Left Coast Press.
- Friedman, A. J. (2007). The Great Sustainability Challenge: How Visitor Studies Can Save Cultural Institutions in the 21st Century. *Visitor Studies*, 10(1), 3–12. <http://doi.org/10.1080/10645570701263396>
- Hawkes, J. (2001). *The Fourth Pillar of Sustainability: Culture's Essential Role in Public Planning*, Melbourne: Common Ground Publishing.
- Hooper-Greenhill, E. (1994). *Museums and Their Visitors*. London, GBR: Routledge.
- Jackson, S.L. (2009). *Research Methods and Statistics: A Critical Thinking Approach 3rd edition*. Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Lord, G.D. (2009). *Museums and Sustainability: Economy, Culture and Community*, Available from:

- www.lord.ca/Pages/Lord_LordAcademy_LordArticles.htm (Accessed on 28/4/2018).
- Marstine, J. (2006). Introduction to New Museum in Theory and Practice. In J. Marstine (ed.). *New Museum Theory and Practice: An Introduction*. Oxford: Blackwell Publishing, pp. 1–36.
- McKenzie, S. (2004). *Social sustainability: Towards some definitions*. Hawke Research Institute. University of South Australia. Working Paper Series, (27), pp.1–31.
- Museums Association(2008). Sustainability and Museums: Your chance to make a difference. Available from: www.museumsassociation.org/sustainability (Accessed on 30/4/2018).
- Scott, C. (2002). ‘Measuring Social Value’. In R Sandell (ed.). *Museums, Society, Inequality*. London: Routledge, pp. 41-55.
- UNESCO (1995). *Museums International: Egyptian collection*.47(2). Cambridge.
- UNESCO (1997). *Nubian Museums :The Aga Khan Award for Architecture*. Paris: UNESCO.
- United Nations (1987). *Our Common Future*. Report of the World Commission on Environment and Development . Oslo. Available from: <http://www.un-documents.net/our-common-future.pdf> (Accessed on 30/4/2018).

HOTEL MARKETING PRACTICES EMPLOYED TO ENCOURAGE AND MANAGE ONLINE GUEST REVIEWS

Karam M. Ghazi^a (dr.karam.ghazi@gmail.com)

^a The High Institute of Tourism and Hotels (EGOTH), Alexandria, Egypt.

Abstract

However, online reviews grows constantly and influences both consumers' purchase decisions and hospitality companies' possibilities. There is a research gap concerning how to encourage and how to manage online guest reviews in the tourism industry in general and in the hotel industry in particular from hospitality companies' perspective. Using IPA method, his study investigates the practices that used by Egyptian hotel marketers to encourage and manage online guest reviews through assessing the importance level and usage level of practices, and testing the gap between these two levels. 186 self-administrated e-mail questionnaire were distributed in the Egyptian 5-star hotels. The results indicated a statistically significant and negative gap between the level of importance managers assigned to each practice and the usage level of that practice . Overall, the usage level of practices is lower than the importance level. Hence, there are opportunities for changes and improvement in Egyptian hotels.

Key Words: e-WOM, Online Review, Encouraging, Managing, Online Communities, IPA.

1. Introduction

Online reviews or recommendations—a form of e-WOM—have become an increasingly important due to its strong influence on customers' final purchasing decisions. This is particularly in the hospitality and tourism domain whose its intangible offerings are difficult to evaluate prior to their consumption and thus greatly dependent on the perceived image and reputation. Online reviews provide customers a more independent and therefore more reliable and up-to-date source of information to decide where to go and what to buy. It helps customers to evaluate alternatives, reduce uncertainty in purchase situations, increase product awareness, provide ideas on travelling; help others to avoid places; help to imagine what a place will be like, and improve the probability of consumers to consider making a booking. Thus, online reviews have become an integral part of the decision making process and the major source of information for consumers (Cox *et al.*, 2009, Gu, *et al.*, 2009; Zhang *et al.*, 2010; O'Connor, 2010; Murphy

et al., 2010; Jeonga & Jang, 2011; Ye *et al.*, 2011; Litvin & Hoffman, 2012; Wilson *et al.*, 2012; Ekiz *et al.*, 2012; Hernandez-Mendez *et al.*, 2013; Gonzalez, *et al.*, 2013; EU, 2014; Cantallops & Salvi, 2014; Zarrad & Debabi, 2015; Tuten & Solomon, 2015; Molinillo, *et al.*, 2016).

Furthermore, online reviews also gives tourism and hospitality companies the possibility to: 1) shape customers' awareness, expectations, and pre-and post-perceptions, 2) reach out and gain more customers at low cost, 3) predict and affect sales or revenues, 4) effectively improve and develop the new and current products or services, 5) audit company's image and reputation on the internet, 6) build relationships with customers and facilitate consumer centric marketing, 7) follow up service failures and solve the problems of former visitors, 8) define networking agents, 9) profile customers, understand behavioral patterns and catch up on negative reviews before widely spread, 10) improve customers' satisfaction which can lead to competitive advantage and a good reputation from addressing customers' feedback, and 12) provide staff feedback (congratulate or reward after positive review-train after negative review (Buhalis, & Laws 2008; Gretzel, & Yoo, 2008; Vermeulen, & Seegers 2009; Gu *et al.* 2009; Cakim, 2010; O'Connor, 2010; Zhang *et al.*, 2010; Litvin & Hoffman, 2012; Wilson, *et al.* 2012; Ekiz, *et al.*, 2012; Cantallops & Salvi, 2014; Simonson & Rosen, 2014; Zeng, & Gerritsen, 2014; Jeonga & Jang, 2011; Anderson 2012; TripAdvisor, 2013; EU, 2014; Kim *et al.*, 2015; Molinillo, *et al.*, 2016).

Moreover, statistics showed that there has been a rapid increase in the uptake and use of online reviews in tourism and hotel sector (Anderson 2012; Tripadvisor, 2013; EU, 2014; Molinillo, *et al.*, 2016). Survey pointed that review websites are considered the most trusted and useful information sources when researching and planning trips, and the vast majority of travellers (93%) indicated that other people's evaluations on travel review websites influence their travel plans. It also showed that 8 out of 10 consumers tend to trust online reviews as much as personal recommendations. Indeed, nearly all businesses (96%) consider online reviews to be of utmost importance in generating bookings and about 80% of them are concerned about the potential impact of negative reviews (TripAdvisor, 2013).

As online reviews grows constantly, and influences consumers' purchase decisions and hospitality companies' possibilities. It is therefore important for hotel operators to know how to manage and deal with online guest reviews. However, there is a lack of research concerning how to encourage and how to manage online guest reviews in the tourism industry in general and in the hotel industry in particular (know-how) from companies' perspective (Grönroos, 2007; Litvin, *et al.*, 2008; Buhalis, & Laws 2008; Vermeulen, & Seegers, 2009; Gu *et al.*, 2009; O'Connor, 2010; Bonner, & De Hoog 2011; Jalilvand, *et al.*, 2011; Cantallops & Salvi, 2014; Zeng & Gerritsen, 2014; EU, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2009; Kim *et al.*, 2015; Molinillo, *et al.*, 2016). Consequently, the aim of this study was to investigate the practices that used by Egyptian hotel marketers to encourage and manage online guest reviews in order to both benefit from positive reviews and contain harmful negative comments. The results would provide hotels with valuable implications for improving or developing their online marketing strategies and practices.

2. Research Rational and Gap

Although online review research has been growing, there is a lack of empirical studies that investigate the strategies and practices that managers employ to encourage and manage online guest review in the tourism industry in general and in the hotels industry in particular (Grönroos, 2007; Litvin, *et al.*, 2008; Buhalis, & Laws 2008; Vermeulen, & Seegers, 2009; Gu *et al.*, 2009; O'Connor, 2010; Bonner, & De Hoog 2011; Jalilvand, *et al.*, 2011; Cantalops & Salvi, 2014; Zeng & Gerritsen, 2014; EU, 2014; Lee *et al.*, 2009; Kim *et al.*, 2015; Molinillo, *et al.*, 2016). In particular, the following research gaps are identified in literature:

1. There is a lack of research concerning how to encourage and how to manage online guest reviews in the tourism industry in general and in the hotel industry in particular (know-how). There is a need for studying the marketing strategies and practices for encouraging and managing guest reviews in electronic environments. Most previous research have been conducted in different industries other than tourism industry.
2. Most previous e-WOM or online review research focused on customers' perspective (online behaviors) rather than companies' perspective. This study analyze online reviews from company's perspective and more precisely from the Egyptian hotel marketers' viewpoint.
3. Most E-WOM and online review studies focus on developed countries rather than developing countries. This study is one of the first studies investigating how to encourage and manage online guest reviews in the Egyptian context.
4. There is a lack of studies on managing online positive reviews. Most studies focused on managing negative online reviews. However, the importance of positive reviews in attracting customers, the empirical research indicated that positive online reviews are not active implemented to the hotel webpages and are not active in e-marketing efforts in general.
5. There is no studies used IPA method for assessing the gap between importance and usage of practices to encourage & manage online guest reviews from hotel marketers' viewpoint.
6. The empirical research has shown that most hotels still considered online reviews as an information source (information channel), rather than a strategic marketing possibility (marketing channel). Most hotels does not have a specific e-WOM marketing strategy and do not include strategic implications to their general marketing strategy. Most hotels still focus on satisfying the needs of their guests during the service encounter or real experience.
7. Tourism and service providers face challenges when managing e-WOM or online reviews. 1) difficult to control the big amount and fast diffusion of online reviews being published by consumers. This will probably require a lot of resources, staff knowledge, and time consuming to monitor them. 2) difficult to manage the multitude of contents broadcasted by customers through different online communities. 3) difficult to respond to customers' comments regarding company's products and services. 4) difficult to target the appropriate online communities and customers when they convey a message represent a serious matter for these companies. 5) risk of online reviews being dishonest. It is easy to change identities on the Internet and the recommendations can be misleading or out of context. However, these challenges, e-WOM (online review) can be managed and should not be ignored. Hotels need to see it as a possibility and incorporate it into its marketing strategy.

These gaps and challenges put increasing pressures on hotels and hotel marketers to find the marketing strategies and practices to encourage and manage online guest reviews in order to both benefit from positive reviews and mitigate harmful outcomes of negative reviews and, subsequently, gain competitive advantage. The current study fill these research gaps by

investigating the practices used by Egyptian hotel marketers to encourage and manage online guest reviews, through assessing both the importance and usage of these strategies and practices in the Egyptian hotel context.

3. Aim, Objectives and Questions

The aim of this study is to investigate the marketing practices used to encourage the spread of positive online guest reviews as well as manage positive and negative online guest reviews in the Egyptian hotel context in order to benefit from positive reviews and contain harmful outcomes of negative comments. The study measures two related factors from hotel marketer's viewpoint 1) The level of importance of practices to encourage and manage online reviews, 2) The level of performance (actual usage) of these practices. It evaluates if managers know what practices they have to use in encouraging and managing online reviews and if they act accordingly and use these practices. In particular, this study aims to achieve four specific objectives as follows:

- 1) Assess the importance and usage level of the practices that used by hotel marketers to encourage the spread of positive online guest reviews.
- 2) Assess the importance and usage level of the practices that used by hotel marketers to manage the positive and negative online guest reviews.
- 3) Gauge the Gap between importance and usage of practices that employed to encourage and manage online guest reviews.

In relation to these objectives, the research questions are:

- 1) How Egyptian hotel marketers encourage the spread of positive online guest reviews?
- 2) How Egyptian hotel marketers manage positive and negative online guest reviews ?

4. Literature Review

Word-of-Mouth (WOM):

WOM, abbreviated from "Words of Mouth", is defined as an "informal person-to-person communication between a perceived non-commercial communicator and receiver regarding a brand, a product, an organization or a service" (Harrison-Walker, 2001, p. 63). WOM is the process of consumers providing information and opinions that can effect consumer's ultimate purchasing decision and direct a consumer toward or away from a specific product or service (Zhou *et al.*, 2013, p. 168). WOM is an offline setting where marketing messages are transferred through personal mediums, circulating from person to person. the influence of WOM is greater than other marketing methods, such as individual selling, printed advertisements, and radio. The key characteristic of WOM is that the sources are independent from commercial influence. It is especially relevant when the product is characterized by experiences due to people search for recommendations to reduce their perceptions of risk. This is very essential in the hotel and tourism industry since the product is being bought prior to consumption and experiences are intangible (Litvin *et al.*, 2008; Gu *et al.* 2009).

Electronic Word-of-Mouth (e-WOM):

Electronic word of mouth, also known as Online WOM, or e-WOM is defined as “any positive or negative statement made by potential, actual, or former customers about a product or company, which is made available to a multitude of people and institutions via the Internet” (HennigThurau, *et al.*, 2004, p. 39). These online customers’ statements prove to be higher in credibility, empathy and relevance for customers than firms’ marketing information (Jalilvand, *et al.*, 2011). E-WOM can also be defined as “informal communication between consumers through the internet where information about goods, services and sellers are posted” (Litvin *et al.*, 2008, p.461). Traditional WOM communication only had the potential to reach individuals in a consumer’s proximity, whereas e-WOM information can reach individuals all over the world because of the extensive use of the internet in the world. e-WOM communication can therefore be a powerful information source and be used within a consumer’s pre-purchase information search process, and thus have an impact on consumer’s final purchasing decision (HennigThurau, *et al.*, 2004; Litvin *et al.*, 2008; Jalilvand, *et al.*, 2011).

However, sometimes e-WOM called user generated content (UGC). UGC refer to opinions, referrals, recommendations, and rating stated without company influence (Moe and Schweidel, 2012; Wilson *et al.*, 2012). UGC contain a slight alteration from the broader scope of e-WOM. While, e-WOM is all communication posted online by both consumers and companies, UGC consists of e-WOM generated only by the consumer. UGC regards the actual creation of new content, whereas e-WOM is content that is conveyed by users (Cheong & Morrison, 2008). UGC is free from company-elicited messages and solely dependent upon online users to engage in transcribing experiences regarding a variety of products (Kozinets *et al.*, 2010). Prior to experiencing a tourist activity, tourists can seek and consume e-WOM through the use UGC sites. UGC sites are websites where consumers can access communication crafted by other consumers or where they would like to create content. As communication venues are open to consumers to contribute both positive and negative experiences without the usual positive input provided by companies, consumers of written eWOM have built an increased trust level on the content provided by those whom they have never met (Brown, *et al.*, 2007).

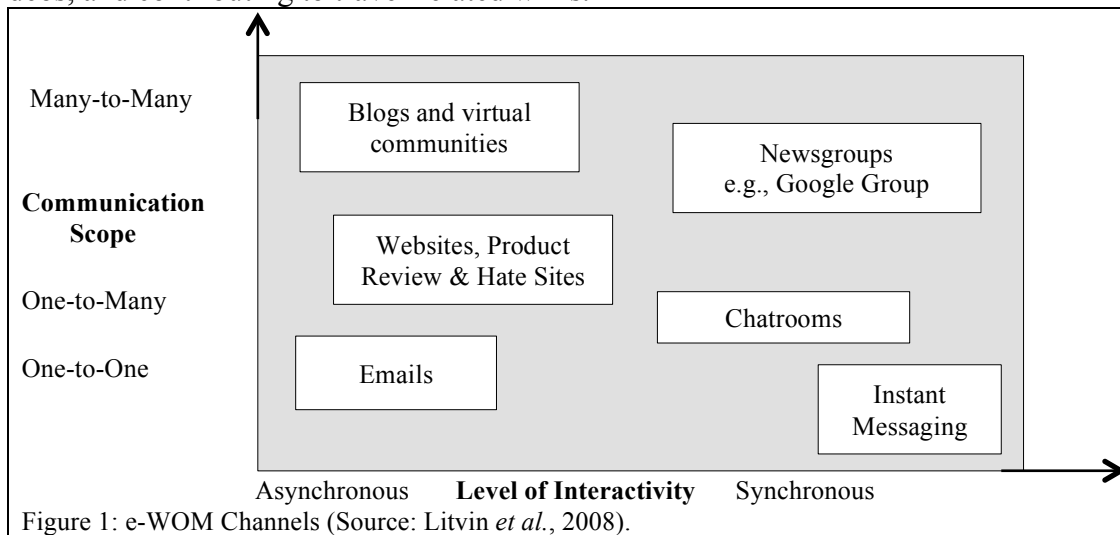
Online Review

Online review or recommendation is one type of information channel which is described as a product or service evaluation posted on a website (Litvin *et al.* 2008; Banerjee & Chua, 2014; Tuten and Solomon, 2015). Online review is often described as the most accessible and frequently used form of e-WOM and UGC (Jalilvand *et al.*, 2011; Cantalops & Salvi, 2014). It encompasses the act of write as well as the act of assimilates information provided by others (Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2004). It consists of positive or negative statements made by consumers about a product or service (Jalilvand *et al.*, 2011). Online review could be considered peer-generated purchase experiences (Mudambi and Schuff, 2010). With regard to hotel and travel, statistics show that there has been a rapid increase in the uptake and use of online reviews in the hotels and tourism sector. Thus, online reviews have become an integral part of the decision making process and the major source of information for consumers (Anderson 2012; EU, 2014; Molinillo, *et al.*, 2016).

Online Communities

Online community—also known as a virtual community, is “a group of people who may or may not meet one another face to face, and who exchange words and ideas through the mediation of computer bulletin boards and networks. Like any other community, it is also a collection of people who adhere to a certain (loose) social contract, and who share certain (electric) interests” (Rheingold, 2008). Online communities enable customers to share and comment their previous experiences and give some advice and feedback to others. This information exchange among customers—traditionally called electronic-Word-of-Mouth (e-WOM)—also named User-generated Content (UGC) (Litvin, *et al.*, 2008).

There are several types of e-WOM media channels and each possesses different characteristics, as depicted below in Figure 1 (Hennig- Thurau, 2004; Litvin *et al.* 2008; Yoo, and Gretzel, 2008). In tourism and hospitality industry, there are various websites of online reviews where consumers can obtain and share online information and reviews regarding products or services. These include: hotel review websites, hotel booking websites, travel and travel agencies websites, social networking websites, blogs, etc (Luo *et al.*, 2015; Tuten & Solomon, 2015). Yoo and Cretzel (2011) postulated that consumer generated media (CGM)—a form of UGC—within the travel industry could consist of reviews, blogs, posting pictures or videos, and contributing to travel-related wikis.



The four main types of UGC sites that have been utilized by tourists can be categorized into the following types: social networking sites (i.e. Facebook), review sites (i.e. TripAdvisor), supplier sites (i.e. hotel websites, tourism organizations), and visual content sharing sites (i.e. Flickr, YouTube) (Murphy *et al.*, 2010; Wilson *et al.*, 2012). These websites provide consumers with positive as well as negative information about products or services, which can help consumers make a final purchasing. On guest review websites, customers can actively influence opinions by posting comments online, on the other hand, they may passively consume information posted by others in order to develop their own purchasing decisions (EU, 2014; Molinillo, *et al.*, 2016). It also provides service providers with a feedback tool to monitor guests reactions and experiences, as well as needed improvements. Consequently, positive or negative online reviews have the power to benefit hotels or damage their image and reputation

(Jeonga & Jang, 2011). These comments can help companies to understand the needs of their customers and to undertake actions accordingly (Buhalis, and Laws 2008; Litvin *et al.* 2008; Molinillo, *et al.*, 2016). Statistics also reveals that review websites are considered the most trusted and useful sources of information when researching and planning trips. Indeed, the vast majority of travellers indicate that other people’s evaluations on travel review websites influence their travel plans (EU, 2014).

5. Methodology

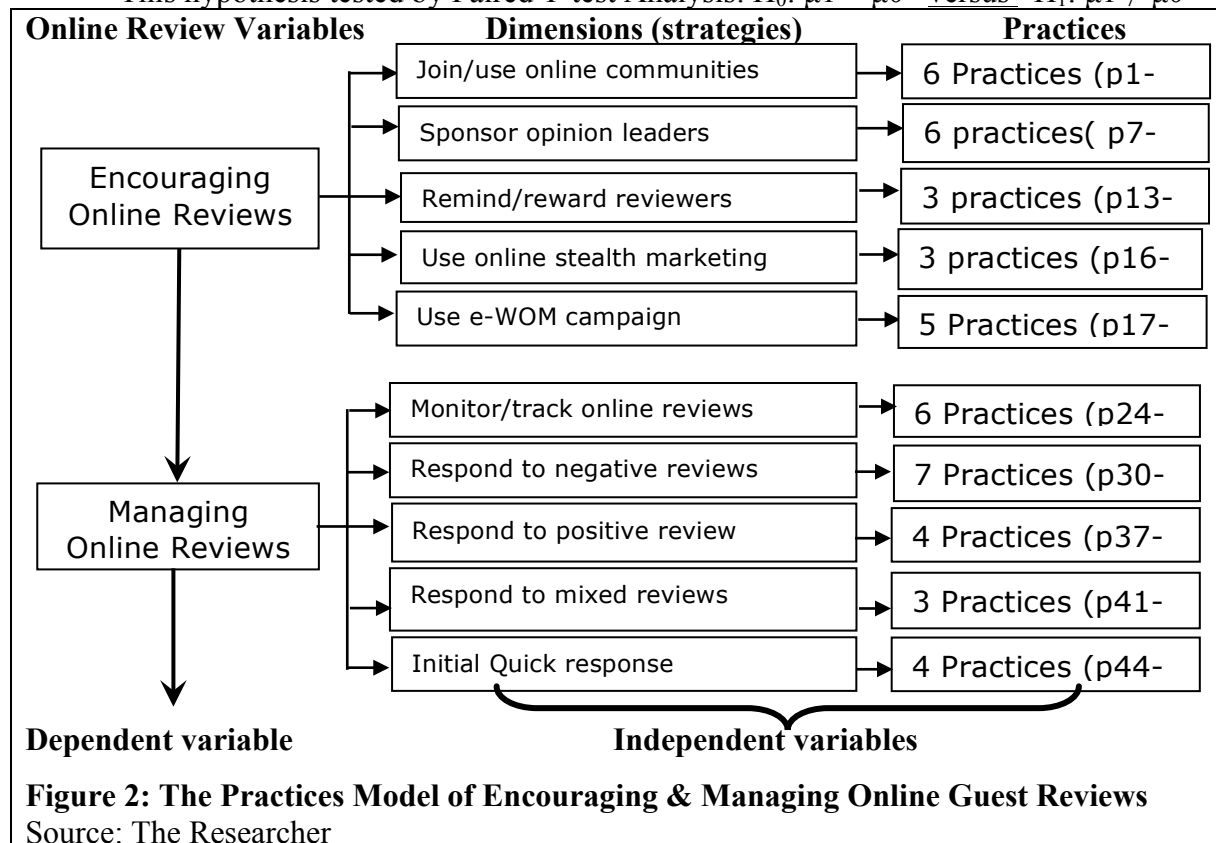
Theoretical Model and Hypotheses

Based on a literature review and research questions, the following framework and hypotheses have been established (Figure 2). The 10 dimensions and its 47 practices are assumed to be the most appropriate strategy to encourage and manage online guest reviews.

Hypothesis of this study is to test the gap between the importance level and usage level of practices used to encourage and manage online guest reviews, from hotel marketers’ viewpoint. It tests whether the usage level of practices are falling, meeting, or exceeding the importance level of these practices. **Hence, the null and alternate of Hypothesis are:**

- ❑ **H₀**—There is no significant difference between the importance level and the usage level assigned to each practice. (a necessary condition for rational and coherent management).
- ❑ **H₁**—There is a significant difference between the importance level and the usage level of assigned to each practice.

- This hypothesis tested by Paired T test Analysis: $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_0$ versus $H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_0$



Definition of Key Terms

- **Online review** is guest recommendation or evaluation of hotel services and products on online communities.
- **Encouraging** is encouraging hotel guests to largely and quickly spread their positive reviews and recommendations on online communities.
- **Managing** is responding and dealing with positive and negative reviews or comments on online communities
- **Online communities** – or virtual communities- are groups of individuals who share interests and interact with one another through the mediation of computer bulletin boards and networks. It enable customers to share and comment their previous experiences and give some advice and feedback to others. The following categories can be distinguished:
 1. Social networks sites (Facebook, Twitter, Google+, etc.)
 2. Pictures/videos sharing platforms sites (Pinterest, Flickr, Instagram, YouTube, Dailymotion, etc.)
 3. Commercial review websites (TripAdvisor, eKomi, Yelp, etc...)
 4. Supplier Websites (site of your hotel, a third-party company, competitors, an independent user, tourism organization, Blogs and discussion forums, etc.).
 - 5.

Research Type and Approach

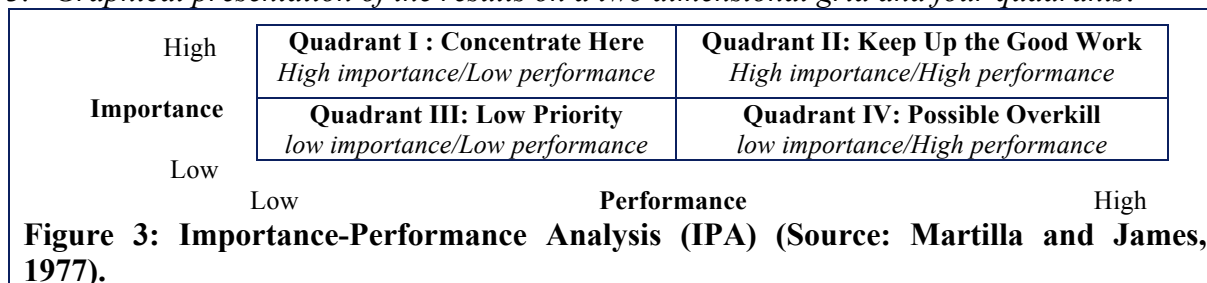
This study is primarily a descriptive-analytical study with qualitative and quantitative approaches. Furthermore, this study used deductive approach, since it explains casual relationships, develops a theory and hypotheses and then designs a research strategy to test the validity of hypotheses against the data. If the data are consistent with the hypothesis then the hypothesis is accepted; if not it is rejected. It moving works from the more general to the more specific (this call a top down approach) (Saunders *et al.*, 2015).

This study used two main approaches to data collection namely; desk survey and field survey. The desk survey (literature review) forms an essential aspect of the research since it sets the pace for the development of field survey instruments using questionnaire and interview. Secondary sources of information were identified and collected in books, articles, and professional periodicals, journals and databases on the subject of the study. The field survey is involved with the collection of primary empirical data. Using IPA methodology, this study adopted a self-administrated e-mail questionnaire as the primary method of quantitative data collection to investigate hotel marketers' practices to encourage and manage online guest reviews through assessing the importance and usage level of practices. The researcher used survey because it is the most convenient way to obtain relatively highest participation within a limited time frame. Also, the need for generalization in the findings influenced the choice of questionnaire survey. More specifically, the reason for choosing e-mail questionnaire is mainly due to numerous benefits such as reducing geographical limitations and is also a fast way of getting answers. In addition, Email questionnaire do also allow the respondents to write down the answers themselves. The researcher has time to reflect on the answers and keep continuous contact when questions arise (Sekaran and Bougie , 2013; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). The mixed data collection methods provides a way to gain in depth insights and adequately reliable statistics.

Importance-Performance Analysis (IPA) Method

IPA was developed by Martilla and James, (1977) as a popular managerial tool to facilitate prioritization of improvements and resource allocation. IPA assesses the convergence between the importance of specific attributes and how well a service provider is supplying those identified attributes. The main argument of the IPA model is that matching importance and performance (usage) is the basis of effective management. It assumes that managers through their actions, pursue the practices that they perceive to be important. The decision to use the IPA structure and terminology was due to it is a powerful evaluation tool for practitioners and academics to find out attributes that are doing well and attributes that need to be improved. In particular, there are two explicit advantages for hotel managers in applying IPA to their management know-how. First, IPA displayed graphically on a two-dimensional grid that explicitly shows the strengths and weaknesses of the hotel practices being studied. Second, IPA provides useful recommendations for hotel managers or policy makers for developing strategies and practices in the future. This is a useful and effective way for management to identify what problems exist, and why. Typically, IPA involves a 3-step process:

1. *Identification of management-influenced attributes associated with a concept.* It is usually accomplished via consultation with experts, focus groups or other qualitative techniques.
2. *Analysis of attributes based on user data that rates attribute importance and performance.*
3. *Graphical presentation of the results on a two dimensional grid and four quadrants.*



Data Collection Instrument

The questionnaire was built based on IPA method and the conceptual framework drawn from the extant literature. In particular, the final data collection instrument consisted of 2 parts:

- The first part investigates encouragement practices. It measures **the importance level** hotel marketers assigned to each practice using a Likert scale of 1 least important to 5 most important. Moreover, this part measured **the usage level** for each of the same practice using a Likert scale ranging from 1 rarely used to 5 extensively used. It consists of 23 practices representing five dimensions.
- The second part investigates management practices. It measures **the importance level** hotel marketers assigned to each practice using a Likert scale of 1 least important to 5 most important. Moreover, this part measured **the usage level** for each of the same practice using a Likert scale ranging from 1 rarely used to 5 extensively used. It consists of 24 practices representing five dimensions.

Questionnaire Reliability, Validity and Objectivity

Validity, reliability and objectivity can be seen as three dimensions of a study's credibility. Validity is the extent to which it actually measures what it intended to measure from the beginning. Reliability is the degree of trust and if the result remains the same when being repeated. Objectivity is about the values of a researcher and how much it affects the results (Sekaran and Bougie , 2013; Saunders *et al.*, 2015). The questionnaire were rationing before distribution to the study sample to ensure the validity and reliability of paragraphs:

1. **To Verify Content Validity (Believe arbitrators):** The first version of survey questionnaire was judged by a group of arbitrators. Interviews with 5 experienced people in the field of hotel marketing were done. Revisions to the questionnaire were made based on feedback from the arbitrators. The researcher responded to the views of the jury and performed the necessary delete and modify in. Factors or questions with 80% approval and higher were only considered. The result was a revised version of the questionnaire with a smaller set of items. The changes made the statements more specific and easier to understand.
2. **To Verify Construct Validity:** There are two types of analysis for determining construct validity: (1) Correlational analysis, and (2) Factor analysis (Sekaran and Bougie, 2013). This study calculates the construct validity of the attributes of the questionnaire by surveying it to the initial sample size of 15 respondents of the total members of the study population, and it calculates the correlation coefficients between each attribute of the questionnaire, and the total score for the domain dimension that belongs to him that attribute. The results showed that the value of the correlation coefficients of practices is ranged between 0.65 and 0.55, and is statistically significant at the level of significance (0.05). Hence, the attributes of each dimension are considered honest and valid to measure its role in posting reviews.
3. **To Verify Reliability:** The most popular test of inter-item consistency reliability is Cronbach's coefficient alpha. The higher the coefficient, the better the measuring instrument (Sekaran & Bougie, 2013). The researcher conducted reliability steps on the same initial sample using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. The results illustrated that the high reliability coefficients for questionnaire attributes which ranged from 0.61 to 0.69, indicating satisfactory internal consistency. The strong internal consistency reliability for the revised scales indicated that the retained items measure the same constructs, suggesting the possibility of the stability of the results that can result from the tool. Thus, the questionnaire became valid and reliable in its final form for application to the basic study sample.

For ethical considerations, each participant received a cover letter that emphasized the significance of the issue under investigation but also stressed that participation in the study was voluntary. The respondents were advised that the data collected would be used solely for the purpose to address the research topic. There were no anticipated risks to the respondents who participated in the study. The removal of any personal identifying information or data was the means to maintain confidentiality.

Sampling Procedures

The target population of this study was the marketing managers at five-star hotels in Egypt. Comprehensive sample was chosen as the most appropriate sampling technique to get a big sample and thus ensure that the results are significant and generalizable. The reason for choosing only 5-star hotels as the empirical research has shown that only the big or chain hotels

have the resources and education to properly implement e-WOM campaigns and strategies. Also, chain hotels are being marketed, online, by their head offices. The smaller hotels that are not well-known globally might not have the resources to control all information being published (Litvin *et al.*, 2008; Vermeulen, Seegers 2009).

A total of 186 self-administrated e-mail questionnaires were distributed to 186 marketing managers in 186 five star hotels in Egypt, in December 2016. 138 questionnaires were returned, resulting in a 74 % response rate. 15 were not included because of incompleteness. The valid number of questionnaires for analysis was 123 with response rate was 66%.

Data Analysis

Analysis of the gathered data used the software SPSS 19.0 and Microsoft Excel 2010. The study used Paired T test analysis to measure the gap between the importance and usage level of practices employed to encourage and manage online guest reviews. Objectives 1, and 2 were achieved by Mean Analysis and IPA matrix. Objective 3 and study hypothesis were achieved by Paired T-test Analysis. Finally, interpretation of the results was done at 5 %level of significance; where the value of $p \leq 0.05$ was considered as being significant, and $p \leq 0.01$ was considered as being highly significant.

6. Results and Discussion

Table 1 indicates the practices' importance and usage analysis as well as the gap analysis.

Practices' Importance and Usage Analysis

When evaluating the encouragement practices, the importance mean scores of the 23 practices varied from 4.22 (the highest) to 3.40 (the lowest) out of a possible range of 1.0 to 5.0, with 1.0 indicating least important and 5.0 indicating most important. However, there was a distinction between the 23 practices and a priority of importance was evident. Overall, the average importance mean of practices was 3.98. It should be noted that twenty practices were perceived as important with a mean greater than or equal to 3.98 ($M \geq 3.98$). These practices are related to four dimensions; "sponsor opinion leaders, remind/reward reviewers, use e-WOM campaign, and join/use online communities". This finding implied that marketing managers focus on these practices as the number one of priority. Hotel marketers believed that these practices play a significant role in encouraging online guest reviews. Hence, hotel operators should put in more effort and attention to improve these practices when encouraging online guest reviews. Moreover, it should be noted that only three practices were perceived as moderately important with a mean less than 3.98 ($3.98 > M$). These practices are related to one dimension; "use online stealth marketing" dimension". This finding implied that hotel marketers focus on these practices as the number two of priority. It should be noted, however, that these practices were also deemed significant, but to a lesser extent and shouldn't be disregarded when encouraging online reviews.

Meanwhile, the usage mean scores of the 23 practices varied from 3.87 (the highest) to 3.29 (the lowest) out of a possible range of 1.0 to 5.0, with 1.0 indicating rarely used and 5.0 indicating extensively used. However, there was a distinction between the 23 practices and a priority of usage was evident. Overall, the average usage mean of practices was 3.41. It should be noted that six practices were perceived as quite used with a mean greater than or equal to 3.41 ($M \geq 3.41$). It should be noted that these practices are related to one dimensions; “join/use online communities”. Hotel marketers perceived these practice as the widely used action in encouraging online reviews. It is the number one of usage priority. This finding implied that hotels’ performance in applying these particular practices is strong. Thus, hotel managers ought to take them into consideration and continue to maintain good standard and shouldn't be ignored. Moreover, it should be noted that 17 practices were perceived as moderately used with a mean less than 3.41 ($3.41 > M$). It should be noted that these practices are related to four dimensions; “remind/reward reviewers, sponsor opinion leaders, use e-WOM campaign, and use stealth marketing”. Hotel marketers perceived these practices as the number two of usage priority. This finding implied that hotels’ performance in applying these particular practices is moderate. Hence, hotel managers should concentrate on these practices and more resources, effort and attention should be spent on improving performance of these practices.

Overall, the rankings in descending order of the importance mean scores of encouragement dimensions were as follow: sponsor opinion leaders (4.20), remind/reward reviewers (4.15), use e-WOM campaign (4.11), join/use online communities (4.04), and use stealth marketing (3.41). Meanwhile, the rankings in descending order of the usage mean of encouragement dimensions were as follow: join/use online communities (3.74), remind/reward reviewers (3.36), sponsor opinion leaders (3.34), use e-WOM campaign (3.32), and use stealth marketing (3.30).

When evaluating the management practices, the importance mean scores of the 24 practices varied from 4.22 (the highest) to 3.43 (the lowest) out of a possible range of 1.0 to 5.0, with 1.0 indicating least important and 5.0 indicating most important. However, there was a distinction between the 24 practices and a priority of importance was evident. Overall, the average importance mean of practices was 3.80. It should be noted that seventeen practices were perceived as important with a mean greater than or equal to 3.80 ($M \geq 3.80$). These practices are related to three dimensions; “monitor/track online reviews, respond to negative reviews, and respond to positive reviews”. This finding implied that managers focus on these practices as the number one of priority. Hotel marketers believed that these practices play a significant role in influencing their online review management. Hence, hotel operators should focus on these practices and put in more effort and attention to improve these practices when managing online reviews. Moreover, it should be noted that seven practices were perceived as moderately important with a mean less than 3.80 ($3.80 > M$). These practices are related to two dimensions; “initial quick response, and respond to mixed reviews”. This finding implied that hotel marketers focus on these practices as the number two of priority. It should be noted, however, that these practices were also deemed significant, but to a lesser extent and shouldn't be disregarded when managing online reviews.

Meanwhile, the usage mean scores of the 24 practices varied from 3.93 (the highest) to 3.34 (the lowest) out of a possible range of 1.0 to 5.0, with 1.0 indicating rarely used and 5.0 indicating extensively used. However, there was a distinction between the 24 practices and a

priority of practices usage was evident. Overall, the average usage mean of practices was 3.49. It should be noted that seven practices were perceived as quite used with a mean greater than or equal to 3.49 ($M \geq 3.49$). These practices are related to one dimensions; “respond to negative reviews”. Hotel marketers perceived these practice as the widely used action in managing online reviews. It perceived as the number one of usage priority. This finding implied that hotels’ performance in applying these particular practices is strong. Thus, hotel managers ought to take them into consideration and continue to maintain good standard and shouldn't be ignored. Moreover, it should be noted that 17 practices were perceived as moderately used with a mean less than 3.49 ($3.49 > M$). These practices are related to four dimensions; “monitor/track online reviews, respond to positive reviews, initial quick response, and respond to mixed reviews”. Hotel marketers perceived these practices as the number two of usage priority. This finding implied that hotels’ performance in applying these particular measures is moderate. Hence, hotel managers should concentrate on these practices and more resources, effort and attention should be spent on improving performance of these practices.

Overall, the rankings in descending order of the importance mean of management dimensions were as follow: monitor/track online reviews (4.11), respond to negative reviews, (4.01), respond to positive reviews (3.89), initial quick response (3.56), and respond to mixed reviews (3.45). Meanwhile, the rankings in descending order of the usage mean of management dimensions were as follow: respond to negative reviews (3.89), monitor/track online reviews (3.42), respond to positive reviews (3.41), initial quick response (3.37), and respond to mixed reviews (3.35).

The Gap Analysis between the Importance and Usage Level of Practices

When evaluating encouragement practices, the mean gap scores for the 23 encouragement practices varied from -0.90** (the highest gap) to 0.11** (the lowest gap). Nevertheless, each practice showed differences with respect to the size and direction of gap score. The mean gap scores for the 23 practices are all statistically significant and negative (at $p < 0.01$). Overall, the average mean gap score was -0.57**. The average usage level of practices (3.41) is lower than the average importance level (3.98). It should be noted that fourteen practices were perceived as the highest gap with a difference greater than or equal to -0.57. It should be noted that these practices are related to three dimensions; “sponsor opinion leaders, remind/reward reviewers, use e-WOM campaign”. This finding implied that these practices are the highest shortfalls in online review encouragement. Hotel marketers should focus on these practices as the number one of priority. Hence, hotel operators should concentrate on these practices and should put in more effort and attention to improve these practices when encouraging online reviews. Moreover, it should be noted that only nine practices were perceived as smallest gap with a difference less than -0.57. These practices are related to two dimensions; “join/use online communities, and use stealth marketing”. This finding implied that these practices represent the lowest shortfalls in encouraging online reviews. Hence, hotel managers should also focus on these dimensions as the number two of priority when managing online reviews.

Meanwhile, when evaluating management practices, The mean gap scores for the 24 management practices varied from -0.83** (the highest gap) to -0.01** (the lowest gap). Nevertheless, each practice showed differences with respect to the size and direction of gap

score. The mean gap scores for the 24 practices are all statistically significant and negative (at $p < 0.01$). Overall, the average mean gap score was -0.31^{**} . The average usage level of practices (3.49) is lower than the average importance level (3.80). It should be noted that eleven practices were perceived as the highest gap with a difference greater than or equal to -0.31 . It should be noted that these practices are related to two dimensions; “monitor/track online reviews, respond to positive reviews, as well as one practice from “respond to negative reviews” dimension. This finding implied that these practices is the highest shortfalls in online review management. Hotel marketers should focus on these practices as the number one of priority. Hence, hotel operators should put in more effort and attention to improve these practices when managing online reviews. Moreover, it should be noted that thirteen practices were perceived as smallest gap with a difference less than -0.31 . these practices are related to three dimensions; “quick initial response, “respond to negative reviews (except one practice)”, and “respond to mixed reviews”. This finding implied that these practices represent the lowest shortfalls in managing online reviews. Hence hotel marketers should also focus on these dimensions as the number two of priority when managing online reviews.

Overall, the rankings in descending order of the gap mean scores of encouragement dimensions were as follow: sponsor opinion leaders (-0.86), remind/reward reviewers (-0.79), use e-WOM campaign (-0.79), join/use online communities (-0.30), and use stealth marketing (-0.11). Meanwhile, the rankings in descending order of the gap mean of management dimensions were as follow: monitor/track online reviews (-0.69), respond to positive reviews (-0.48), initial quick response (-0.19), respond to negative reviews (-0.12), and respond to mixed reviews (-0.10).

Table (2): Practices’ Importance and Usage Analysis

Online Review Encouragement Practices		Importance (I)		Usage (U)		Gap (U-I)		IPA grid
		Mean ^a	Rank	Mean ^b	Rank	Gap ^c	Rank	
1. Join and Use Online Communities		(4.04)	(4)	(3.74)	(1)	(-0.30^{**})	(4)	(Keep Up)
P1	Join/use social networks (facebook, twitter, google +)	4.10	10	3.79	2	-0.31 ^{**}	17	Keep Up
P2	Join/use blogs and forums (corporate - independent)	3.99	19	3.67	5	-0.32 ^{**}	16	Keep Up
P3	Join/use video/picture sharing platforms (YouTub, Pinterest)	4.02	17	3.72	3	-0.30 ^{**}	18	Keep Up
P4	Joining and using the hotel website more actively.	4.15	8	3.87	1	-0.28 ^{**}	20	Keep Up
P5	Participate as members of third party online communities	3.99	20	3.66	6	-0.33 ^{**}	15	Keep Up
P6	Publish diverse/attractive contents on online communities	4.01	18	3.71	4	-0.30 ^{**}	19	Keep Up
2. Remind and Reward Reviewers		(4.15)	(2)	(3.36)	(2)	(-0.79^{**})	(2)	(Concentrate)
P7	Send out regular mass mailings, e-newsletters with links	4.09	12	3.37	9	-.72 ^{**}	12	Concentrate
P8	Placed cards in rooms to remind sharing guests’ views	4.22	3	3.32	17	-.90 ^{**}	1	Concentrate
P9	Send online satisfaction surveys to prevent e-complaints	4.06	15	3.39	7	-.67 ^{**}	14	Concentrate
P10	Build in WOM attributes-testimonials over hotel webpage	4.10	11	3.38	8	-.72 ^{**}	13	Concentrate
P11	Offer rewards for guests spreading positive opinions	4.22	1	3.34	10	-.88 ^{**}	4	Concentrate
P12	Arrange contests with benefits to diffuse positive views	4.20	5	3.33	14	-.87 ^{**}	5	Concentrate
3. Sponsor Opinion Leaders		(4.20)	(1)	(3.34)	(3)	(-0.86^{**})	(1)	(Concentrate)
P13	Encourage loyal guests to become brand advocates	4.22	2	3.34	13	-.89 ^{**}	2	Concentrate
P14	Sponsor opinion leaders who gain significant visibility	4.19	7	3.34	12	-.86 ^{**}	6	Concentrate
P15	Use product seeding campaign (familiarization trip)	4.20	6	3.33	15	-.85 ^{**}	7	Concentrate
4. Use Online Stealth marketing		(3.41)	(5)	(3.30)	(5)	(-0.11^{**})	(5)	(Low Priority)
P16	Use employees to pretend online as satisfied consumers	3.40	23	3.29	23	-.11 ^{**}	22	Low Priority
P17	Using employees to post negative reviews to competitors	3.42	21	3.31	19	-.11 ^{**}	21	Low Priority
P18	market by creating& spreading ‘buzz’ in an obtuse manner	3.41	22	3.30	22	-.11 ^{**}	23	Low Priority
5. Use e-WOM Ccommunication Campaign		(4.11)	(3)	(3.32)	(4)	(-0.79^{**})	(3)	(Concentrate)
P19	Use e-WOM campaign for guiding guests to purchase, react	4.20	4	3.31	20	-.89 ^{**}	3	Concentrate

P20	Approve the e-WOM campaign by senior management	4.05	16	3.33	16	-.72**	11	Concentrate
P21	Regularly review/update the e-WOM campaign (annually)	4.09	13	3.31	21	-.78**	9	Concentrate
P22	Set aside yearly budget for financing e-WOM campaign	4.07	14	3.32	18	-.75**	10	Concentrate
P23	Well inform employees about e-WOM campaign resources	4.15	9	3.34	11	-.81**	8	Concentrate
Total		(3.98)	-	(3.41)	-	(-0.57)	-	-
Online Review Management Practices		Importance (I)		Usage (U)		Gap (U-I)		IPA
		Mean^a	Rank	Mean^b	Rank	Gap^c	Rank	IPA grid
6. Monitor and Track Online Review		(4.11)	(1)	(3.42)	(2)	(-0.69**)	(1)	(Concentrate)
P24	Assign employees to continuously monitor online reviews	4.21	2	3.43	9	-0.78**	2	Concentrate
P25	Regularly train employees to monitor (drills, workshops)	4.15	4	3.42	10	-0.73**	3	Concentrate
P26	Monitor what is being related to hotel and the reviews tone	4.00	9	3.44	8	-0.56**	6	Concentrate
P27	See/define patterns in complaints and also positive reviews	4.00	8	3.42	11	-0.58**	5	Concentrate
P28	Use tracking programs/tools (twitter, google alerts, RSS)	4.22	1	3.39	17	-0.83**	1	Concentrate
P29	Monitor competitors' reviews to know or inspired by them	4.10	6	3.41	13	-0.69**	4	Concentrate
7. Respond to negative reviews		(4.01)	(2)	(3.89)	(1)	(-0.12**)	(4)	(Keep Up)
P30	Thank the guest by name and take the conversation offline	4.10	7	3.88	4	-0.22**	13	Keep Up
P31	Accommodate by apologize & highlight any changes	4.14	5	3.88	3	-0.26**	12	Keep Up
P32	Use accommodative attitude by compensation	4.20	3	3.86	6	-0.34**	11	Keep Up
P33	Justify by considering problem & ask more explanations	3.94	11	3.93	1	-0.01**	22	Keep Up
P34	Justify by reframing negatives& reminding positive records	3.95	10	3.93	2	-0.02**	21	Keep Up
P35	Use defensive attitude by denying responsibility	3.88	15	3.87	5	-0.01**	24	Keep Up
P36	Use negative comments to improve customer relationships	3.86	16	3.85	7	-0.01**	23	Keep Up
8. Respond to positive reviews		(3.89)	(3)	(3.41)	(3)	(-0.48**)	(2)	(Concentrate)
P37	Appreciate by publicity thanking, liking, sharing, retweet	3.93	12	3.42	12	-0.51**	8	Concentrate
P38	Publish positive review in guestbook on website, newsletters	3.93	13	3.41	14	-0.52**	7	Concentrate
P39	Contact with customers provide or like positive comments	3.90	14	3.40	16	-0.50**	9	Concentrate
P40	Turn positive reviewers into promoters to tell their friends	3.81	17	3.40	15	-0.41**	10	Concentrate
9. Respond to mixed reviews		(3.45)	(5)	(3.35)	(5)	(-0.10**)	(5)	(Low Priority)
P41	Thank the guest by name and highlight positive comment	3.45	23	3.35	22	-0.1**	19	Low Priority
P42	Apologize/highlight changes has made or intends to make	3.47	22	3.36	21	-0.11**	18	Low Priority
P43	Surround negative comments with positive statements	3.43	24	3.34	24	-0.09**	20	Low Priority
10. Quick initial response		(3.56)	(4)	(3.37)	(4)	(-0.19**)	(3)	(Low Priority)
P44	Provide quick initial response to tell story within 24 hours.	3.57	18	3.36	20	-0.21**	15	Low Priority
P45	Respond with clear and visible hotel's identity	3.56	20	3.38	18	-0.18**	16	Low Priority
P46	Provide accurate data by checking all facts of what happened	3.55	21	3.38	19	-0.17**	17	Low Priority
P47	Invite reviewers to return to reminds you value your guests	3.57	19	3.35	23	-0.22**	14	Low Priority
Total		(3.80)	-	(3.49)	-	(-0.31**)	-	-

^a Mean scale: 1—least important to 5—most important.
 Significant Difference: *p ≤ 0.05; **p ≤ 0.01

^b Mean scale: 1—rarely used to 1—extensively used.

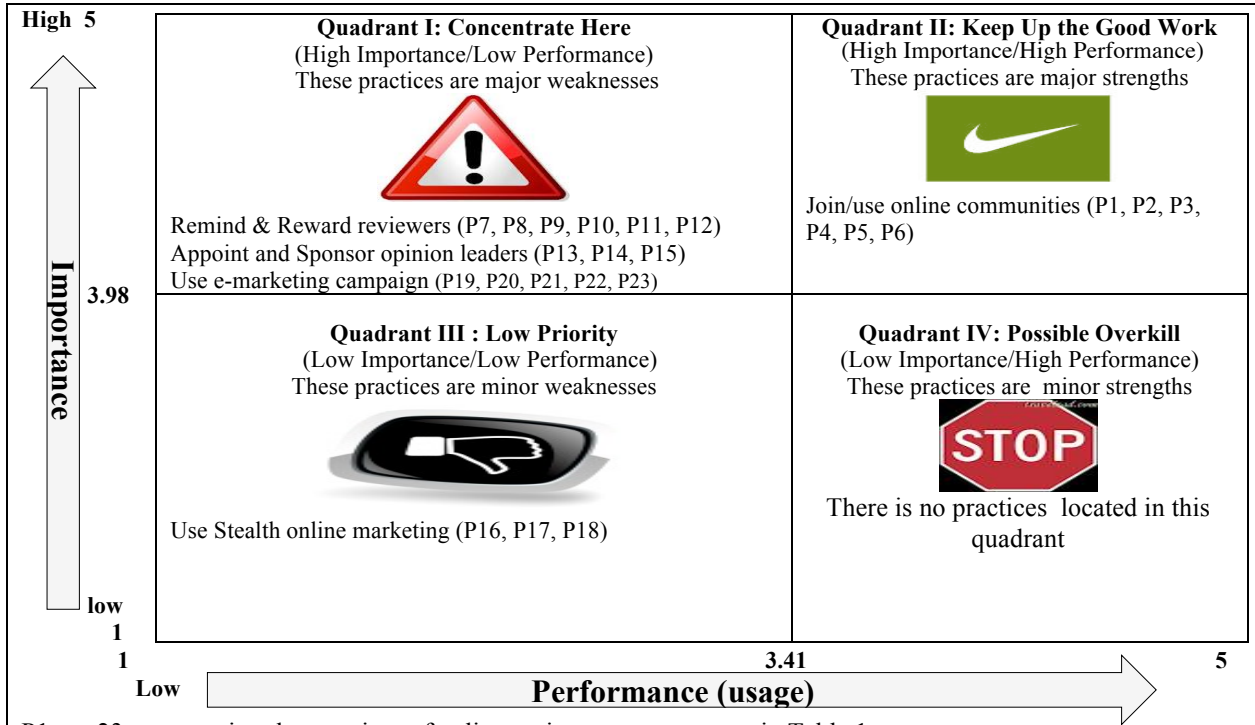
7. Conclusion and Recommendations

Using IPA method, this study measures online review encouragement and management practices from hotel marketers' viewpoint, through assessing the importance and usage level of practices, and testing the gap between the two levels. The results of the paired t-test indicated a statistically significant and negative difference (gap) ($p \leq 0.01$) between the level of importance managers assigned to each practice and the level of usage of that practice for both encouragement and management practices. The average usage level of practices is lower than the average importance level. Overall, the average mean gap score of encouragement practices was -0.57**, and the average mean gap score of management practices was -0.31**. Hence, the null hypothesis 1 which proposed an absence of difference, was therefore rejected. Meanwhile, the alternate hypothesis 1 which proposed an existence of difference, was therefore accepted. There are two observations. First, it should be noted that gaps are all significant, which suggests that at

a basic level, there is considerable difference between the practices' importance and usage. This finding implied that the hotels and marketers did not do a good job in matching practices' importance with practices' usage. Hence, there are opportunities for changes and improvement in studied hotels. The existence of significant gaps clearly showed that there is a room for improvement in studied hotels. These gaps were the shortfalls and require the most attention by hotel marketers in their efforts to make some improvement. By understanding and investigating those gaps, it is easier for management to control and take corrective action to reduce the difference between the importance and usage level of practices. Second, it should be noted that all gaps are negative, the usage level is lower than the importance level. A negative score indicated practices which should command more attention and that need to be improved. This finding implied that further improvement resources and efforts should concentrate here. The main argument of the IPA model is that matching importance and usage is the basis of effective management.

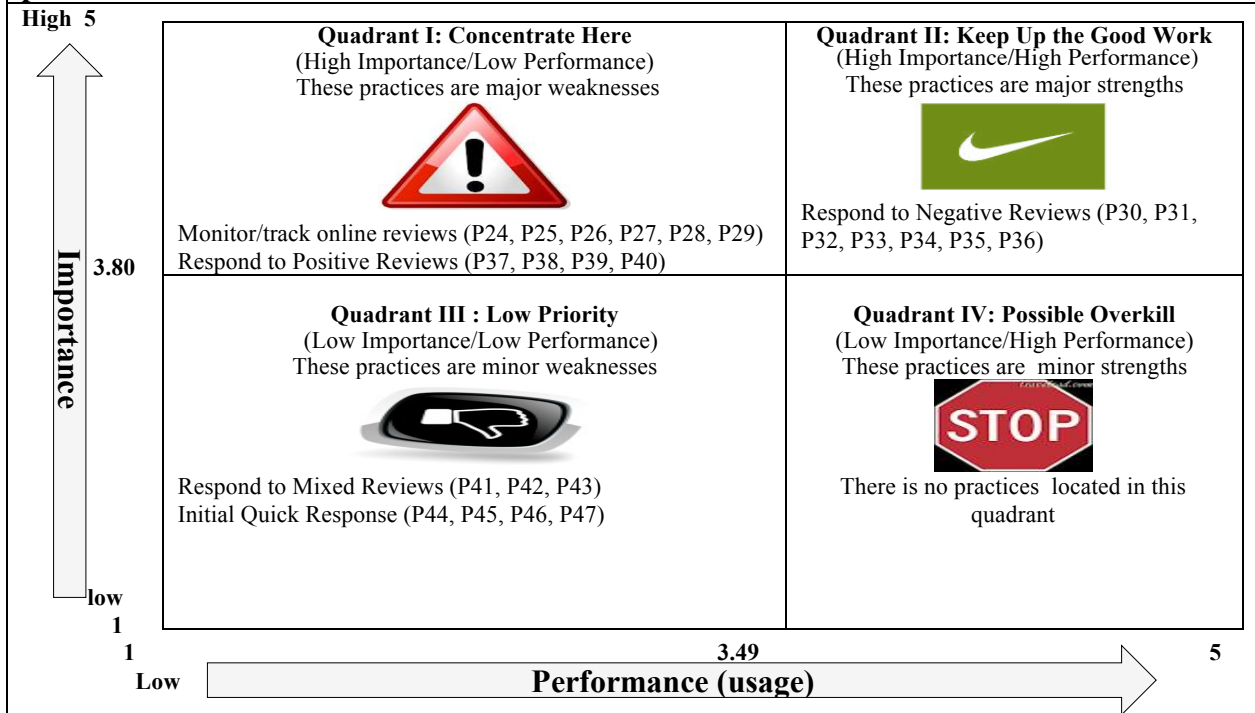
As noted in Figures 3 and 4, the results of IPA matrix provide useful recommendations for hotel marketers or policy makers for improving and developing the strategies and practices of encouraging and managing online guest reviews. It provides insight for future management recommendations for each practice based on its position in one of the four quadrants. Each quadrant implies a different management strategy:

1. The evaluating hotels and marketers should command more attention and improvement efforts to 14 encouragement-practices and 10 management-practices in the "concentrate here" quadrant (High Importance/Low Performance). These practices represents 3 encouragement dimensions (remind/reward reviewers, sponsor opinion leaders, and use e-WOM campaign) and two management dimensions (monitor/track online reviews, and respond to positive reviews). These dimensions and its practices are major weaknesses and require immediate attention for improvement. It represents key areas that need to be improved with top priority. The management scheme for this quadrant is "concentrate here".
2. The evaluating hotels and marketers should maintain efforts and resources to 6 encouragement-practices and 7 management-practices in the "keep up the good work" quadrant (High Importance/High Performance). These practices represents one encouragement dimensions; join/use online communities and one management dimension; respond to negative reviews. These dimensions and its practices are major strengths and opportunities for achieving competitive advantage. Thus, hotel managers should keep up the good work. The management scheme is "keep up the good work."
3. The evaluating hotels and marketers should not deserving remedial actions to 3 encouragement-practices and 7 management-practices in the "low priority" quadrant (Low Importance/Low Performance). These practices represents one encouragement dimension; use stealth marketing and two management dimensions; respond to mixed reviews and initial quick response. These practices are minor weaknesses and do not require additional effort. marketers should expend limited resources and efforts on these practices. The management scheme for this quadrant is "low priority."



P1 to p23 representing the practices of online review encouragement in Table 1.

Figure 3: Applying Importance-Performance Grid for online review encouragement practices



P24 to p47 representing the practices of online review management in Table 5.2.

Figure 4: Applying Importance-Performance Grid for online review Management Practices

8. Contributions

This research study contributes to the existing online review literature by adding to the knowledge a theoretical practices model for encouraging and managing online guest reviews from company's perspective. This model enables hotel marketers and practitioners to better know and understand how to encourage and manage online reviews to better then influence the customers' choice during their purchase decision making. Hotels and marketers can actively incorporate these practices in their future online marketing strategy. Considering these practices enable hotels to more efficiency encourage and manage online guest reviews. Additionally this study is one of the first studies investigating how to encourage and manage online guest reviews in the Egyptian context.

But more importantly it also contributes to the hotel practice by adding to the knowledge a practical methodology by which hotel marketers and practitioners can assess and improve their level of online review encouragement and management practices. This study enables hotels and marketers to analyse online review from company's perspective and more precisely from Egyptian hotel marketers' viewpoint. It provides priorities for online review encouragement and management practices to utilize recourses efficiently and direct needed interest to the most fruitful aspects of operation. Hoteliers can easily understand the areas where changes and improvements are needed. It would enable hotels and managers to investigate which practices should require more attention and which may be consuming too many resources on achieving competiveness and effectiveness as a significant way for managing online guest reviews. Additionally, an effective management enables hotels to then improve their online marketing and communication strategy and consequently satisfy customers.

9. Limitations And Future Research

The focus of this research is limited to the Egyptian 5-star hotels. Future studies might therefore focus on extending the same examination to other countries, other hotel categories (e.g., 4-star hotels, 3-star hotels) and other service types (e.g., airline, restaurant industries) to improve the robustness of the findings. Research is needed on the relationship between the levels of encouragement or management practices and hotel's size, star rating, branding or nationality. This study used the primary online quantitative questionnaire. It would be interesting future studies to use qualitative approach (i.e., face-to-face interviews) to deeply investigate the participants about the practices used to encourage and manage online guest reviews. The practices of online review encouragement and management used in this study do not represent all possible practices that may be taken. The study practices are only suggestions that might be useful when working with online reviews. It is just a guideline—hotel and marketers responses should still be personalized to each review. Not all suggested practices will be relevant or applicable at any specific facility because of the wide variety in the types, sizes, and locations of hotels. The ideal number and structure of practices and dimensions could be different depending on the type of industry, the service firm, the type of online community, or the circumstances under which studies are rendered. To measure the variability among the items (practices) a factor analysis can be used to analyze the relationship between the items and to decide what items can measure the same latent factors. Further research can conclude how cultural differences play a role in encouraging and managing online reviews. Further studies may compare practices between different cultures. It can be expanded to include a broader application of IPA for a

comparison of encouragement and management practices for independent versus chain hotels and 4-star versus 5-star hotels. Future research should identify and assess the primary motivators and barriers for encouraging and managing online reviews from hotels' perspective. Future studies focus on how to deal with fake or misleading reviews. *Additional research should focus on these limitations to assure the most precise results.*

REFERENCES

- Anderson, C. (2012), The impact of social media on lodging performance. *Cornell Hospitality Report*, 12 (15), 4-11.
- Banerjee, S. and Chua, Y. (2014), A theoretical framework to identify authentic online reviews. *Online Information Review*, 38(5), 634-649.
- Bronner, F. and de Hoog, R. (2011), Vacationers and e-WOM: Who posts, and why, where, and what? *Journal of Travel Research*, 50 (1), 15-26.
- Brown, J., Broderick, A., and Lee, N. (2007), Word of mouth communication within online communities: Conceptualizing the online social network. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 27(3), 2-20.
- Buhalis, D., and Law, R. (2008), Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet – the state of e-tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 29 (4), 609-623.
- Cakim, I., (2010), *Implementing Word of Mouth marketing: online strategies to identify influencers, craft stories, and draw customers*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.
- Cantalops, A., and Salvi, F. (2014), New consumer behavior: A review of research on e-WOM and hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 56 (1), 41-51.
- Cheong, H.J. and Morrison, M.A. (2008), Consumers' reliance on product information and recommendations found in UGC. *Journal of Interactive Advertising*, 8, (2) 38-49.
- Cox, C., Burgess, S., Sellitto, C., and Buultjens, J. (2009), The role of user-generated content in tourists' travel planning behavior. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 18(9), 743-764.
- Ekiz, E. *et al.* (2012), Air the anger: investigating online complaints on luxury hotels. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 3 (2), 96-106.
- EU (European Union) (2014), Study on online consumer reviews in the hotel sector. *Report submitted by: Risk & Policy Analysts (RPA) Ltd, Center for Strategy & Evaluation Services (CSES) and Policy & Development (EPRD)*. European Commission, 9 June, 2014. Available at: http://bookshop.europa.eu/en/study-on-online-consumer-reviews-in-the-hotel-sector-pbND0414464/downloads/ND-04-14-464-EN-N/ND0414464ENN_002.pdf;pgid=GSPefJMEtXBSR0dT6jbGakZD0000eFVxbhtml;sid=NTHy2KloO6vymfHoYP9sf8tNI_KOiAurSWE=?FileName=ND0414464ENN_002.pdf&SKU=ND0414464ENN_PDF&CatalogueNumber=ND-04-14-464-EN-N
- Gonzalez, S., Bulchand-Gidumal, J., and Lopez-Valcarcel, B. (2013), Online customer reviews of hotels: as participation increases, better evaluation is obtained. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 54 (3), 274-283.
- Gretzel, U., and Yoo, K. (2008), Use and impact of online travel reviews. *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism*, 2, 35–46.
- Grönroos, C. (2007), *Service Management and Marketing*. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons Ltd.

- Gu, B., Law, R., and Ye, Q. (2009). The impact of online user reviews on hotel room sales. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 28(1), 180-182.
- Harrison-Walker, L. J. (2001), The measurement of word-of-mouth communication and an investigation of service quality and customer commitment as potential antecedents. *Journal of Service Research*, 4 (1), 60-75.
- Hennig-Thurau, T., Gwinner, K. P., Walsh, G., and Gremler, D. D. (2004), Electronic word of mouth via consumer-opinion platforms: what motivates consumers to articulate themselves on the internet? *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 18(1), 38-52.
- Hernandez-Mendez, J., Munoz-Leiva, F., and Fernandez, J. (2013), The influence of e-word of mouth on travel decision-making: consumer profiles. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 1-21.
- Jalilvand, M., Esfahani, S., and Samiei, N. (2011), Electronic-of-mouth: Challenges and opportunities. *Procedia Computer Science*, 3, 42-46.
- Jeong, E. & Jang, S. (2011), Restaurant experiences triggering positive electronic word-of mouth (eWOM) motivations. *International Journal of Hospitality Management* 30 (2), 356–366.
- Kim, W. G., Lim, H. J., & Brymer, R. A. (2015), The effectiveness of managing social media on hotel performance. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 44, 165-171.
- Kozinets, R., de Valck, K., Wojnicki, A., and Wilner, S.J. (2010), Networked narratives: Understanding word-of-mouth marketing in online communities. *Journal of Marketing*, 74(2), 71-89.
- Lee, M., Rodgers, S., & Kim, M. (2009), Effects of valence and extremity of eWOM on attitude toward the brand and website. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising*, 31 (2), 1-11.
- Litvin S., Goldsmith R. and Pan P. (2008), Electronic word-of-mouth in hospitality and tourism management, *Tourism Management*, 29(3) 458-68.
- Litvin, S., and Hoffinan, L. (2012), Responses to consumer-generated media in the hospitality marketplace: An empirical study. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 18(2), 135- 145.
- Luo, C., Luo, X., Xu, Y., Warkentin, M., and Sia, C. (2015), Examining the moderating role of sense of membership in online review evaluations. *Information & Management*, 52, (3), 305–316.
- Martilla, J., and James, J. (1977), Importance-performance analysis. *Journal of Marketing*, 41 (1): 77–79.
- Moe, W., and Schweidel, D. (2012), Online product opinions: Incidence, evaluation, and evolution, *Marketing Science*, 3 (3), 372-386.
- Molinillo, S., Ximénez-de-Sandoval, J., Fernández-Morales, A. and Coca-Stefaniak, A. (2016). Hotel assessment through social media: The case of TripAdvisor. *Tourism & Management Studies*, 12(1), 15-24
- Mudambi, S.M. and Schuff, D. (2010), What makes a helpful online review? A study of customer reviews on amazon.Com. *MIS Quarterly*, 34, 1 , 185-200.
- Murphy, H., Gil, E., and Schegg, R. (2010), An investigation of motivation to share online content by young travelers - why and where. *Information and Communication Technologies in Tourism*, 467-478.
- O'Connor, P. (2010), Managing a hotel's image on TripAdvisor. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 19(1), 754-772.
- Rheingold, H. (2008), Virtual communities—exchanging through computer bulletin boards, *Journal of Virtual Worlds research*, 1 (1).

- Saunders, M., Lewis, P., and Thornhill, A. (2015), *Research Methods for Business Students*. Seventh Edition. Pearson, Inc.
- Sekaran, U., and Bougie, R. (2013), *Research methods for business: A sill building approach*, John Wiley & sons, UK.
- Simonson, I, and Rosen, E., (2014), What marketers misunderstand about online reviews, *Harvard Business Reviews*, January-February 2014, 23-25.
- TripAdvisor (2013), TripBarometer by TripAdvisor. The World's Largest Accommodation and Traveler Survey, Winter 2012/2013. Available at: <http://www.tripadvisortripbarometer.com/download/Global%20Reports/TripBarometer%20by%20TripAdvisor%20%20Global%20Report%20-%20USA.pdf>
- Tuten, T., & Solomon, M. (2015), *Social Media Marketing* (2nd ed.). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.
- Vermeulen, I.E. and Seegers, D. (2009), Tried and tested: The impact of online hotel reviews on consumer consideration. *Tourism Management*, 30 (1), 123-127.
- Wilson, A., Murphy, H., & Fierro, J.C. (2012), Hospitality and travel: The nature and implications of user-generated content. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 53(3), 220-228.
- Ye, Q., Law, R., Gu, B., and Chen, W. (2011), The influence of user-generated content on traveler behavior: An empirical investigation on the effects of e-word-of-mouth to hotel online bookings. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 27, 2: 634-639.
- Yoo, K., & Gretzel, U. (2008), What motivates consumers to write online travel reviews. *Journal of Information Technology & Tourism*, 10(4), 283-295.
- Zarrad H., and Debabi M. (2015), Analyzing the effect of electronic word of mouth on tourists' attitude toward destination and travel intention, *International Research Journal of Social Sciences*, 4(4), 53-60.
- Zeng, B. and Gerritsen, R. (2014), What do we know about social media in tourism? A Review, *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 10, 27-36
- Zhang, Z, Ye, Q, Law, R., and Li, Y. (2010), The impact of e-word-of-mouth on the online popularity of restaurants: A comparison of consumer reviews and editor reviews. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 29(4), 694-700.
- Zhou, M., Liu, M., and Tang, D. (2013), Do the characteristics of online consumer reviews bias buyers' purchase intention and product perception? A perspective of review quantity, review quality and negative review consequence. *International journal of services technology and management*, 19 (4), 166-186.

TOURISM AND LITERATURE - COMPARISON BETWEEN GREEK AND BRITISH WRITERS

Manola Maria
University of West Attica, Greece

Abstract

This study analyzes the meaning of literary tourism and examines the prospects of its development in Greece. Through the conceptual analysis of two case studies it attempts to present the wealth of literature in regard to the style of writing, values and meanings. It also presents the human relations and social stereotypes of the respective period comparatively to the works and their heroes. The aim of this study is to examine the ways that could prove helpful to the development of tourism through literature as well as to attract potential tourists to these island destinations.

Key words: Literary Tourism, culture, promotion, touristic economy, style of writing, human relations, social stereotypes, values and meanings development of tourism, potential tourists, island destinations, literary mapped.

Introduction

Literary tourism is a form of cultural tourism and refers to a specific type of tourists who mainly travel to visit the places where the heroes in the books they read appear to have lived and wandered; it is a way to experience a journey into the lovely literary world of their heroes: the world where the captivating stories of the book took place, where the writers were born and lived, where their last residence lies as well as the places created by the writers' imagination. These are the destinations tourists head to, for their literary plumage (Ioannou:2016).

This type of tourism is of particular importance for any country because it can be all year through, thus contributing to substantially stretching the tourist period. A literary tourist chooses the country of his destination by himself, without needing suggestions by a travel agency. He is a tourist of higher educational level, has higher income, spends 10-15% more each day during his stay and he is a cultural tourist with a certain goal. (Andriotis:2008)

Literary tourism in England

London is the first literary destination in the world followed by New York, Paris, San Francisco, Rome and generally the Italian cities (Stergiou:2018).

Charles Dickens (1812 – 1870) is one of English writers whose name is connected with the rapid development of literary tourism in London. His works have great readability 200 years following his birth while they have formed the basis for countless serials and films as they depict important social issues while all the more, the writer has the ability to create vivid literary descriptions of places and situations (Ioannou:2016). A passage from “Bleak House” which is considered to be the most readable novel, resulting in a flux of literary tourists follows: “Mist everywhere. Mist over the river, flowing among is less and meadows, mist down to the river... mist over this swamps... mist sneaking into the masts and wavering in the sails of big ships...”

Comparative references to Greek literature

In regard to Greece, studies are indicating the following: the 1880s is a period suddenly characterized by a significant literary production, a phenomenon which may be related, firstly, with the industrialization and secondly with the publication (either daily or periodical). Finally, the movement of “demotic” language and the growth of folklore are also connected with that phenomenon. The competition in the literary magazine “Estia” for Greek short stories on rural life and local traditions indicates the beginning of such a writing scheme. This tendency of modern Greek prose is called “ethografia”; it begins just after 1880 (Politis N:1883) and lasts throughout the first decades of the 20th century.

The choice of Papadiamantis and Theotokis is neither arbitrary nor the outcome of literary acrobatics (Pazanos:1984). It is considered “common sense” (Mpalaskas:1979) that the development of the Greek prose as it is around the end of 19th century and at the beginning of 20th century, connect the writer from Skiathos with the writer from Corfu regarding the subjects of their works.

“Ethography” is merely a step (Steriopoulos:1979) for Papadiamantis. The writer rarely remains within the limits of “ethography”; he quite always goes further either to social or to psychological researches. Respectively at the beginning of 20th century, Theotokis receives the ethnographic tradition and without eliminating it, he substantially revives it, applying a social

orientation and a realistic writing. There's also another reason why those two were chosen. I believe that they reflect, on a socio-political level, the uncertain course of the Greek society at the threshold of the new century. The declining rural society of "The Murderess" gives its place to the suburb "Mantonki" and to the upcoming laboring class in "Honor and Money". The social state of that time, following small-scale industrialization and the yet restricted economy, provides both writers with significant material (Saxinis:1973).

The "Murderess" was published in 1903, just six years after the "Goudi revolt" (1909). The turmoil is all over the modern Greek society. The financial bankruptcy in 1897 and the International Economic Control (IEC) are a source of suffering for the Greek society. People realize that the old structures of their society are out of date and cannot respond to the demands of their time. However, they are not able yet to define sufficiently what will be the "new" element which will make the Greek conscience grow (Vitti:1978).

In literature, the poem "The Twelve Lays of the Gypsy" (1907) written by .Palamas reflects exactly that. The words of the prophet in the 8th "speech" maintain their eschatological mood, without expressing the demand for social interference. Theotokis starts writing the novel entitled "Honor and Money" in 1911, which is then partially published in "Nouma" in 1912 (August – December) and officially published in 1914. Many things have changed in Greece. The middle class with Venizelos as representative is simply in power, establishing the rules of law and the first regulations on working pay and conditions. The socialist ideas infiltrate the Greek society. Skliros publishes "Our Social Issue" (1907), a first attempt of a Marxist approach to interpret the Greek society. The book stirred strong reactions and debate. At the same time, many men of letters, social-democrats, called "Sociologists" formed the "Sociological Company" led by Papanastassiou.

The following parallel reading refers to the four, successive and basic levels: a. ethnographic, b. social, c. psychological and d. human activity in certain situations. The setting, in both texts, is the Greek countryside. According to Papadiamantis and Theotokis, the life in the Greek rural areas is neither idyllic nor pure: the characters (Andreas, Siora Epistimi, the uncle of Andreas and Hadoula) are neither innocent nor guileless; on the contrary, they seem to be without illusion, but with knowledge, truth and psychographic ability. The small society of Skiathos, which is faced with extreme poverty and trading, is not essentially different from the poor seaside suburbs of Corfu. The description of the house of Fragogianou (Papadiamantis:2001) as well as that of Siora Epistimi (Theotokis:1993) show explicitly their financial state. The external ethnographic setting is not basically different: in that setting and because of it, the characters actually take their social part. Both Fragogianou, throughout her lifetime (Papadiamantis, "The Murderess"), and Siora Epistimi worked for their children and husband (Theotokis:1993). In their case, what is of great importance is not only the pressure exerted upon them due to their social role but also the pressure they receive due to the fact they are women, an aspect which is easily understood as their social status is very low. Both the heroine of Papadiamantis and Siora Epistimi may be considered not only extreme but also unconventional. Hadoula deliberately refuses the basic values of the society she belongs to (infanticide is an extreme but not the only sign of her refusal) and stays out of them.

The unconventional identities of SioraEpistimi and Andreas are connected with the method of production given that for SioraEpistimilabor does not just satisfy a necessity but it is a way to satisfy needs beyond her. On the other hand, for Andreas, “labor”lies on the financial fringes of society. Without difficulty, more marginal characters can be distinguished (Trinkoulas, the Uncle of Andreas, Mitros or Moros the son of Fragogianou who is in prison in Halkida, accused for murder).

The psychological outline of the heroes in both works easily takes form. Their world consists of the social elements of simple, poor, deserted, humiliated people, living in contempt. Characters perplexed by the cruel controversies of life, who are not in position to rely on themselves (except for Rini) to overcome these controversies and find a new moral, serenity and calmness; in other words, to find a new balance between the urge of desire and the goals they have. The heroes sometimes have to fight againstmetaphysical evil, sin and temptation (Papadiamantis:2001) and sometimes against social evil and injustice (Theotokis:1993) which is also a part of evil in their life (Stergiopoulos:1979). At heart, the issue is the same in both texts: the degraded status of a woman in the Greek society of those times: “Life is wasteful, vain and burdensome” (Papadiamantis:2001) for Fragogianou; to continue living is unbearable and incomprehensible. She either has to yield to the human destiny or revolt and put (in her opinion) an end to the suffering stemming from her female nature (Papadiamantis:2001). “She exists to torture us and to be tortured” (Papadiamantis:1998) she says referring toher sick infant granddaughter. Besides, her usual wish for young girls is “May not live... may not go further”. In this way, Fragogianou attempts to repair “nature and society”. In that way, she “fixes” life and saves the poor from their bad luck. She can see further, she can understand, she can provide relief... She becomes judge and jury, she plays God (Saranti:1981). The secret signs she looks for in order to justify her decision and goes on with her job. However, the noose tightens firmly around Hadoula and the old Hadoula meets death amidst the way leading from punishment to redemption.

Theotokis strongly and perceivably attempts to present his heroes more dependable upon the conditions of the society they live in and their economic status. There’s a general attitude about them:they destroy and are getting destroyed. SioraEpistimi, Andreas, his uncle, Trinkoulos all their desires, their weakness and malice are led by money and passion. The only positive character is Rini, who endures her misfortune sending away Andreas. Even though she knows that she will suffer, she does not give in. Her very revolution is the demand for the right to work and a right to be part of society. Her decision points out the role of a job in feeling free. “I am a laborer, whom do I need?” (Theotokis:1993)she exclaims, expressing a redeeming reaction against the established society and mentality.

The parallel reading of these two works points out their dialectical complementarity. Both writers have a common startingpoint. Beginning from ethnography, they lead the story towards a systematic search to get out ofethnography itself (Vitti:2008). It would not be wrong to say that both Papadiamantis (to a lesser degree) and Theotokis use to the utmost the limits of ethnography. The personalities of their heroes, along with the development of naturalism in Greece, sometimes will achieve their full potential and sometimes they will collide with society (Hadoula), sometimes they are defeated, on a personal level (Rini), but they still provide a positive prospect. Papadiamantis (*Murderess*) choose an advanced fantastic solution, giving his heroine a tragic aspect and maybe even a metaphysical character. On the contrary,Theotokis (*Honor and Money*),

in a strict realistic way, shows what leads a woman to social liberation. In any case, it is clear that the heroes revolt; it is also clear that they are independent and that, finally, their freedom is associated with the action of judgement. From a common perspective, the dramatic leitmotif about the characters of both writers is accomplished. "The old Hadoula met death in the passage... somewhere between divine and human justice". Such death cannot be considered neither a punishment led by human justice nor redemption in front of divine justice. Papadiamantis neither judges nor condemns; he understands the gradual deterioration and distortion of a human character but he remains there. Seemingly, Theotokis mores. His characters are fatal and irresponsible victims of a social system based upon injustice. The strain situation they find themselves in is due to an apparent contradiction. "All suffer but nobody is responsible by himself". Under this perspective, both texts include their social service. Both Papadiamantis and Theotokis (each in his own way) are sensitive individuals, experiencing the social events of their times. Their social speech reveals their social perspectives. No one can write without a reading audience and fable without a definite audience created by the historical circumstances, without a fable which largely depends to on the demands of that reading audience (Saxinis:1973).

If this aspect is accepted then the term "engaged literature" -at least for the case of Papadiamantis- even if it sounds a bit strange, could be applied to both texts (Santre:1971). Both writers are engaged with in the same social adventure with their readership; furthermore, as they also belong to the same society, they talk about them, they talk about themselves and talking about themselves they talk about the others. The above reference is more acceptable for Papadiamantis. However, we should not forget Theotokis' strong moral attitude especially towards the end of his life (1919-1922).

Athenian period and hardships

The concentric theological circles, such as presented in the previous focus of this parallel reading make it possible to point out the opinion that both Papadiamantis and Theotokis through these works stand on opposite sides, across a bridge which tries to unite 19th century Greece with 20th century Greece. What the writer of Skiathos started but never completed (at least, according to its social practice) the Corfiot writer is able to complete, on a rational and moral level. The metaphysical revolution turns into a social revolution and the departing Hadoula of Papadiamantis is transformed into the decisive woman (Rini) of Theotokis, being able to cope with her life vigorously.

Two different attitudes towards life, two different, but in no case opposite worlds are represented. The course of life is different for each woman; the end, however, as well as the aim are the same: the question of a socially unjust system of values which acts in an oppressive way against everybody, especially women. The process from ethnography to a middle-class novel is not yet completed, in the beginning of the 20th century. Theotokis believed that the Greek prose was experiencing an ethnographic stagnancy until 1929 (Theotokis:1993). A decisive turning-point for the existence of a essential middle-class within the Greek society will take place following the aftermath of the Asia Minor disaster. The generation of 1930 will be associated with the middle-class novel, among other things.

Greece generally needs a more integrated scientific analysis of the tourist object (Laloumis:1998); as it can be seen so far, in the case of literary tourism, we are quite far from the European and national markets. Only Tinos, since 2010, has had the privilege of being the island of an important literary festival in Greece, with the participation of 120 world renowned writers, through the initiative and third attempt of Ntinosis, of the De(katon) society, in association with local authorities of Tinos. (www.efsyn.gr)

We quote the texts of the research as a sample of our literature in a corresponding time with the writer of England who is claimed to be a magnet of literary tourism in his country. Skiathos of Papadiamantis and Corfu of Theodorakis with “Murderess” and “Honor and Money” respectively are writing and force and acceleration, full of concepts and vivid pictures. They are definitely not inferior to the English writings that nurtured the explosion of literary tourism in London. At the same time, bibliographic research indicates that literary tourism has tried to present the island through local associations and individuals who have been attracted by the island and by Papadiamantis (Anestis:2014).

It is of great importance, particularly G. Koumentakis’ attempt together with the Greek National Opera to transform Fragogiannou into a tragic operatic protagonist in a literary gathering which was an event of great success and promotion. Myron Michailidis, the conductor, commented a little later that the psyche of Fragogiannou wandered and was expressed unhindered and freely, reaching to the point where reason could not have reached. Nature and Fragogiannou have the first role in this opera, whereas Skiathos comes second. The nature embraces Fragogiannou, it surrounds her, it suffocates her and it is lost between divine and human justice (Tabaki:2014).

In an attempt for the island to be presented and promoted to tourists, through literature:

1. The area was literary mapped (www.academia.edu)
2. There is a digital map with the literary names of the places in Skiathos (www.paki.webpages.auth.gr)
3. Literary Geography depicts Papadiamantis’ text
4. The writer’s house turned into a museum with the writer’s items is included
5. The central pedestrian street is named after the writer
6. Best of Papadiamantis near the school he attended at an early age

Skiathos continues to be a source of inspiration and a unprecedented worship has arisen in theatrical stages, internationally. Skiathos of the 60s became the scene for the next production of the National Theater with the play “Sunset at the Villa Thalia” by Alexi Kaye Campbell, and the participation of Greek and foreign actors.

The “Murderess” of George Koumantakis comes back at Megaron Athens Concert Hall for four plays only (Huff Post Greece) 2 years later because of its artistic and collecting success at its first worldwide presentation in November 2014. (www.megaron.gr)

Respectively in Corfu, the village Karoussades in Theotokis' work is a place of particular natural beauty, surrounded by olive groves and cypress trees, coupled with a superb beach and alluring view over the Ionian Sea. The tower of the Theodokis family, also known as the tower of Karasades is the house where the father of the Corfiot novel and creator of social literature was born and also where he died. Unfortunately, nothing has been done for the house-museum to be preserved. In 1884, the film "The price of love" was shot, based on the play of Elena Kerandrou "Honor and money". The film received 7 state awards in Thessaloniki (Tabaki, 2014) and was presented again in 2018 in reference to the National women's day at the town hall of Kaisariani. The critics at Athinorama awarded it 3.5 stars and many tickets were sold that day.

Regarding Theotokis, there is no attempt to be seen through the literary tourism. The cultural association of Karoussades feels that this is due to the self-sufficiency Corfu has always experienced, thanks to the natural abundance and tourism. Thus, there is no need for extroversion and social show.

Conclusions

Literary tourism may become the foundation for a multinational literary of the country and forge lasting relations.

Greece can be a famous destination of literary tourism because according to the research of the study cases, our literature is alive and rich in meaning, words, pictures and is of unique beauty and interest, similar to those of London which is the world champion in this kind of tourism.

Suggestions:

1. Making literary maps by the local cultural associations.
2. Training local guides with financial support from local authorities.
3. Invitation to literary festivals in which the audience will participate as well as the creators.
4. Loading and showing on internet not only the works and house-museums but also the life of world renowned writers..

in a country with two Nobel Prizes in Literature, lies a great opportunity for literary tourism only if the authorities and people in charge realize it and start organizing to accommodate it.

REFERENCES

1. Ioannou R, 2016, “[Literary tourism in New England](http://www.wordstocount.com)”, www.wordstocount.com
2. Andriotis K. 2008, “Euphoria and alternative tourism”, Stamoulis, Athens
3. Stergiou A. 2018, “Literary tourism; a market where Greece abstains”,www.agropost.gr
4. Laloumis D., Roupas V., 1998 *Tourism and Departure Management*, Stamoulis, Athens
5. Elitis Od. 1996, «The magic of Papdiamantis», Ypsilon, Athens
6. Pazanos G. 1984, The analysis of a narrative « Honor and money”, Journal “Diavazo” Volume 22
7. Mpalaskas K. 1979, Journal “NeaPaideia”, Volume 10
8. Stergiopoulos K., 1979, “Papdiamantis in our days ; twenty texts for his life and his work”, “Edition of friends”
9. Sahinis A., 1973, “The modern Greek novel”, Edition “Estia”
10. Papdiamantis A., 2001, “The Murderess” ,Athens, Edition “Sichroniepoxi”
11. Theotokis K. , 1993 “Honor and money”, Edition “Nefeli”
12. Saranti G. 1981, “Tribute to Papdiamantis and to his world”, Edition Triantaphyllopoulos, Athens
13. Vitti M. 2008, “The history of modern Greek literary”, Edition “Odusseas”, Athens
14. Santre J.P 1971, “What is literary?”, Traduction by Athanasiou, Edition “70”
15. Theotokas G., 1979, “Free spirit”, Edition “Ermis”, Athens
16. Tabaki A., www.athensvoice.gr, Koumentakis, Svolos, Efklidis at Lyric Scene
17. Politis N., www.lib.auth.gr, Politis N.’s collection., Library of Aristotelio University
18. www.megaron.gr. 2016, news.beats.gr George Koumentakis: ifonissa_megaronmousikis.(09/01/2019)
19. paki.webpages.auth.gr, « hartografontastiskiathotouPapdiamanti»
20. www.academia.edu, «hartografontastiskiathotou Papdiamanti»

**SUPPORTING THE ENABLING FACTORS FOR SUCCESSFUL
KNOWLEDGE SHARING ADOPTION BY THE EGYPTIAN
TOURISM COMPANIES**

Mahmoud Ahmed Aboushouk

PhD, Lecturer in Tourism department, faculty of Tourism & Hotels
Management, Pharos University in Alexandria, Egypt
00201095222437/**Dr.mahmoudahmed@pua.edu.eg**

Hala Hilaly

Professor in Tourism studies department, and vice dean for community service
and environment development, Faculty of tourism and hotels, Alexandria
University, Egypt
00201227319223/**halahilaly@hotmail.com**

Nashwa Fouad Attallah

Professor in tourism studies department, Faculty of Tourism and Hotels, and
Vice Dean for graduate Studies and Research - Alexandria University, Egypt
00201223163225/**Nashwafouad1@yahoo.com**

ABSTRACT

This study aimed at measuring the extent of knowledge sharing adoption by the Egyptian tourism companies class A, as well as identifying and supporting its enabling factors. The deductive approach and quantitative method were used by this study. Moreover, a semi-structured questionnaire was distributed to a sample of 278 out of 1008 tourist companies, were selected using a simple random sampling technique with response rate was of 85%. Moreover, structural equation modeling (SEM) was used for the quantitative data analysis. Results identified enabling factors for knowledge sharing adoption in the Egyptian tourism companies. In addition, implications for practice were recommended to support the perceived enabling factors of knowledge sharing adoption- in the Egyptian tourism companies class A. This research provides improvements to knowledge sharing adoption process by tourism companies.

Keywords: knowledge sharing, supporting enabling factors, tourism companies

1-INTRODUCTION

Knowledge sharing strategy has become one of the most applied strategies by major tourist organizations to cope with intense competition in a changeable world, also to meet the current tourist needs who are searching for new and unique experiences as mentioned by Hu, Horng, and Sun (2009).

Therefore, more emphasis in knowledge sharing and innovative work behaviors is needed by tourist companies to be able to survive through keeping and attracting new customers by continuously satisfying their growing and complicated needs as stated by (Brotherton,1999), and (King,2002) otherwise their services will become worthless and have no demand according to Tidd , Bessant, and Pavitt (2005).

According to Mason and Pauleenis (2003) Knowledge sharing is considered the most important factor in knowledge management, moreover (Lin 2007) defined it as a culture of social interaction that contains exchanging knowledge, skills, and experiences related to work among employees at the departments and the whole organization's levels.

Moreover it was proved by each of (Mohamed, Stankosky, and Murray 2004; Finnegan and Willcocks 2006 ; Hallin and Marnburg 2008; Hu, Horng, and Sun 2009) that if tourist organizations want to achieve high levels of service innovation , they must support the behaviors of knowledge sharing among their employees.Also (Cooper 2006 ; Weidenfeld, Williams, and Butler 2010) added that innovation processes are fed through absorbing, sharing, and implementing new knowledge.

A research gap was found in this area where until the present time there are little practical studies examining knowledge sharing adoption by Tourism companies which has given an incentive to carry out this study in the Egyptian tourism companies to provide new results on the process knowledge sharing adoption in tourism industry.

2 LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 The concept of Knowledge sharing (KS)

Knowledge sharing was described by (Van den Hoof & De Rider, 2004; Usoro et al. 2007) as a process includes two dimensions; knowledge collecting and knowledge donating.

Moreover, (Bock et al.,2005; Lin, 2007) described knowledge sharing from behavioral and social point of view as a kind of social exchange and interaction that involve disseminating, sharing or exchanging employees' acquired knowledge, skills, and experiences through the whole department or organization, and expecting to receive others in return based on mutual trust.

In addition, (Bock & Kim, 2002) added that knowledge sharing occurs when an employee is willing to learn or assist others to build new capabilities. In the same way , (Cummings , 2004) identified the aim of knowledge sharing as collaborating with others to solve problems, develop new ideas, and implement new policies or procedures.

Furthermore, (Alam et al. 2009; Nordin, Daud & Osman 2012) described knowledge sharing as procedures undertaken when a group of people want to exchange their knowledge.

2.2 KNOWLEDGE SHARING FACTORS

Knowledge sharing factors were broadly classified as organizational, personal, social, and technological factors in the previous researches as the following:

2.2.1 Organizational factors

2.2.1.1 Organizational culture:

Organizational culture is considered the most frequently cited factor supports and facilitates knowledge sharing as part of daily work activities as proved by (O'Dell & Grayson 1998; Gupta & Govendarajan 2000; Goh 2002; Cheng, HO, & Lau 2009; Yiu and Law 2012; Obrenovic & Qin, 2014). In addition, it contains according to (Kim & Lee ,2006) of vision and mission, trust among employees, social network, as well as (Ling, 2011) who mentioned that culture sociability and solidarity are facilitating factors for knowledge sharing.

2.2.1.2 Incentives, Reward, and Compensation systems:

The adopted incentives, reward, and compensation systems by organizations, were found to have an influence on knowledge sharing according to (Kim & Lee, 2006; Lin, 2007; Cheng, HO, & Lau, 2009; Yiu & Law, 2012; Obrenovic & Qin, 2014; Mohammadi, 2014).

2.2.1.3 Top management, supervisors, and fellow worker support:

Knowledge sharing was found to be influenced by top managers, supervisors, and fellow workers support in the previous research of (Lin, 2007; Cheng, HO, & Lau 2009; Yiu & Law, 2012; Kathiravelu, 2013; Obrenovic & Qin, 2014; Mohammadi, 2014).

2.2.1.4 Leadership style:

Leadership style where organizations value the contribution of their employees and care about their well-being, also teams with supportive leaders displayed higher levels of knowledge exchange when compared to teams with directive leaders as stated in the previous researches of (Eisenberger et al . 1997; Durham, Knight, & Locke, 1997; Yiu & Law, 2012; Obrenovic & Qin, 2014).

2.2.1.5 Organizational structure:

Organizational structure is composed of centralization where organizations with flexible and decentralized organizational structures encourage knowledge sharing when compared to bureaucratic and centralized organizational structure as found by (Sharatt & Usoro, 2003; Kim & Lee, 2006), Also flat organizational structures facilitate knowledge sharing when compared to organizations with hierarchal organizational structures as mentioned by (Obrenovic & Qin ,2014).

2.2.1.6 Value congruence:

Sharing of values between employees and their organizations was found to be one of the factors affecting knowledge sharing among employees as proved by (Sharatt & Usoro, 2003; Obrenovic & Qin, 2014).

2.2.1.7 Openness and Fairness:

The fair balance between what people exert in their jobs as time, ability, personal sacrifices and what they get out of them such as salaries, job security, recognition, development and reputation also the willingness of partners to communicate and interact were perceived as factors influence knowledge sharing proved by (Yiu & Law, 2012).

2.2.1.8 Employees' Commitment:

Employees' commitment towards their organizations has direct relationship with knowledge sharing behavior as proved by (Kathiravelu, Kenny, & Abu Mansor, 2013).

2.2.2 Personal factors

2.2.2.1 Self Efficacy:

The employees' judgment of their capabilities to organize and execute the actions required to achieve specific level of performance as described by (Bandura, 1997), constitutes a personal factor influence knowledge sharing behavior among employees as found by (Lin, 2007; Yiu & Law, 2012; Sharatt & Usoro, 2003; Obrenovic & Qin, 2014).

2.2.2.2 Positive individual and job attitudes towards knowledge sharing:

The disposition to respond favorably towards knowledge sharing with other employees was found to be one of the personal factors that has significant impact on knowledge sharing as found by (Yang, 2008; Cheng, Ho, & Lau, 2009; Obrenovic & Qin, 2014; Mohammadi, 2014).

2.2.2.3 Expected rewards, recognition, and status enhancement:

(Herzberg, 2003) found that financial rewards and other external factors are important in avoiding demotivation but it has little effect on sustaining the motivation of employees instead of the factors that are intrinsically rewarding such as recognition and reputation that have a far greater influence on employee's motivation. Furthermore, (O'Dell & Grayson, 1998) found that the process of knowledge sharing must be rewarded, celebrated, and supported by culture. Moreover, expected rewards, recognition, and promotion by employees as a result of sharing their knowledge, were considered an effective incentives influencing knowledge sharing by (Yiu & Law, 2012; Obrenovic & Qin, 2014).

2.2.2.4 Enjoyment in helping others:

The enjoyment in helping others was found to have influence on knowledge sharing as stated in the results of the study of (Yiu & Law, 2012; Lin, 2007).

2.2.2.5 Perceived loss of knowledge power:

Employees normally consider their knowledge as a source of power that they will lose it when they share this knowledge with other employees so it negatively influences knowledge sharing as proved by (Yiu & Law, 2012).

2.2.2.6 Personal expectations:

Employees are expecting that their peers will exchange their knowledge with them in return of sharing their knowledge with their peers which was found to be one of the personal factors that influences knowledge sharing in a study results conducted by (Cheng, Ho, & Lau, 2009)

2.2.2.7 Other group of personal factors:

Another four personal factors were added by (Obrenovic & Qin, 2014) affecting knowledge sharing including subjective norms, employees' intentions beyond knowledge sharing with their peers, employee's personality and emotions toward other employees.

Furthermore, (THE & Yang, 2011) added another three personal factors as well were sense of self worth, organizational citizenship behavior and in role behavior.

Moreover, (Kathiravelu, Kenny, & Abu Mansor, 2013) also added another personal factor that influences knowledge sharing which is the work place.

2.2.3 Social factors

2.2.3.1 Trust:

Trust resides the individuals' relationships with others including their peers, team members, and coworkers to create suitable atmosphere for knowledge sharing. In addition, it involves various facets including trust in their competence, openness, honesty, intensions, concerns, and reliability as stated by (Mishra, 1996). Moreover, trust can be conceptualized across three dimensions according to (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman ,1995) which are integrity based trust that includes honesty and reliability, benevolence based trust that means another party will not harm others even when he is given the opportunity to do so, and competence based trust that means another party is knowledgeable or possesses a certain level of competence.

In addition, trust was found as a social factor affecting knowledge sharing according to the results of previous researches conducted by (Nanoka, 1994; Sharatt & Usoro, 2003; Tiwana & Bush, 2005; Kim & Lee, 2006; Ling, 2011; Yiu & Law, 2012; Obrenovic & Qin, 2014; Mohammadi, 2014).

2.2.3.2 Career advancement:

The degree to which a member believes that sharing his knowledge will positively affect his career is considered as an effective incentive in motivating knowledge sharing as found by (Hall, 2001; Sharatt & Usoro, 2003).

2.2.3.3 Reciprocity:

When employees expect future benefits as a result of their present actions of sharing their knowledge that will influence their attitude towards knowledge sharing as found by (Bock et al. 2005; Yiu & Law, 2012).

2.2.3.4 Social interactions and team collaboration:

Social interactions among employees and team members collaboration and competition within the organization context were found to be influencing knowledge sharing according to the results of researches made by (Yiu & Law ,2012 ; Obrenovic & Qin, 2014).

2.2.3.5 Sense of community:

The degree to which employee feels sense of belonging in the community of organization as described by (Yoo, Suh, & Lee, 2002). In addition, the feeling that members matter to one another, as well as, their commitment to be together, was proved to have influence on sharing knowledge among employees or the team members according to the research results of (Sharrat & Usoro, 2003).

2.2.3.6 Social networks:

The formal and informal relationships and contacts between employees within the organizations were found to have significant impact on employees' knowledge sharing by (Kim & Lee, 2006).

2.2.3.7 Team context (diversity- cooperation- competition):

Diversity of team members within teams provides a variety in professional backgrounds, personalities, cultures, tenure, and many other team members' characteristics. Moreover the cooperation and competition among those members were found to have influence on knowledge sharing among them as proved by (Obrenovic & Qin, 2014).

3 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Method

The deductive approach and quantitative method were adopted where it uses hypotheses to explain the causal relationships among variables of the study according to (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2009). The researchers used semi-structured questionnaire to measure four main constructs conducted between the 1st of January to the 5th February, 2017. It was distributed among a sample of 278 out of 1008 tourist companies, selected using a simple random sampling technique with response rate of 85%.

3.2 Data collection

3.3

The population for this study is category (A) tourism companies in Egypt. A list of these companies is available from the Egyptian travel Agents Association (ETAA). According to them in (2017), there was 1168 category (A) tourist companies in Egypt. They are located in 23 of Egypt's 27 governorates. Because of the high concentration of tourist companies in Greater Cairo and Alexandria in addition to the geographical spread of the other governorates throughout Egypt, totally, this sample frame consists of 1008 tourist companies.

This study used online questionnaire using Google form at <http://goo.gl/forms/YqIU5iiFQP> in addition to face-to-face questionnaire technique for collecting data. The simple random sampling technique involves selecting the sample at random from the sampling frame using random number tables.

3.4 Sample size and technique

3.5

The actual sample size calculated using the following formula by (Thompson, 2012):

$$n = \frac{N \times p(1-p)}{\left[\frac{N-1}{d^2 \div z^2} \right] + p(1-p)}$$

Where

N	Population size
z	Standard Z= 1.96 (z value corresponding to the level of confidence required)
d	Error accepted level = 0.05
p	Probability level = 0.50

Based on the equation, the suitable sample size is 278 companies.

3.4 Questionnaire design

The semi-structured questionnaire in this study; includes a mixture of closed-ended, open-ended and partially closed ended questions to allow the respondents to choose the most relevant answers and add extra information.

3.6 Variables of the study

The main constructs of the study as shown in figure (1) are the perceived knowledge sharing adoption practices, its enabling organizational, social, and personal factors.

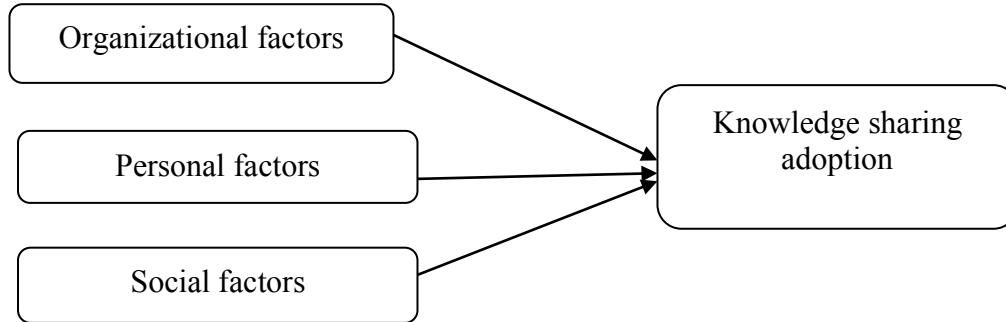


Figure (1) research model including the main constructs of the study

Based on the previous theoretical framework, this research tests the following hypotheses:

1-a-The perceived Knowledge sharing organizational factors have no impact on knowledge sharing adoption (H0).

1-b- The perceived Knowledge sharing organizational factors have positive impact on knowledge sharing adoption (H1).

2-a-The perceived Knowledge sharing personal factors have no impact on knowledge sharing adoption (H0).

2-b-The perceived Knowledge sharing personal factors have positive impact on knowledge sharing adoption (H1).

3-a- The perceived Knowledge sharing social factors have no impact on knowledge sharing adoption (H0).

3-b-The perceived Knowledge sharing social factors have positive impact on knowledge sharing adoption (H1).

These variables are developed from the literature review as the following:

Practices of knowledge-sharing adoption adapted from: (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Walz & Niehoff 2000; Kim & Lee, 2006; Hamid & Sulaiman, 2013; Kim & Lee, 2013; Alhady et al. 2011)

Enabling factors adapted from: (Szulanski, 1996; O'Dell & Grayson, 1998; McDermott & O'Dell, 2001; Szulanski, 2003; Evgeniou & Cartwright, 2005; Reige, 2005; Kim & Joh, 2005; Shahid & Alamgir, 2011; Kaps, 2011; Khalil & Shea, 2012; Gaal et al.2012; Santos, Goldman, & Souza, 2012; Awang, Kareem, & Ismai, 2014).

3.6 Questionnaire layout

Procedures were followed to validate the initial questionnaire form to ensure that it measures what it was supposed to measure. The final questionnaire form is divided into four parts included factors affecting knowledge sharing adoption with response for each item ranges from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

3.7 Data analysis tools

Structural equation modeling (SEM) the advanced multivariate technique was used for the quantitative data analysis. As it has the ability to measure complicated causal relationship among constructs, SEM is considered the highly appropriate analytical approach for this type of study (Olsson et al. 2000). Moreover, Wrap PLS software version (5) was used to conduct the structural equation modeling analysis where it depicts the regression weights of independent variables on dependent ones. In addition, the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS version 20, Chicago, IL) is used to carry out the descriptive analysis.

3.7 The questionnaire validity and the pilot testing

To investigate the construct validity of the measurement model and its reliability, Table (1) shows that AVEs for all constructs are greater than 0.50 which is an evidence of convergent validity that refers to the overall amount of variance in the items accounted for by a latent construct as stated by (Bland & Altman, 1994) Cronbach’s alpha and composite reliability for all constructs exceed 0.70 meaning that the measurement model is reliable.

Table (1) Statistics of the measurement model

Constructs	Indicators	Loadings	AVEs	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite reliability	VIF
Personal factors of knowledge sharing:	I enjoy helping others	0.649	0.579	0.927	0.938	2.482
	My self-efficacy and confidence in my performance	0.765				
	My self-image of feelings of competence, effectiveness, and moral worth in the eyes of my peers	0.808				
	Expected rewards, recognition, and status enhancement	0.767				
	My individual attitude toward share knowledge	0.775				
	My job attitude	0.795				
	I expect benefits of my peers in return of sharing my knowledge with them.	0.764				
	My personality characteristics, especially openness to experience	0.760				
	My emotions of pride and empathy toward knowledge sharing	0.730				
	My working place with entrepreneurial, learning and innovation environments	0.769				
I normally consider my knowledge as a source of power	0.775					
Social factors	I expect future benefits from my present actions of sharing my knowledge	0.830	0.735	0.880	0.917	2.614
	Trust: that another party is honest and reliable, knowledgeable	0.874				
	Sharing my knowledge will positively affect my career	0.884				

	advancement.					
	The diversity of my team members, cooperation & competition among them	0.841				
Organizational factors of knowledge sharing	Culture sociability: employees are more like friends than co-workers	0.790	0.565	0.903	0.921	2.934
	Solidarity: our ability to pursue shared objectives quickly and effectively	0.777				
	Social networks: formal and informal relationships and contacts between us in my company	0.771				
	Reward and Compensation systems that encourages me to share my knowledge	0.733				
	Organizational structure of my company encourages increasing levels of knowledge-sharing	0.726				
	Top manager and supervisors in my company support quality and level of sharing knowledge	0.745				
	Openness: my partners have the willingness to communicate and interact in my company	0.751				
	My company's culture facilitates employees to share knowledge	0.760				
	My realization that my co-worker will find knowledge sharing favorable.	0.707				
Practices of knowledge-sharing adoption	In a team setting, I would share knowledge with colleagues, who had assisted me in the past	0.660	0.510	0.909	0.923	3.099
	I cooperate/ communicate with other employees in teams for sharing information/ knowledge,	0.738				
	I can freely access documents, information, and knowledge held by other divisions	0.691				
	I am involved in knowledge generation/sharing activities	0.673				
	participate in seminars/ conferences	0.758				
	I make copies of articles and pass to friends	0.730				
	When I have learned something new, I tell my colleagues about it	0.727				
	Knowledge sharing amongst colleagues is considered normal in my learning environment.	0.653				
	I would share knowledge with colleagues on the latest developments within/ outside company	0.706				
	I believe that knowledge sharing among teams can help establish my image as an expert	0.743				
	I am willing to help other team members	0.738				
	I voluntarily share my know-how, information, and knowledge with other employees	0.667				
	I think it is important that my colleagues know what I am doing	0.660				

Source: researchers according to research statistical analysis' results

3.9 The Measurement Model

The measurement model measures the relationships between the observed variables (indicators) and the unobserved variables (constructs) as stated by (Van de Wijngaert, 2010). To validate the measurement model, the construct validity should be assessed. The construct validity

assessed by looking at both the discriminant and convergent validities. Discriminant validity means that the constructs must be different from other related constructs, for each pair of constructs according to (Tarling, 2009). Convergent validity refers to the extent of correlation between measures of the same construct, which should be related in reality as mentioned by (Golob, 2003). Average variance extracted (AVE) used for assessing discriminant and convergent validity according to (Dalggaard, 2008; Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Table (2) Square roots of AVEs and correlations among constructs

	Personal factors	Social factors	Organizational factors	knowledge-sharing adoption
Personal factors	0.761			
Social factors	0.669	0.858		
Organizational factors	0.647	0.675	0.752	
knowledge-sharing adoption	0.664	0.680	0.712	0.714

Source: researcher according to research statistical analysis' results

4 RESULTS

4.1 Knowledge sharing adoption practices

This study results proved that the following knowledge sharing adoption practices by employees of the Egyptian tourism companies are exist:

- When they have learned something new, they tell their colleagues about it,
- They participate in seminars/ conferences,
- They make copies of articles and pass them to friends,
- They are involved in knowledge generation/sharing activities,
- Knowledge sharing amongst colleagues is considered normal in their learning environment,
- They cooperate or communicate with other employees in teams or groups for sharing information,
- They think it is important that their colleagues know what they are doing,
- They are willing to help other team members,
- In a team setting, they would share knowledge with colleagues, who had assisted them in the past,
- At work, they would share knowledge with colleagues about the latest developments within/ outside the company,

- They believe that knowledge sharing among teams can help establish their images as an experts, and
- They voluntarily share their know-how, information, and knowledge with other employees

These results agree with the studies' results of (Davenport & Prusak, 1998; Walz & Niehoff, 2000; Kim & Lee, 2006; Hamid & Sulaiman, 2013; Messmann, 2012).

4.2 Organizational Personal, and social, factors influencing knowledge sharing adoption:

The results of this study found that the following organizational factors are influencing knowledge sharing adoption by the Egyptian tourism companies:

- Solidarity: ability to pursue shared objectives quickly and effectively,
- Social networks: Both formal and informal relationships and contacts between employees in company,
- Reward and Compensation systems that encourages to share knowledge,
- Realizing that co-worker will find knowledge sharing favorable,
- Organizational structure (Centralization- formalization degree) of company encourage increasing levels of knowledge-sharing,
- Top manager and supervisors in company support quality and level of sharing knowledge,
- Company's culture facilitates employees to share knowledge as part of daily work activities,
- Openness: partners have the willingness to communicate and interact in company, and
- Culture sociability: employees are more like friends than co-workers

Moreover, Results revealed that the following personal factors are influencing knowledge sharing adoption by the Egyptian tourism companies:

- Individual attitude toward share knowledge,
- Job attitude (the readiness to respond favorably or unfavorably toward knowledge sharing with colleagues according to job nature),
- Considering knowledge as a source of power,
- Expecting benefits of peers in return of sharing knowledge with them,
- Expected rewards, recognition, and status enhancement,
- Personality characteristics, especially openness to experience associated with traits are intelligence and curiosity, and reflect a more flexible, imaginative approach,

- Emotions of pride and empathy toward knowledge sharing,
- Self-efficacy and confidence in personal performance,
- Self-image of feelings of competence, effectiveness, and moral worth in the eyes of peers,
- Working place with entrepreneurial, learning and innovation environments where knowledge sharing takes place, and
- Enjoying helping others.

Furthermore, results indicated that the following social factors are influencing knowledge sharing adoption by the Egyptian tourism companies:

- The diversity of team members, cooperation & competition among them,
- Trust: that another party is honest and reliable, knowledgeable,
- Sharing knowledge will positively affect career advancement, and
- Expecting future benefits from present actions of sharing knowledge

4.3 The structural model and hypotheses testing:

The structured model looks at the causal relationships among the unobserved variables as mentioned by (Hox, 2010). It depicts the regression weights of independent variables on dependent ones. In this study, there are 10 hypotheses to test according to Figure (2).

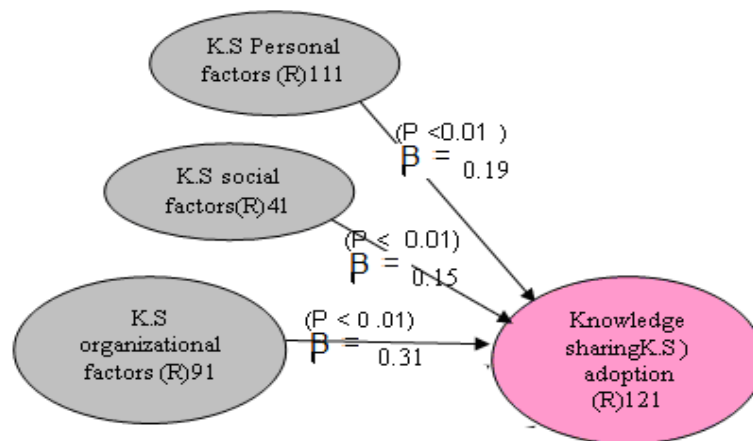


Figure (2) the structural model

Source: researchers based on questionnaire analysis results

4.3.1 Hypotheses testing results:

1- The perceived Knowledge sharing organizational factors has positive effect on knowledge sharing adoption where ($\beta=0.31$, $P<0.01$) hypothesis 1-a (H0) is not supported and hypothesis 1-b (H1) supported.

1-The perceived Knowledge sharing personal factors has positive effect on knowledge sharing adoption where ($\beta=0.19$, $P<0.01$) so hypothesis 2-a (H0) is not supported and hypothesis 2-b (H1) supported.

2- The perceived Knowledge sharing social factors has positive effect on knowledge sharing adoption where ($\beta=0.15$, $P<0.01$, hence hypothesis 3-a (H0) is not supported and hypothesis 3-b (H1) supported.

5 DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSION

Previous researches such as (Davenport and Prusak 1998; Walz and Niehoff 2000; Kim and Lee 2006; Hamid and Sulaiman 2013; Messmann, 2012) proved that knowledge sharing concept exists, and its practices are applied inside in the Egyptian tourism companies, these results agree with the results of this study.

In addition, the enabling personal factors that influence the adoption of knowledge sharing that were identified by previous researches of (McMillan and Chavis 1986; Bandura 1997; Kim and Lee 2006; Lin 2007; yang 2008; THE and Yong 2011; Yiu and Law 2012; Kathiravelu, Kenny, and Abu Mansor 2013; Sharri, Abdulrahman, and Ragab 2014; Obrenovic and Qin 2014) agree with the results of this study so, if the CEOs and directors of these tourism companies support and develop it, the result will be an active participation from the employees in knowledge sharing.

Moreover, the enabling social factors that influence the adoption of knowledge sharing that were determined by previous researches of (Hedlund and Nonaka, 1993; Nonaka, 1994; Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995; Mishra, 1996; Hall, 2001; Bock et al., 2005; Tiwana and Bush, 2005; Kim and Lee, 2006; Tan, Lim and Ng, 2009; Ling 2011; Carneiro, 2010; Goffee and Jones, 2009; Yiu and Law, 2012; Obrenovic and Qin, 2014) agree with the findings of this study.

Furthermore, the organizational factors influencing knowledge sharing adoption that has been identified by previous researches of (Eisenberger, et al., 1997; O'Dell and Grayson, 1998; Govindarajan, 2000; Gupta and McDermott and O'Dell, 2001; Goh, 2002; Sharratt and Usoro, 2003; Kim and Lee, 2006; Lin, 2007; Cheng, et al., 2009; Cheng, HO, and Lau, 2009; Goffee and Jones, 2009; Lim and Ng, 2009; Carneiro, 2010; Tan, Ling, 2011; Obrenovic and Qin, 2014) agree with the results of this study.

On the other hand it was found by previous researches of (Bandura, 1997; Kim and Lee, 2006; Lin, 2007; yang,2008;THE and Yong, 2011; Kathiravelu, Kenny; and Abu Mansor, 2013; Yiu and Law,2012; Sharri, Abdulrahman, and Ragab, 2014; Obrenovic and Qin, 2014) that the perceived Knowledge sharing personal factors has a positive effect on knowledge sharing adoption which is matching the results of this study.

In addition, previous researches results of (Hedlund and Nonaka, 1993; Nonaka, 1994; Hall, 2001; Mishra, 1996 ; Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995; Bock et al.,2005; Tiwana and Bush, 2005; Kim and Lee, 2006; Tan, Lim, and Ng, 2009; Goffee and Jones, 2009; Carneiro, 2010; Ling, 2011; Yiu and Law, 2012; Obrenovic and Qin, 2014) agree with this study results which found that the perceived Knowledge sharing social factors has a positive effect on knowledge sharing adoption.

Moreover, results of previous studies of (Eisenberger et al., 1997; O'Dell and Grayson, 1998; Gupta and Govindarajan, 2000 ; McDermott and O'Dell, 2001; Goh, 2002; Sharratt and Usoro, 2003; Kim and Lee, 2006; Lin 2007; Goffee and Jones, 2009; Cheng, HO, and Lau, 2009; Cheng, Ho, and Lau, 2009; Tan, Lim and Ng, 2009; Carneiro, 2010; Ling, 2011; Obrenovic and Qin ,2014) agree with this study results that found positive effect of the perceived Knowledge sharing organizational factors on knowledge sharing adoption

It became clear according to the results that, the perceived Knowledge sharing personal, social, and organizational factors have significant positive impact on knowledge sharing adoption by the Egyptian tourism companies, As such, based on the research results the research provide ideas that provide the basis for improving the applicability of knowledge sharing within Egyptian tourism companies through supporting its enabling factors as the following:

Firstly: implications for supporting personal enabling factors:

A- Using an extra ordinary selection system to attract and retain the best employees who enjoy the following personal traits:

Learning oriented where employees are committed to continuous learning to enhance themselves, open mindness, think outside the box, like communicating and interacting with other employees, enjoy helping others, intelligent, curious, reflect more flexibility, imaginative

b- Developing and supporting employees' self-efficacy and confidence in their personal performance through:

- Encouraging employees to continuously learn, provide them with more learning opportunities, and facilitate their access to resources necessary for learning, which will be reflected in their self-efficacy.
- Providing evaluative feedback because employees affiliated with highly motivated groups or teams change positively and their self-efficacy rises by time.
- Providing a warm, responsive and supportive work environment encourages exploration, stimulate curiosity, and provide learning materials accelerate the employees' intellectual.
- Observing similar others employees succeed motivate employees to perform the task if they believe that they, too, will be successful.
- Assuring that employees are familiar with their assigned tasks and fully understand what is required to execute these tasks successfully.

c- Supporting employees' self-image of feelings of competence, effectiveness, and moral worth in the eyes of peers through:

- Providing employees with evaluative feedback about their outstanding performance as recognition for their tasks achievements and their effective participation,
- Communicating their confidence in their capabilities than expressing doubts,
- Involving employees in the decision making process,
- Keeping the employees' positive mood state through the positive work environment.
- Avoiding placing people in situations prematurely where they are likely to fail often.

d- Providing employees' expected rewards, recognition, and status enhancement through:

- Developing a formal reward system.
- Incorporating Knowledge sharing activities formally in employees' evaluations and must be rewarded effectively rather than just the occasional verbal recognition for a good job.

e- Keeping positive individual and job attitude toward knowledge sharing through:

- Encouraging a cooperative work environment than competitive work environment,
- Let employees perceive the knowledge sharing benefits,
- Knowing that the positive employees' prior experience of sharing knowledge with others affect their attitude to repeat further opportunities for knowledge sharing,
- Realizing that employee must perceive cooperative intentions of his/her colleagues, which participate effectively in forming his/her positive attitudes toward knowledge sharing.
- Preventing and discourage the opportunistic behavior where employee may exploit the other for short-term gain.
- Avoiding interpersonally unfair treatment to the employees, which trigger negative emotions as feeling of anger and annoyance.

f- Providing the expected benefits of peers in return of sharing knowledge with them through:

- Investing in terms of time and effort in building a cooperative climate that encourage employees to focus on the larger community of the company rather than on their own interests. Therefore, knowledge sharing can be facilitated among them, also in a cooperative climate employees show a tendency to "pay back" their colleagues according to the social exchange theory, moreover the cooperative climate is likely to increase trust among employees, which in turn foster knowledge sharing.

g- Supporting personality characteristics, especially (openness to experience) associated with traits are intelligence and curiosity, and reflect a more flexible, imaginative approach through:

- recruiting candidates by human resources' directors of tourism companies that enjoying openness to experience as a personality characteristic

h- Supporting emotions of pride and empathy toward knowledge sharing through:

- Organizing events as possible to celebrate knowledge sharing in order to reinforce the employees Positive emotions of pride and empathy toward knowledge sharing,
- Reinforcing the employees' feeling that what they knows is very valuable to others, thus positively influencing the desire to share.

- Reinforcing the employee pride of his or her expertise and experience because this employee is more likely to be eager to share knowledge.

i- Supporting working place with entrepreneurial, learning and innovation environments where knowledge sharing takes place through encouraging according to Porzse et al.(2012) the following:

- A high challenge climate, which is formed when the employees are emotionally involved into the company's goals and operations, and feel joy and experience in their job
- Freedom: where people are making contacts freely, exchange information, initiate and make decisions.
- Sharing time: time allocated to discuss suggestions that were not planned and scheduled in advance.
- Openness: where everyone in the company dares to put new ideas and opinions.
- Dynamism: where new things happen all the time and ways of thinking are frequently changing.
- Playfulness/Humor: where a relaxed atmosphere with jokes and laughter is present in a high playfulness environment.
- Debates: where clashes and encounters between differing points of views, ideas, experiences and knowledge occurs. In addition, many voices are heard and people are keen on putting their ideas.
- Risk Taking: where decisions are quick and prompt, arising opportunities are taken and concrete experimenting is preferred rather than detailed investigation and analysis.

j - Considering knowledge as a source of power:

CEOs and directors of tourism companies must support the following:

- Encouraging employees to increase their experiences and power by sharing knowledge especially with someone with higher status such as their supervisor compared to a coworker.
- Encouraging employees to focus on the larger community of the company rather than on their own interests, and place more points in valuable knowledge sharing within the employees' evaluation.
- providing effective incentives to motivate employees with unique knowledge to share their knowledge.

Secondly: implications for supporting social enabling factors:

a- Expecting future benefits from present actions of sharing knowledge:

CEOs and directors of tourism companies must:

- reassure employees that they will receive incentives for what they share
- Rewards must exceed the costs of sharing such as time, energy and potential loss of ownership and power,

b- Trust: that another party is honest, reliable, and knowledgeable:

CEOs and directors of tourism companies must promote trust between every employee and others through the trust worthy actions and behaviors or the trust builders as stated by Abrams et al. (2003):

Actual trust worthy behaviors:

Acting as the followings:

- Being clear about what information they are expected to keep confidential.
- Don't reveal information they have said they would not reveal.

Being consistent between word and deed through the following:

- Being clear about what they have committed to do.
- Set realistic expectations.

Ensuring frequent and rich communication through the following:

- Make interactions meaningful and memorable
- have some face-to-face (or at least telephone) contact.
- Develop close relationships

Engaging in collaborative communication through the following:

- Avoid being overly critical or judgmental of ideas still in their infancy,
- Don't always demand complete solutions from people trying to solve a problem.
- Work with people to improve jointly on their partially formed ideas.

Ensuring that decisions are fair and transparent through the following:

- Make sure that people know how and why rules are applied and applied equally,
- Make promotion and rewards criteria clear-cut.

Organizational trust worthy Factors:

Establishing and ensuring shared vision and language through the following:

- Set common goals,
- Look for opportunities to create common terminology and ways of thinking,
- find out the misunderstandings due to differences.

Holding people accountable for trust through the following:

- include measures of trustworthiness in performance evaluations,
- do not reward employees with high performance but are not trustworthy,
- Foster trust value through Keeping, publicizing, and highlighting both rewarded good examples and punished violations-in multiple forums.

Relational Factors trust worthy Factors:

Creating personal connections through the following:

- Create a connection with employees based on non work things they have in common.
- Maintain a quality connection when they do occasionally run into colleagues and friends including discussing non-work topics,
- Don't divulge personal information shared in confidence.

Giving away something of value through the following:

- When appropriate, take risks in sharing their expertise with their employees,
- Be willing to offer employees their personal network of contacts when appropriate

Individual trust worthy Factors:

Disclosing their expertise and limitations through the following:

- Admit it when they do not know something rather than expose to embarrassment,

- listen to employees who know more than they do about a topic.

c- Sharing knowledge will positively affect career advancement:

- CEOs and directors of tourism companies must add knowledge sharing to the criteria of employees' selection and promotion as evaluation standard where they can advance in their careers

d- The diversity of team members, cooperation and competition among them:

CEOs and directors of tourism companies must:

- encourage teams members to share knowledge freely, to learn from one another, to shift workloads flexibly to break up unexpected bottlenecks, to help one another complete jobs and meet deadlines, and to share resources

- Form teams contain individuals with heterogeneous and balanced skills where members have a mutual understanding.

- Form teams involve colleagues drawn from other divisions of the company, perhaps, or even from outside it with a diversity of background and experience.

- assure team members face-to-face contact and close personal relationships because when the members get to know one another and they have a sense of mutual trust, they will cooperate and effectively share their knowledge.

Thirdly: supporting organizational factors through:

a-Supporting culture sociability:

CEOs and directors of tourism companies must:

-Encourage personal contact among employees where they more likely to turn to friends and colleagues.

- Develop an atmosphere of informality where employees feel comfortable when asking others for help.

- Locate work areas so they intersect with others.

- Personally set the example of sociability in the workplace e.g. praising the employees' sociability behaviors.

b- Supporting employees solidarity:

CEOs and directors of tourism companies must:

- Develop the employees' solidarity as one of the main values adopted by the company.

-Set and announce shared vision, mission, and objectives for the company as a shared interests and direct employees to pursue it quickly and effectively.

- Reinforce the employees' commitment toward the company so they will work together to act as one when times get tough.

C-supporting Social networks:

-CEOs and directors of tourism companies must

- Reinforce and encourage the development and maintaining of social networks and ties between colleagues that are important and a good relationship will enhance knowledge-sharing behavior.

- Jointly establish online community using systems such as enterprise social networking systems (ESNS) to tie the employees where they can strengthen the weak social ties among them and share knowledge more easily and faster. These systems help not only to locate the right persons of expertise but also to visualize one or more paths to those persons, also provides visual maps of network paths of different lengths between an expertise seeker and all potential expertise providers. Moreover, through reviewing the paths, seekers can decide to either contact the expertise holder directly, or pick any intermediate contacts for referral.

d- Establishing reward and Compensation systems that encourages sharing knowledge:

- CEOs and directors of tourism companies should tailor the rewards and compensation according to the specific needs of employees through providing extrinsic motivation that contains money, promotion, job security, verbal rewards as praise, and feed back , reciprocal relationship, and enhanced reputation, as well as avoidance of punishment . Also providing intrinsic motivation that involves supporting employees' self-efficacy, showing them the value of knowledge sharing behavior in accordance with their own standards, and reinforce their feeling that their behavior of sharing their knowledge is making a difference.

e- Developing organic Organizational structure:

- CEOs and directors of tourism companies should develop an organic organizational structure which is best suite to organizations operating under unstable environmental conditions as tourism companies, also is flexible, adaptable, team directed, with low levels of formalization, simple rules, policies, and procedures, horizontal specialization that refers to the number of occupational specialties included in an organization and the length of training required of each , decentralized decision making, communication flows in all directions facilitating transferring and sharing knowledge across the organization, and fluidity of tasks adaptable to changing conditions as well as it seeks to maximize employees satisfaction and development.

f- Top managers and supervisors in tourism companies support quality and level of sharing knowledge through:

- Understanding the benefits of knowledge sharing.
- Valuing the contributions of employees and care about their well-being, which, will make them, feel useful and they are making a difference
- Openly interacting with employees.
- Developing high-quality work relationships with their employees to make them feel that the company care about them.
- Developing psychological safety of the work environment so the employees will feel that they can take interpersonal risks, and they will not be punished if they make any mistakes.
- Providing employees with the required physical, emotional, or psychological resources to engage in knowledge sharing.

G-Openness:

CEOs and directors of tourism companies must reinforce the willing of the employees to communicate and interact with other employees within the company and engage in knowledge sharing process.

h. Supporting company's culture that facilitates employees to share knowledge as part of daily work activities:

- CEOs and directors of tourism companies must take the lead to shape and support a strong culture facilitates knowledge sharing among the company employees through:

Facilitating a positive work environment where managers of all levels according to (Urrabazo 2006) value and activate the following:

Trustworthiness and trust:

- Be honest and competent to be trustworthy by their employees.
- Mean what they say to employees where if they say they are going to do something they must do it
- Place greater level of trust in their employees and depend on them in achieving the important outcomes.

Empowerment:

- Empower their employees by including them in problem solving through their knowledge sharing or allowing them to put their schedules and assignments.
- Provide their empowered employees by adequate information, resources to do the job, and effective support system to learn and grow through knowledge sharing.
- shouldn't ask any employee to perform a task that he is not willing to do himself.

Consistency:

- Align the company structure, mission statement, shared values, management philosophies and all other aspects with one another that foster and encourage knowledge sharing.
- Make policies, goals and mission statements flexible to be revised and modified when a modification is required.
- Develop a discipline where every employee must understand the rules and the behaviors that are expected within the company as knowledge sharing in this case.
- Remember that they are role models so they cannot discipline their employees to share their knowledge if they did not do that action.
- prevail fairness and consistency when rewarding employees in the form of intrinsic or extrinsic rewards where employees must feel that these rewards are given out for substantial reasons.

Mentorship:

- Establish mentor program within the company where the company values such as knowledge sharing and principles can be communicated and instilled into the behaviors of the new employees through orientation programs and reinforced through the employment.
- Be sure about the convenience between the employee personal values and standards and those of the company.
- Provide mentors to new employees so they will feel that they are not alone in a new environment because they have some one to teach them the language, the rules, and the way of thinking unique to their company in addition to serving as a resource guide.
- Be responsible when selecting employees to serve as mentors to new employees where they must possess certain qualities such as being helpful, caring, flexible, dependable, motivated,

respectful, interested in professional growth, confident, knowledgeable, take initiative, have good communication skills, able to deal with conflict, and serve as good role model.

i-Realizing that co-worker find knowledge sharing favorable:

- Employee must perceive as mentioned before a cooperative intentions of his/her colleagues, which participate effectively in forming his/her, positive attitudes toward knowledge sharing.
- CEOs and directors of tourism companies must foster trust and cooperation to overcome risk and the unwillingness to share knowledge

REFERENCES

Books:

[Bandura, A. \(1997\), *Self-efficacy: The exercise of control*. New York: W. H. Freeman.](#)

Dalgaard, P. (2008), *Introductory statistics with R, Statistics and Computing Series*, Germany, (2nd edn): Springer.

Davenport, T, & Prusak, L. (1998), *Working knowledge: How organizations manage what they know*, England: Harvard Business Press.

Hair, J, Anderson, R, Tatham, R, & Black, W. (1998). *Multivariate data analysis*, (5th edn), New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Hox, J (2010), *Multilevel analysis: techniques and applications*, (2nd edn), Routledge.

O'Dell, C & Grayson, C. (1998), *If Only We Knew What We Know*, New York: The Free Press.

Robson, C. (2002), *Real World Research*, (2nd edn), Blackwell.

Saunders, M, Lewis, P, & Thornhill, A. (2009), *Research methods for business students*, London: Financial Times Prentice Hal.

Szulanski, G. (2003), *Sticky Knowledge. Barriers to Knowing in the Firm*, London: SAGE Publication.

Tarling, R. (2009), *Statistical modeling for social researchers: principles and practice*, Abingdon: Routledge.

Thompson, S. (2012), *Sampling, (3rd Edn)*, Wiley series in probability and statistics, viewed 20 July 2016, available from: <http://eu.wiley.com/WileyCDA/WileyTitle/productCd-0470402318.html#>

Tidd, J, Bessant, J, & Pavitt, K. (2005), *Managing Innovation: integrating technological, market and organizational change*, (3rd edn), John Wiley, Chichester

Articles:

- Abrams, L, Cross, R , Lesser, E , & Levin, D. (2003), 'Nurturing interpersonal trust in knowledge-sharing networks, *Academy of Management Executive*, 17(4),64-77.
- Alam, S., Abdullah, Z., Ishak, N., & Zain, Z. (2009), ' Assessing Knowledge Sharing Behaviour among Employees in SMEs: An Empirical Study', *International Business Research*, 2(2),115. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5539/ibr.v2n2p115>
- Awang, M, Kareem, O, & Ismai, R. (2014), 'Sharing is Caring. Why do we have Barriers in Knowledge Sharin', *The Online Journal of Distance Education and e-Learning*,2(2),25-33.
- Bland, J, & Altman, D, (1994), 'Regression towards the mean', *BMJ*, 308(6942),1499.
- Bock, G., & Kim, Y. (2002), ' Breaking the Myths of Rewards. *Information Resources Management Journal* ', 15(2), 14-21. <http://dx.doi.org/10.4018/irmj.2002040102>
- Bock, Zmud, Kim, & Lee. (2005), ' Behavioral Intention Formation in Knowledge Sharing: Examining the Roles of Extrinsic Motivators', *Social-Psychological Forces, and Organizational Climate. MIS Quarterly*, 29(1), 87. <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/25148669>.
- Brotherton, B. (1999), ' Towards a definitive view of the nature of hospitality and hospitality management', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, vol.11, no.4, pp.165-173.
- Carneiro, R. (2010), 'Transforming universities. In :Ehlers, U, & Schneckenberg, D. (2010), 'Changing Cultures in Higher Education. Moving Ahead to Future Learning', *Springer Berlin, Heidelberg, Germany*.
- Cheng, M, HO, J, & Lau, p. (2009), ' Knowledge sharing in academic institutions : a study of multimedia University Malaysia', *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 7(3),313 – 324.
- Cooper, C. (2006), 'Knowledge management and tourism', *Annals of Tourism Research*, vol.33, no.,pp.47–64.
- Cummings, J. (2004), 'Work Groups, Structural Diversity, and Knowledge Sharing in a Global Organization', *Management Science*, 50(3), 352-364. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1287/mnsc.1030.0134>
- Durham, C., Knight, D., & Locke, E. (1997), ' Effects of Leader Role, Team-Set Goal Difficulty, Efficacy, and Tactics on Team Effectiveness. *Organizational Behavior And Human Decision Processes*', 72(2), 203-231. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1006/obhd.1997.2739>
- Eisenberger, R., Cummings, J., Armeli, S., & Lynch, P. (1997), ' Perceived organizational support, discretionary treatment, and job satisfaction', *Journal Of Applied Psychology*, 82(5), 812-820. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1037//0021-9010.82.5.812>
- Evgeniou, T & Cartwright, P. (2005), 'Barriers to information management', *European Management Journal*, 23(3), 293-299.
- Finnegan, D, & Willcocks, L. (2006), ' Knowledge sharing issues in the introduction of a new technology', *Journal of Enterprise Information Management*, vol.19, no. 6,pp. 568 – 590.

Gaal,z , Szabo, L , Kovacs, N, & Csepregi, A. (2012), 'Middle managers' Maturity of knowledge sharing: investigation of middle managers working at medium and large sized enterprises', *Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 10(1),26-38, viewed 15 November 2015, <http://www.ejkm.com>.

Goh, S. (2002), ' Managing effective knowledge transfer: an integrative framework and some practice implications', *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 6(1), 23-30.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13673270210417664>

Golob, T. (2003), ' Structural equation modeling for travel behavior research', *Transportation Research Part B: Methodological*, 37(1), 1-25. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/s0191-2615\(01\)00046-7](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/s0191-2615(01)00046-7)

Gupta, A., & Govindarajan, V. (2000), ' Knowledge flows within multinational corporations', *Strategic Management Journal*, 21(4), 473-496. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/\(sici\)1097-0266\(200004\)21:4<473::aid-smj84>3.0.co;2-i](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/(sici)1097-0266(200004)21:4<473::aid-smj84>3.0.co;2-i)

Hall, H. (2001), ' Input-friendliness: motivating knowledge sharing across intranets', *Journal Of Information Science*, 27(3), 139-146. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1177/0165551014233653>

Hallin, C, & Marnburg, E. (2008), 'Knowledge management in the hospitality industry: A review of empirical research', *Tourism Management*, vol.29, pp.366–381.

Hamid, A, and Sulaiman, s. (2013), 'Relationship between Perceived Costs, Perceived Benefits and Knowledge Sharing Behaviour among Lecturers in Educational Institution in Malaysia', *Pertanika Journal. Soc. Sci. & Hum*, 21(3), 937- 951.

Hendriks, P. (1999), ' Why share knowledge? The influence of ICT on the motivation for knowledge sharing', *Knowledge And Process Management*, 6(2), 91-100. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/\(sici\)1099-1441\(199906\)6:2<91::aid-kpm54>3.0.co;2-m](http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/(sici)1099-1441(199906)6:2<91::aid-kpm54>3.0.co;2-m)

Herzberg, F. (2003), 'One More Time: How Do You Motivate Employees?. *Harvard Business Review*', January - Special issue, 87-96.

Hu, Meng, Horng, K, & Sun, Y. (2009), ' Hospitality teams: Knowledge sharing and service innovation performance', *Tourism management*, vol.30,pp.41-50.

van den Hooff, B., & De Ridder, J. (2004), ' Knowledge sharing in context: the influence of organizational commitment, communication climate and CMC use on knowledge sharing', *Journal Of Knowledge Management*, 8(6), 117-130. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/13673270410567675>

Kaps, I.(2011), 'Barriers in intercultural knowledge sharing', *Open Journal of Knowledge Management*, (3),6-12.

Khalil, O., & Shea, T. (2012), ' Knowledge Sharing Barriers and Effectiveness at a Higher Education Institution', *International Journal Of Knowledge Management*, 8(2), 43-64.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.4018/jkm.2012040103>

Kathiravelu, S, Kenny, N, & Abu Mansor, k. (2013), 'Factors Influencing Knowledge Sharing Behavior (KSB) among Employees of Public Services in Malaysia', *International Journal of Academic Research in Economics and Management Sciences*, 2(3), 107-119.

Kim, S., & Lee, H. (2006), 'The Impact of Organizational Context and Information Technology on Employee Knowledge-Sharing Capabilities', *Public Administration Review*, 66(3), 370-385.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6210.2006.00595.x>

Kim, T. T., & Lee, G. (2013), 'Hospitality employee knowledge-sharing behaviors in the relationship between goal orientations and service innovative behavior', *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 34, 324-337. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2013.04.009

King, C. (2002), 'Antecedent, correlates, and outcomes associated with single and three facet models of organizational commitment: A meta-analysis', *Dissertation abstracts international*, vol.63, no.5.

Lin, H. (2007), 'Knowledge sharing and firm innovation capability: an empirical study', *International Journal of Manpower*, 28(3/4), 315-332.
doi:10.1108/01437720710755272

Ling, C. (2011), 'Culture and Trust in Fostering Knowledge-Sharing', [*The Electronic Journal of Knowledge Management*, 9\(4\), 328-339.](#)

Mason, D, & Pauleen, D. (2003), 'Perceptions of knowledge management: a qualitative analysis', *Journal of Knowledge Management*, vol.7, no.4 ,pp.38-48.

Mayer, R , Davis, J, & Schoorman, F. (1995), ' An Integrative Model of Organizational Trust', [*Academy of Management Review*, 20\(3\), 709-734.](#)

McDermott, R., & O'Dell, C. (2001), 'Overcoming cultural barriers to sharing knowledge', ***Journal of Knowledge Management***, 5(1), 76-85. doi:10.1108/13673270110384428

[Messmann, G, & Mulder, R. \(2012\), 'Development of a measurement instrument for innovative work behaviour as a dynamic and context-bound construct', *Human Resource Development International*, 15\(1\), 43-59.](#)

Mishra, A. (1996), 'Organizational Responses to Crisis: The Centrality of Trust'. In Tyler, R (edn), *Trust in Organisations*, 261-287, Sage, Thousand Oaks, CA.

Mohamed, M, Stankosky, M, & Murray, A. (2004), 'Applying knowledge management principles to enhance cross-functional team performance', *Journal of Knowledge Management*, vol.8, no.3, pp. 127 – 142.

Mohammadi, M. (2014), 'The Main factors Influencing Knowledge sharing in private Universities of Malaysia', *Journal of Contemporary Research in Business*, 6(3), 116-130.

[Nonaka, I. \(1994\), 'Dynamic Theory of Organizational Knowledge Creation', *Organization Science*, 5\(1\), 14-37.](#)

[Obrenovic, B, & Qin, Y. \(2014\), 'Understanding the concept of individual level knowledge sharing: A review of critical success factors', *Information and Knowledge Management*, 4\(4\), 110-120.](#)

[Olsson, U, Foss, T, Troy, S, Howell, R. \(2000\), 'The performance of ML, GLS, and WLS estimation in structural equation modeling under conditions of misspecification, and non normality', *Structural equation modeling. A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 7, 557-559.](#)

[Porzse, G, Takacs, S, Csedo, Z, Berta, Z, Sara, Z, & Fejes, J. \(2012\), 'The impact of creative organizational climate on the innovation activity of medical devices manufacturing firms in Hungary', *European Journal of Business and Management*, 14\(13\), 1-11.](#)

[Riege, A. \(2005\), 'Three-dozen knowledge-sharing barriers managers must consider', *Journal of Knowledge Management*, 9\(3\), 18-35.](#)

[Sharatt, M & Usoro, A. \(2003\), 'Understanding Knowledge-Sharing in Online Communities of Practice', *Electronic Journal on Knowledge Management*, 1\(2\), 187-196.](#)

[THE, P, & Yong, C. \(2011\), 'Knowledge sharing in is personnel: Organizational behavior prospective', *Journal of Computer Information Systems*, January, 11-20.](#)

[Tiwana, A, & Bush, A. \(2005\), 'Continuance in expertise-sharing networks: A social perspective', *IEEE Transactions on Engineering Management*, 52\(1\), 85-101.](#)

[Usoro, A, Sharratt, M, Tsui, E, Shekhar, S. \(2007\), 'Trust as an antecedent to knowledge sharing in virtual communities of practice', *Knowledge Management Research & Practice*, 5\(3\), 199-212.](#)

[Urrabazo, C. \(2006\), 'Management's role in shaping organizational culture', *Journal of Nursing Management*, 14, 88-194.](#)

[Walz, S, & Niehoff, B. \(2000\), 'Organizational citizenship behaviors: Their relationship to organizational effectiveness', *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 24\(3\), 301-319.](#)

[Weidenfeld, A, Williams, M, & Butler, R. \(2010\), 'Knowledge transfer and innovation among attractions', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 37\(3\), 604-626.](#)

[Yoo, W, Suh, K & Lee, M. \(2002\), 'Exploring Factors Enhancing Member Participation in Virtual Communities', *Journal of Global Information Management*, 10\(3\), 55-71.](#)

[Yiu, M., & Law, R. \(2012\), 'Factors influencing knowledge sharing behavior: A social-psychological view in tourism', *Service Science*, 3\(2\), 11-31.](#)

Conferences' proceedings

Alahdy, S, Sawal, M, Idris, A, and Azmi, N. (2011). Knowledge Sharing Behavior and Individual Factors: A Relationship study in the i-Class Environment. In: *proceedings of the International Conference on Management and Artificial Intelligence*. [online] available at: https://www.google.com.eg/?gws_rd=ssl#q=Knowledge+Sharing+Behavior+and+Individual+Factors:+A+Relationship+study+in+the+i-Class+Environment%27 [accessed 10 JAN. 2016]

Chung, L. (2001). *The Role of Management in Knowledge Transfer*. In: the Third Asian Pacific Interdisciplinary Research in Accounting Conference Adelaide. South Australia, Australia.

Kim, T, & Joh, H. (2005). **Key barriers and their strategic responses to activate knowledge sharing in construction organizations**. In: the 1st Annual ICCEM International conference on construction Engineering and management. Seoul. Korea.

Van de Wijngaert, L. (2010). A multi-theory approach towards the adoption, use and effects of IT services: The case channel choice in an e-Government setting. In: **the Professional Communication Conference (IPCC), IEEE International**. Enschede, Netherlands.

Theses

Shahid, A, & Alamgir, R. (2011). **ICT enabled knowledge sharing-impact of ict on knowledge sharing barriers: The case of Avnade , MS**. Viewed 20 April 2016:
https://scholar.google.com.eg/scholar?q=Shahid+and+Alamgir+%282011%29&btnG=&hl=en&as_sdt=0%2C5

Governmental Publication

Santos, V, Goldman, A, & Souza (2012), **Fostering inter-team knowledge sharing effectiveness in agile software development, Technical Report: RT-MAC-2012-02**. [online] available at: Institute of Mathematics and Statistics, University of São Paulo website:
http://ccsl.ime.usp.br/agilcoop/files/technical-report-santosgoldman-souza_2012.pdf

THE ROLE OF PHOTOGRAPHIC TOURISM IN CONSTRUCTION OF AN EGYPT'S IMAGE AS A TOURIST DESTINATION

Rania Magdy Orabi

The High Institute Of Tourism & Hotels In Alexandria (King Marriott Academy),
Egypt

Abstract

Recently, Photography has become one of the most essential components that should consider before preparation for the trip. Most visitors prefer to take a set of the photo during their trips to document their tourist experience and transfer it through different social media. This phenomenon contributed to the emergence new term called "Visitor - Employed Photography" or "Volunteer - Employed Photography" (VEP). It is a technique which enables the visitor to build a visual database about the tourist destination through a set of photos. Therefore, the photos have become play a vital role in the construction of a Tourist Destination image and the destination-choice process. This paper focused on study and analysis set of photos captured by tourists during their tours in Egypt. In this context, This study used 3,600 photos posted on Flickr and Instagram for the period from January to December 2017, From a total of 34,200 images labelled Egypt in several languages. In order to determine the perceived image of Egypt as a tourist destination

Keywords: Photographic Tourism; Visitor-Employed Photography; Tourist destination image; Cliché photo

Introduction:

Photography is one of the main pillars of Online tourism marketing. Especially with technological innovations in the field of cameras, optics and mobiles, all of that contributed to make photography an integral part of the tourist experience (Gogoi, 2014). There is no doubt that the Emergence and Evolution of Social Networking Sites at the Beginning of the 21st Century like Facebook, Twitter, Flickr and Whatsapp in conjunction with the appearance of selfie

phenomenon have also contributed to popularize the concept of 'Photographic Tourism' among the general people (Lo et al., 2011; Gogoi, 2014; Fatanti & Suyadnya, 2015). Since that time, Many researchers have focused on analyzing the relationship between photography and tourism (Garrod, 2008; Donaire et al., 2014). In order to understand the crucial role of photographic tourism in constructing the image of a tourist destination (Hunter, 2008; Tudor, 2013).

Literature review:

1- Photographic Tourism

Definitely, The digital revolution has affected tourist behaviour during the last decade, particularly after the appearance of digital cameras which led to a notable increase in the number of photos. It is mainly due to tourists' behaviour that has adopted the habit of photo sharing as a social event on different social networking platforms (Zeng & Gerritsen, 2014). Most young adults are obsessed with social networking platforms besides the widespread use of "Selfie photo" had led to emerging new term called "Photographic Tourism" (Garrod, 2008; Domšić, 2009; Donaire et al., 2014; Zeng & Gerritsen, 2014).

Gogoi (2014: 111) defined Photographic tourism as “*A form of special interest tourism, in which tourist visits a particular place with the primary aim of photographing subjects that are unique to him, The scope of photography may range from landscapes, portraits, architectures, culture, food and wildlife to even macro subjects*”.

The definition noted above underline two important features of photographic tourism term, the first; Shed light on the main objective behind visiting a particular place, the second; Determine the most unique places (Gogoi, 2014). Both of them assumed that a tourist will not visit a destination only to photograph available places. But often visitors prefer to visit unique attractions in order to capture a set of photos to show the beautiful details of the destination and attract the admiration of all (Donaire et al., 2014; Gogoi, 2014).

The power of the concept of photographic tourism lies in their ability to show the invisible things, shed light on the unnoticed places and convert the photo to a tangible real world (Tarascio, 2015). Many marketers depended on photography as a good marketing tool in the tourism field to convey a message to the viewers efficiently and play a critical role in the tourist decision-making process. Therefore, the photograph has become the only marketing language understood in all over the world (Gali & Donaire, 2015). Basically, the visitors prefer to visit a destination which they saw it in the brochures, then they take the decision to visit it to capture a set of unique photos for themselves (Donaire et al., 2014).

Tussyadiah (2010) highlighted the nature of a complex relationship between tourism and photography through three basic stages before, during and after travelling. Before travelling, tourists use pictures to collect information about a tourist destination. While travelling, tourists capture photos in order to create their own memories. As soon as they return to their own homes, they are sharing personal photographs with family and friends to participate in their memories. Then, they uploading their photographs on social media websites in order to exchange information about the tourist experience (Garlick, 2002; Fatanti & Suyadnya, 2015; Tarascio, 2015).

Jenkins (2003) presents another view about the relationship between tourism and photography called the circle of representations. Many tourist destinations use photographs on their brochures to promote their tourism products and attract tourists (Coghlan & Prideaux, 2008). In this context, Tourists also use photographs as a crucial tool for a comparison between tourist destinations in order to determine an optimal destination and take travel decision-making (Dwityas & Briandana, 2017; Kaewnopparat, 2017).

On the other hand, Human (1998) claimed that the relationship between photography and tourism as ambivalent. Although, Many tourist destinations have a strong identity full of history, culture and natural attractions, However, photography selectively extracts from these attractions (Feighery, 2009). This distorts the identity of place and people's perception of tourism destination becomes very limited as a result of stereotypes of tourist photographs are associated with particular places (Jenkins, 2003; Domšić, 2009; Virdee, 2017).

According to the noted above about the nature relationship between Tourism and Photography can abbreviate under three main points as shown in the following: (Gogoi, 2014).

- Photography as an integral part of the tourist experience.
- Photography as a mean for helping to take tourists' decision.
- Photography as a tool for creating Tourism Destination Image.

Thus, the relationship between tourism and photography can be measured by looking at the forecasted expenditure on photographic equipment. According to Palmer and Lester study (2005), the Official Statistics indicated that in the UK £2,366 m were spent on photography equipment in 2003, and a large part of this demand on photographic equipment is related to tourism.

Most previous studies highlighted the main motivations behind taking some photographs during the trip. According to Markwell's study (1997) referred to 35% sample of photographs were taken to capture the most scenic landscapes, while 42% sample of photographs according to Griffone and Weiler's study (1997). On the other hand, 24% of Family and friends are capturing their photographs to produce personal narratives and memories (Markwell, 1997) and 37% according to Griffone and Weiler's study (1997). Furthermore, Markwell (1997) has shown that photography helps to shape social interactions between tourists on the tour group in order to form a group identity (Coghlan & Prieaux, 2008).

2- Visitor-Employed Photography (VEP)

Several authors have focused on the features of photographic tourism in the most literature studies and described it as an activity depends on tourists gathering at specific places in order to capture the same photographs (Palmer and Lester, 2005). While other researchers claimed that there are two kinds of photographic tourist one of them as an active amateur or as a performer. Garlick (2002) presented another view that photographic tourism can be viewed as creative work, whereas, Albers and James (1988) emphasized that tourists re-produce pictures they have seen during their trips. In this context, Gogoi (2014:111) defined photographic tourist as "*a person who travels with the prime objective of photographing something unique*".

In fact, Most of the photographic tourism studies relied heavily on the visitor employed photography (VEP) technique, whereby the researcher depends on a set of photographs captured

by tourists during their trip (Gou & Shibata, 2017). Initially, The mainstream has been to use the photos taken by professional photographers for the purposes of promoting the destination, rather than photographs taken by the tourists themselves (Balomenou & Garrod, 2014). This technique allows tourist to capture a set of snapshots in order to show and present their personal view about the tourist destination. Since then, the (VEP) technique has become a tool for researchers to understand the perceived image of a tourist destination (Gou & Shibata, 2017).

Even today, There are various concepts associated with visitor-employed photograph concept which known also as volunteer-employed photography (e.g. Garrod, 2014), self-directed photography (e.g. Dakin, 2003) and resident-employed photography (e.g. Stedman et al., 2004) The concept differs depending upon the case in which it is applied. But in all cases, the technique includes the use of photography by people volunteering to provide a set of photographs to researchers. According to this paper, The Appropriate term to apply is ‘visitor- employed photography’ because it employs photographs that have been taken by tourists themselves (Garrod, 2007)

Visitor-employed photography (VEP) is a data collection technique based on photographs that were taken by visitors during the trip (Gali & Donaire, 2015). On the other hand, Many researchers depended on distributing cameras to participants to capture particular scenes which are appropriate to the nature of the study (MacKay & Couldwell, 2004). But after the emergence and evolution of camera phones and digital cameras, This process has become more accessible as a scientific research tool (MacKay & Couldwell, 2004). This visual data can be analyzed by using different quantitative and qualitative methods in order to apply the research objectives (Balomenou & Garrod, 2014).

More recently, This technique has become widely spread in many literatures to analyze the perceived image of a tourist destination (Gou & Shibata, 2017). Therefore, This study seeks to clarify the possibility of analyzing a set of photographs of Egypt as a tourist destination that shared on the social networks like Flickr and Instagram as a most popular photo sharing applications to understand how tourist images are formed and reproduced.

3-Tourist destination image:

Globally, Most tourism destinations depend on their tourism image as a standard for their success in the tourist market (Lai & Li, 2015). Therefore, Destination image has received much attention in many tourism studies that have mainly shed light on the analysis of perceived image by the tourist (Garrod, 2008). In a review of literature studies published through 1973-2000 estimated about 143 articles in this field (Beerli & Martin, 2004). Hunt (1975) was the first researcher who emphasized the importance of the “Destination Image” to increase tourism demand to certain destinations.

Tourist destination image has become more influential in the tourists’ future intentions to visit the destination. Tourists are commonly based on the tourist destination image which has formed by marketers when selecting their favourite destination (Coshall, 2000). They also depend on other different sources. For instance, past experiences, word of mouth and pictorial elements that have photographed by other tourists (Bigne, 2001; Kim & Richardson, 2003). For this reason, Tourism managers and DMOs realized the significance of the destination image’s concept as an important factor in destination Marketing (Stepchenkova & Li, 2012).

In marketing studies, the Destination image has been defined as “consumer perception of a product, institution, brand, company or person, which may or may not correspond to reality” (Echtner & Ritchie, 2003: 43; Andreu et al., 2000: 49). In terms of tourism studies, The tourist destination image still a vague concept because, there are many researchers gave various meanings about the term of the destination image (Alcañiz et al., 2003; Tudor, 2013) Thus, not surprisingly, the definition remains ill-defined and complex as shown in the following table.

Table.1 Definitions of the destination image

Author/s	Definition
60's	
(Reynolds, 1965a:70)	<i>“An image is actually the result of a more complex process. It is the mental construct developed by the consumer on the basis of a few selected impressions among the flood of total impressions; it comes into being through a creative process in which these selected impressions are elaborated, embellished, and ordered”.</i>
70's	
(Hunt, 1975:2)	<i>“Perceptions held by potential visitors about an area”.</i>
Lawson and Baud-Bovy (1977: 2)	<i>“An expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudices, imaginations and emotional thoughts an individual has a specific place”.</i>
(Crompton, 1979:19)	<i>“Sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination”.</i>
80's	
Assael (1984: 3)	<i>“Total perception of the destination that is formed by processing information from various sources over time”.</i>
(Phelps, 1986:169)	<i>“Perceptions or impressions of a place”.</i>
(Gartner and Hunt, 1987:16)	<i>“Impressions that a person holds about a state in which they do not reside”.</i>
(Gartner, 1989:17)	<i>“A complex combination of various products and associated attributes”.</i>
(Calantone, Di Benedetto, Hakam, and Bojanic, 1989: 26)	<i>“Perceptions of potential tourist destinations”.</i>
90's	
Chon (1990: 3)	<i>“Result of the interaction of a person's beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about a destination”.</i>
(Reilly, 1990:22)	<i>“Not individual traits...but the total impression an entity makes”.</i>
(Fakeye and Crompton, 1991:11)	<i>“Representation of an area into the potential tourist's mind”.</i>
(Echtner and Ritchie, 1991:3)	<i>“Composed of perceptions of individual attributes (such as climate, accommodation facilities, and friendliness of the people) as well as more holistic impressions (mental pictures or imagery) of the place”.</i>
Dadgostar and Isotalo (1992: 35)	<i>“Overall impression or attitude that an individual acquires of a place”.</i>
Milman and Pizam (1995: 23)	<i>“Visual or mental Impression Of a place, a product, Or an experience Held by the general public”.</i>
Font (1997:124)	<i>“Set of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that the public holds of the named product, and to some extent, it is part of the product”.</i>
(Mackay and Fesenmaier, 1997: 538)	<i>“A destination's image is a composite of various products (attractions) and attributes woven into a total impression”.</i>
Balogue and McCleary (1999:	<i>“An individual's mental representation of knowledge, feelings, and global</i>

538)	<i>impressions about a destination</i> ".
00's	
Coshall (2000: 86)	<i>"The individual's perceptions of the characteristics of destinations"</i> .
Murphy, Pritchard and Smith (2000: 44)	<i>"A sum of associations and pieces of information connected to a destination, which would include multiple components of the destination and personal perception"</i> .
Tapachai and waryszak (2000: 38)	<i>"Perceptions or impressions of a destination held by tourists with respect to the expected benefits or consumption values"</i> .
(Bigné, Sánchez and Sánchez, 2001: 608)	<i>"The image of a destination consists, therefore, of the subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist"</i> .
(Echtner and Ritchie, 2003:38)	<i>"Destination image consists of functional characteristics, concerning the more tangible aspects of the destination, and psychological characteristics, concerning the more intangible aspects"</i> .
Kim and Richardson (2003: 217)	<i>"Totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated towards a place over time"</i> .
(Alcañiz, García, and Blas, 2009:716)	<i>"It consists of all that the destination evokes in the individual; any idea, belief, feeling or attitude that tourists associate with the place"</i> .

Source: Author.

Most academic studies had interested in analyzing the tourist destination image and how it's forming. Especially, The significance of the visual representation of destinations and their role in creating the tourist image (Baloglu, & McCleary, 1999; Garrod, 2009). The visual representation of the destination seeks to convert the unknown into reality. In the past, this technique depending on a set of photographs which have captured by professional photographers as pictorial elements using in tourism marketing. But now, it's depending on a set of photographs that are taken by tourists themselves as a part of their tourism experience (Gali & Donaire, 2015).

Gunn (1989) has developed the image formation process through a distinction between two different phases of the image formation process: organic and induced images. He noted to the Organic image as an image that is created by non-commercial sources such as, different advertising in the mass media and friends' and family' experiences (Matlovičová & Kolesárová, 2012). In contrast, He indicated to induce image as an image generated by marketers. For instance, different forms of Advertisement and information that are obtained from travel agents and tour operators that they are seeking to attract tourists to certain destinations (Matlovičová & Kolesárová, 2012).

Mostly, The visitor prefers to see photos and personal experiences of other tourists that are sharing their own photos on the most famous photo-sharing platforms like Flickr, Instagram, Picasa and others to identify the tourist destination (Fatanti & Suyadnya, 2015; Dwityas & Briandana, 2017). In this regards, The tourist destination image must correspond closely to the actual characteristics of the place. Otherwise, The Tourists will not be satisfied thus they will not recommend the destination to others, and will not revisit the destination in the future (Fatanti & Suyadnya, 2015).

Urry (1990) referred to the Circle Representations of tourism photographs as shown in Figure 1, whereby tourists act as consumers of images which captured by other tourists and as producers of the images that will be consumed by potential tourists in the future. For that reason, The tourist has become a part of the mechanism of tourist image formation of destination (Gali & Donaire, 2015; Tarascio, G. 2015).

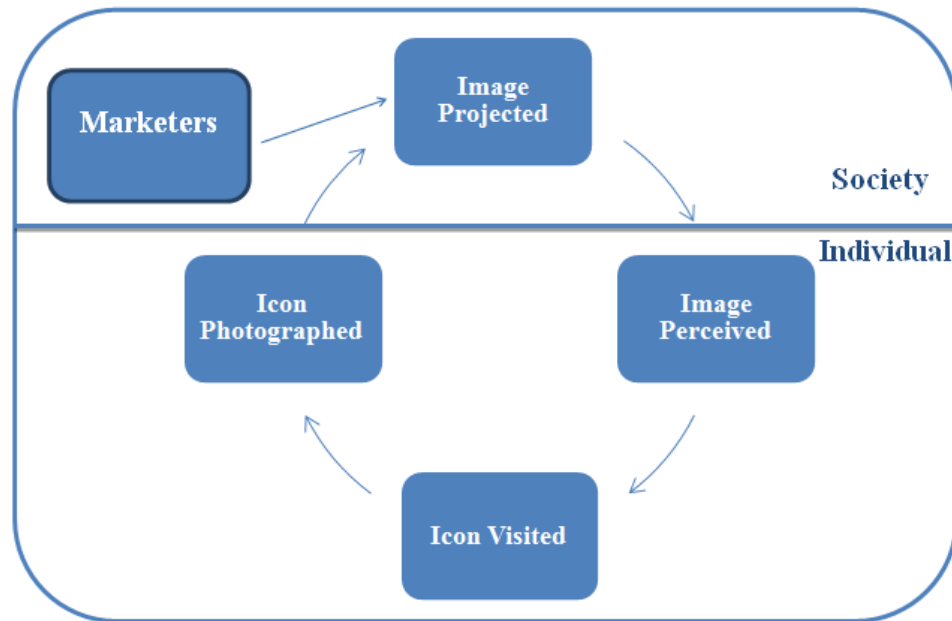


Figure.1: Tthe Circle Representations of Photographic Tourism

The previous figure has explained the concept of the circle representations of photographic tourism through shedding light on the nature of the relationship between the phenomenon of consumption and production of photographs by tourists. This process shows the significant role of the tourists as marketers for their tourist experience or as consumers to set of photos belong to other tourists.

This study investigates the photographs that have taken by tourists as producers to tourist photos in order to determine their perceived image of Egypt as a tourist destination. Specifically, This study aims to analyze a huge number of photographs shared by tourists on the most fame photo-sharing platforms like Flickr and Instagram. So, This study has depended on a new method to analyze the content called "a visual content analysis".

4. Study method:

This study was based on tourist photographs that have captured by tourists during their tour in Egypt in order to analyze the perceived image of Egypt as a tourist destination. Therefore, This study seeks to analyze a set of photographs of Egypt as a tourist destination such as religious and

Archeological sites, Beaches and landscapes which posted on Flickr and Instagram. The photos often have their own description below the photo and it also allows for the public and members to see and comment on it.

The current methodology followed three main stages:

1. Selecting a representative sample of photographs of Egypt that are taken by tourists and posted it on Flickr and Instagram.
2. Classifying these Photos into three items.
3. Obtaining statistical results for each item.

This study used 3.600 photos posted on Flickr and Instagram for the period from January to December 2017, From a total of 34,200 images labelled “مصر” (by Arabic speakers), “Egypt” (by English speakers), “Ägypten” (by German speakers), “Єгипет” (by Ukrainian speakers), "埃及" (by Chinese speakers), "Egitto" (by Italian speakers), and "מצרים" (by Hebrew speakers). This research selected 300 images randomly per month during 2017, labelled "Egypt" in different languages that noted above. In fact, This study determined the Selected languages according to data "The most important tourist markets" released by the Ministry of tourism in Egypt 2017.

Usually, When the researchers use the Visitor-Employed Photography technique (VEP) in their researches, They distribute cameras to participants (visitors) to take a set of photos reflecting their own perceived image of the destination. Nevertheless, This research used the Online-Visitor Employed Photography technique (OVEP) to build a visual database to determine the tourist destination image of Egypt.

According to (OVEP) technique, This research depended on specify keywords that noted above for gathering a visual database from the tourists that have posted it on Flickr and Instagram platforms. This method characterized by two features: Firstly, The cost is low. Secondly, a huge number of photos that have available online. Therefore, The methodology of the current study based on analyzing the tourist destination image through audience responses to photos, such as comments and likes. In particular, this study used photos that contain tangible tourist objects in the destination like famous tourist places To avoid the error in the selection of photos. Also, The study excluded the photos that not taken by tourists, depending on the information that has provided by Flickr and Instagram users on their personal account To distinguish between the tourists and the local people.

This Study Classified The Images Into Three Categories As Shown As Follows:

1. Types of tourists, according to nationality: Germany, Ukraine, Israel, China, UK, USA, Italia and Arab countries.
2. Types of tourism: Religious tourism, Heritage tourism, Cultural tourism, Recreation tourism, Culinary tourism and Medical tourism.

3. What are the most tourist landscapes photographed by Tourists?
4. What are the most cliché photos photographed by Tourists?
5. The Presence of people in photographs, the study divided the people into four groups: Tourists, local residents, both of them or none.

In this regard, The research determined a set of photos for each tourist group, according to the distribution of tourist nationalities who visited Egypt in 2017. Data processing in this study also focused on descriptive statistics to obtain percentages for each category mentioned earlier. Data analysis was conducted using (OVEP) technique, whereby this method has produced reliable results by many different authors, such as Pritchard and Morgan (1995), Galı and Donaire (2005), Govers and Go (2005) and Choi, Letho, and Morrison (2007).

As seen in the following table that is showing the top ten tourist markets in Egypt 2017. Germany hit a record high of tourist arrivals in Egypt with a total of 1.225.000 tourists. Over the five last years, Russia left the competition in the ranking of the Top ten tourist markets in Egypt after the Russian plane bombing above the northern Sinai in 2015.

Table. 2: Top ten tourist markets in Egypt 2017

Countries	Tourist arrivals
Germany	1.225.000
Ukraine	797.000
Saud of Arabia	669.000
Sudan	347.000
Libya	336.000
UK	316.000
China	287.000
Italy	255.000
Israel	234.000
USA	226.000
Total	4.692.000

Source: (The Egyptian Ministry of Tourism, 2018)

According to data released by The Egyptian Ministry of Tourism, Arab countries have ranked the third, fourth and fifth in the number of tourist arrivals to Egypt 2017. Ukraine remains 2nd in terms of arrivals, While The United Kingdom moved down to 6th position, China climbed a place to 7th position, Italy climbed to 8th position, Isreal occupied the 9th place and The USA moved down to the last place in the ranking.

5- Egypt's Image as a global tourist destination

In order to determine Egypt's Image as a tourist destination for each tourist market. The methodology of the current study based on analyzing the photos that are taken by tourists and shared them on Flickr and Instagram platforms. These photos supported by a set of information which helps in determining the nationality of tourists and the perceived image of Egypt as a tourist destination for each nationality as mentioned in the table (3).

Table. 3: Egypt’s Image as a Tourist Destination

Countries	Frequency	Tourist Destination Image	%
Germany	389/450	Recreation tourism	86%
Arab countries	392/450	Urban and Religion tourism	87%
Ukraine	387/450	Culture tourism	86%
Israel	415/450	Recreation tourism	92%
UK	370/450	Culture tourism	82%
USA	305/450	Culture tourism	84%
China	275/450	Culture tourism	76%
Italy	345/450	Culture tourism	95%
Total	2878/3600		

Source : (The Egyptian Cabinet’s Information and Decision Support Center (IDSC), 2018)

From the photo analysis, we observe that German tourists preferred The pattern of Recreational tourism through visiting Red Sea destinations such as Sharm El Sheikh, Hurghada, Marsa Alam and Taba. Out of the 389 photos analyzed, There are 450 photos belong to Recreational tourism pattern with a percentage of (86%). Similarly, Israeli tourists prefer to visit Taba destination due to the geographical proximity in order to participate in many recreational activities with a percentage of (92%).

On the other hand, The Arab tourists prefer Urban tourism through visiting the old areas of Cairo, For Example, Al-Muizz El-Din Allah Street, Khan El-Khalili and Old Cairo (Coptic Cairo). Urban Tourism has shown in 392 photos Out of the 450 photos belong to Arab tourists (87%). Besides, The other countries prefer to visit various cultural and archaeological sites like the pyramids, Egyptian Museum, Ibn Tulun Mosque and etc. As shown in the previous table.

At the end of the visual analysis of photos, The most photographed destinations in Egypt are Cultural places, which represented in 1682 from 3600 photos (47%), Recreational destinations are represented (22%), followed by urban destinations (11%) and all other tourist destinations which belong to religion and Nature tourism are represented (20%).

6- The Most Photographed Tourist Destinations in Egypt

To determine which are the most photographed tourist destinations in Egypt in 2017, we used the visual analysis method of many photos taken by tourists from different nationalities who mentioned in the previous table. In terms of Tourist Attractions, we classified them according to the pattern of tourism and their geographical distribution in the cities in order to know which one of them has most Repetitive photos.

Table. 4: The Most Photographed Culture Destinations

Culture destinations		
Tourist destination	Frequency	Valid per cent
Cairo		
Sphinx and Pyramids of Giza	344	20%
Egyptian Museum	90	5%
Mohamed Ali Citadel	23	1%
Bab Zuweila	17	1%
Sharm el-Sheikh		

Salah El Din Castle on Pharaoh's Island	31	2%
Hurghada		
Bedouin Dinner Tours	10	1%
Luxor		
Luxor's Karnak Temple	143	7%
Valley of the Kings	32	2%
Luxor Temple	17	1%
Luxor Museum	34	2%
Medinet Habu	18	1%
Temple of Deir al-Bahri	130	7%
Abu Simbel	118	7%
Tombs of the Nobles	10	1%
Colossi of Memnon	91	5%
Valley of the Queens	32	2%
Mummification Museum	12	1%
Aswan		
Nubia Museum	31	2%
Philae Temple	72	4%
Unfinished Obelisk	33	2%
Aswan High Dam	16	1%
Tombs of the Nobles	10	1%
Kalabsha	34	2%
Nubian village	102	6%
Siwa Oasis		
Mud-Brick Houses "Shali"	31	2%
Temple of the Oracle of Amun	32	2%
Gebel al-Mawta	45	3%
Tomb of Mesu-Isis	13	1%
House of Siwa Museum	10	1%
Alexandria		
Bibliotheca Alexandrina	31	2%
Qaitbey Citadel	38	2%
Kom el-Dikka	10	1%
Catacombs of Kom El-Shuqqafa	12	1%
Pompey's Pillar	10	1%
Total	1682	100%

Source: Author

The most photographed places in Egypt are the Pyramids of Giza (344 photos) with a percentage of (20%). on the second place Luxor's Karnak Temple (8%), Temple of Deir al-Bahri and Abu Simbel (7%) for both of them, Nubian village (6%), followed by Egyptian Museum and Colossi of Memnon (5%).

It is interesting that most of the tourists were careful to take cliché photos at extreme angles to get an unusual shot depending on a set of previous photos which taken by other tourists in the Same angles.



Figure. 2 Cliché photo called "Kissing The Sphinx"



Figure. 3 Cliché photo called "Holding The Pyramids Of Giza"
Figure. 4 Cliché photo

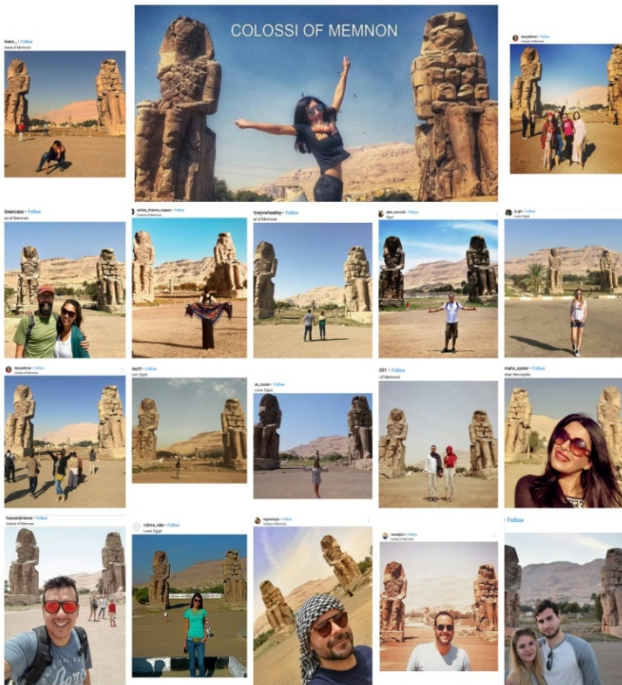
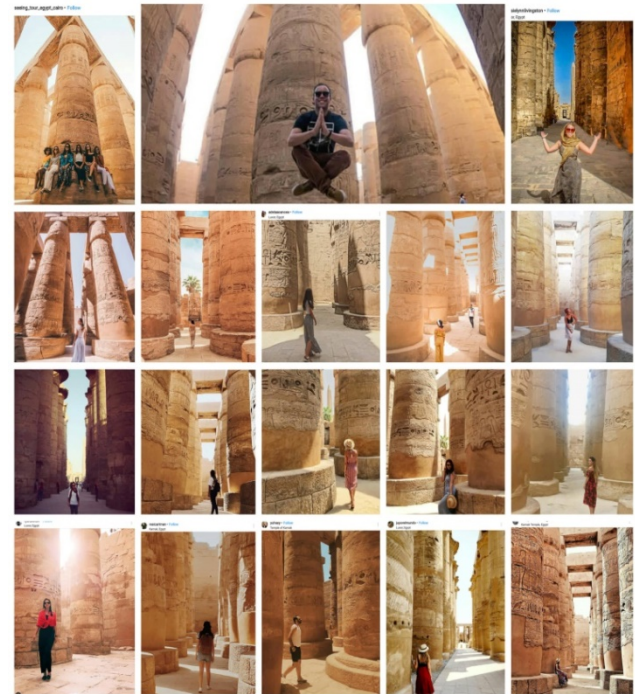


Figure. 5 Cliché photo called "Colossi Of Memnon"



"The Hall Of Columns (Luxor's Karnak)"

The previous photos showed that Most of the foreign tourists in Egypt seeking to take Cliché photos. For example, Cliché photo called "kissing the Sphinx", "Holding the Pyramids of Giza", "The Hall of Columns (Luxor's Karnak)", and "Colossi of Memnon".

Table. 5: The Most Photographed Recreational Destinations

Recreation destinations		
Tourist destination	Frequency	Valid per cent
Cairo		
Al-Azhar Park	31	4%
Khan el-Khalili and Al-Muizz El-Din Allah Street	166	21%
Sharm el-Sheikh		
Naama Bay	75	9%
Jolanda Reef	41	5%
Ras Um Sid Beach and Reef	32	4%
Shark's Bay	19	2%
Sharm Old Market	32	4%
Safari (Sahara)	75	9%
Wishwashi Canyon (Taba)	13	2%
Taba		
Fjord Bay	105	13%
Hurghada		
Giftun Islands	58	8%
Abu Nuhas Shipwreck Sites	20	2%
Luxor		
Banana Island	15	2%
Aswan		
Souq Area	33	4%
Siwa Oasis		
Great Sand Sea Safari	64	8%
Taghaghien Touristic Island	25	3%
Total	804	100%

Source: Author

According to Previous table, Khan El-Khalili and Al-Muizz El-Din Allah Street have ranked at the top of the table as the most photographed recreational places in Egypt with a percentage of (21%), Fjord Bay (Taba) with a percentage of (13%), followed by Safari (Sharm el Sheikh) with a percentage of (9%).

Figure. 6 Cliché photo called



Figure. 7 Cliché photo called



“Khan el Khalili Bazaar”

“Fjord Bay”

Egyptian Handicrafts are popular items purchased by foreign tourists as souvenirs which brings a unique addition to their tourism experience. One of the most popular tourist markets in Egypt is “Khan El Khalili Bazaar” which visiting by many tourists to buy touristy Handicrafts and take cliché photos as shown in the previous Figure.6. The most photographed tourist attraction in Taba is The Fjord Bay with a percentage of (13%) particularly at the top of the mountain as shown in Figure 7.

Table. 6: The Most Photographed Urban & Religion Destinations

Religion Destinations		
Tourist destination	Frequency	Valid per cent
Cairo		
Al-Azhar Mosque	42	11%
Hanging Church	72	18%
Sultan Hassan Mosque	32	8%
Ibn Tulun Mosque	38	9%
Mosque of Al-Hakim	28	8%
Sharm el-Sheikh		
St. Catherine's Monastery	35	9%
El Sahaba Mosque	95	24%
Urban destinations		
Old Cairo streets	50	13%
Total	392	100%

Source: Author

As mentioned above, It is interesting that more than three-quarters of the photos relate to the religion destinations, While a quarter is related to non-specific urban destinations. There are 95 photos refer to the gate of the El Sahaba Mosque in Sharm El Sheikh city and 72 photos at the entrance of hanging Church in old Cairo as shown in figures (7 & 8).

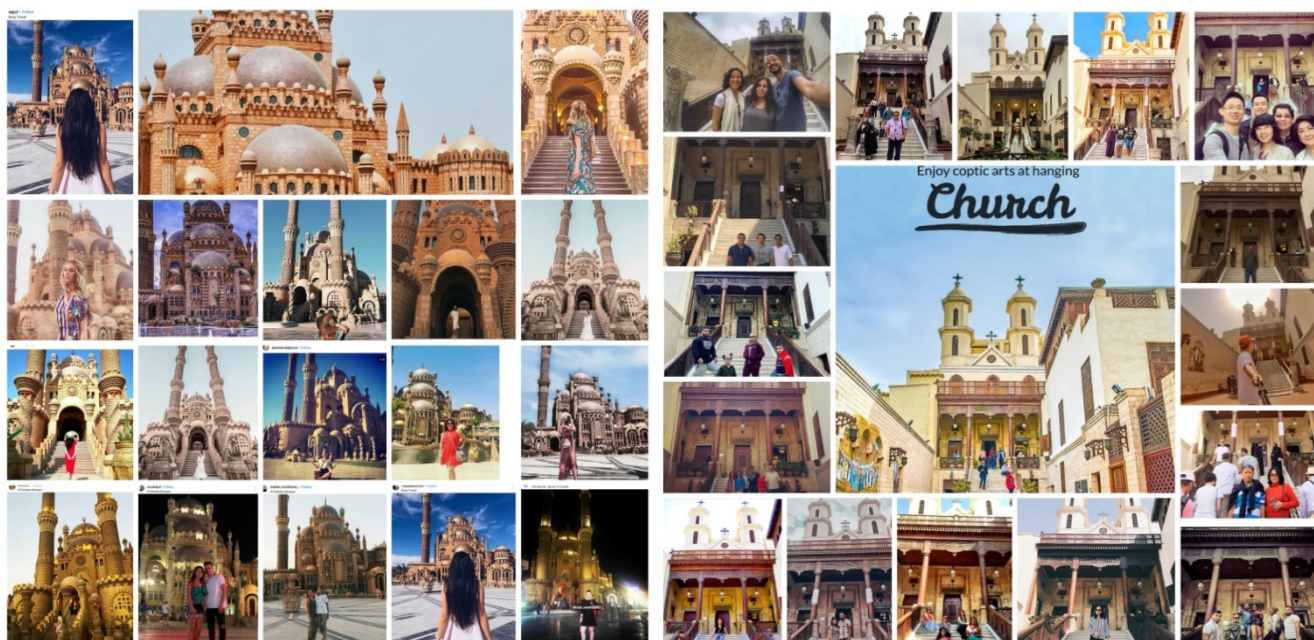


Figure.8 Cliché photo called
“At the Gate of El Sahaba Mosque”

Most of the photos that were shown above focused on the tourist destination more than people. We observed that most of the tourists when they are capturing their photos, they do not rely on showing their faces in order to focus on the Touristic value of destination as shown above in figure. 8.

Figure.9 Cliché photo called
“At the Entrance of Hanging Church”

7- The Rate of People Present in Photographs:

Several studies have focused on the analysis of the people present in photographs and classified them into subcategories (Nikjoo & Bakhshi, 2019). In this study, we divided the photographs into four subgroups: Tourists, local residents, both of them or none as shown in the following Figure. 10.

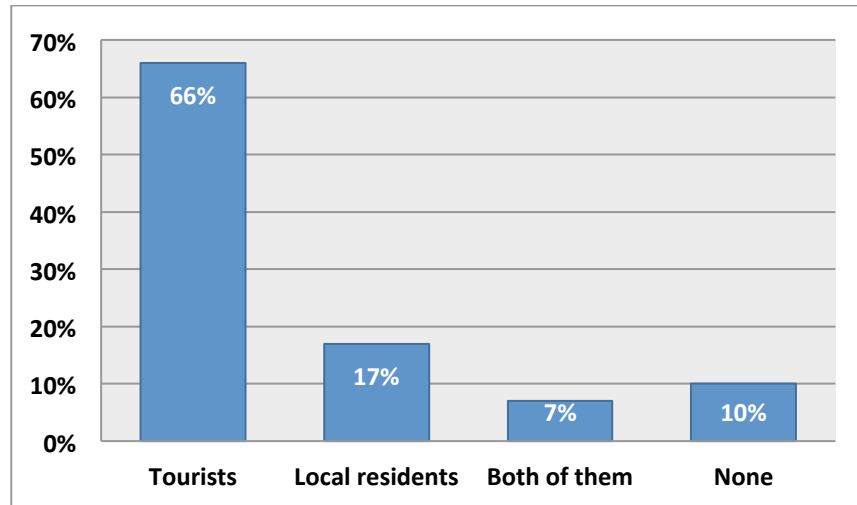


Figure.10 The Rate of People Presence In Photographs

Based on previous classified categories, Tourists are present in 2398 photos (66%) in order to document their own tourism experience, followed by the local people are represented in (17%) of all photos, especially in heritage areas, while (7%) of all photos included tourists and local residents, In only (10%) of all photos have focused to show the tourist destination only.

Conclusions:

This study highlighted the importance of the visual representation of places and its role in creating the tourist destination image which becomes like a standard to measure their global success. Recently, Tourism and photography have become two sides of the same coin, especially after the appearance of digital cameras and smartphone, which led to a notable increase in the number of Digital photos in tourist destinations. It is mainly due to tourists' behavior which has adopted the habit of sharing their private photos online with their own small community to become a social event on social networking sites. In facts, the widespread use of photos on the social networks had led to an emerging new term called “Photographic Tourism”.

This paper comes to explore the crucial role of photographic tourism in the construction of Egypt's tourist Image. Therefore, This study investigates the photographs that have taken by arrivals tourists as content producers who called "Visitor-Employed Photography" in order to build a visual database to determine the perceived image of Egypt as a Global tourist Destination.

At the end of the visual analysis of 2880 photos, The results showed that Tourists were careful about the presence present in 2398 photos (66%) in order to document their tourism experience in Egypt. The most photographed destinations in Egypt are Cultural places, which represented in 1682 from 3600 photos (47%) and the most photographed cultural places are the Pyramids of Giza (344 photos) with a percentage of (20%). It is mainly due to the Cliché photo phenomena, which many of the tourists were careful to take it in Egypt. Globally, The most famous cliché photos are "kissing the Sphinx" and "Holding the Pyramids of Giza" as noted earlier that Egypt is known as a cultural destination.

REFERENCES:

- Alcaniz, E. Garcia, I., Blas, S. (2009), 'The functional-psychological continuum in the cognitive image of a destination: a confirmatory analysis', *Tourism Management*, Vol.30(5) pp. 715-723.
- Assael, H. (1984), 'Consumer Behavior and Marketing Action', *Kent Pub. Co.*
- Baloglu, S., McCleary, K. (1999), 'A Model of Destination Image Formation', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 26 (4) pp. 868–97.
- Balomenou, N., Garrod, B. (2014), 'Using volunteer-employed photography to inform tourism planning decisions: A study of St David's Peninsula, Wales', *Tourism Management*, Vol. 44, pp. 126-139.
- Beerli, A., Martin, J. (2004), 'Tourists Characteristics and the Perceived Image of Tourist Destinations: A Quantitative Analysis—A Case Study of Lanzarote, Spain', *Tourism Management* 25 (5), pp.623–36.
- Bigne, J., Sanchez, I., Sanchez, J. (2001), 'Tourism Image, Evaluation Variables and after Purchase Behavior: Interrelationship', *Tourism Management*, 22 (6), pp.607–616.
- Calantone, R., Benedetto, A., Hakam, A., Bojanic, D. (1989), 'Multiple Multinational Tourism Positioning Using Correspondence Analysis', *Journal of Travel Research*, 28 (2) pp. 25–32.
- Chon, K. (1990), 'The Role of Destination Image in Tourism: A Review and Discussion', *Tourist Review* 45 (2) pp. 2–9.
- Coghlan, A., Prideaux, b. (2008), 'No Pictures, No Memory: Capturing Image-Taking Behavior On The Great Barrier Reef', *Griffith university*.
- Coshall, J. (2000), 'Measurement of Tourists' Images: The Repertory Grid Approach', *Journal of Travel Research*, 39 (1) pp. 85–89.
- Crompton, J. (1979), 'An Assessment of the Image of Mexico as a Vacation Destination and the Influence of Geographical Location upon the Image', *Journal of Travel Research*, 18 (4) pp.18–23.
- Dadgostar, B., Isotalo, R. (1992), 'Factors Affecting Time Spent by Near-Home Tourists in City Destinations' *Journal of Travel Research*, 31 (2) pp. 34–39.
- Dakin, S. (2003), 'There's More to Landscape than Meets the Eye: Towards Inclusive Landscape Assessment in Resource and Environmental Management', *Canadian Geographer*, 47 (2), pp. 185-200.
- Domšić, L. (2009), 'Touristic Photography And The Construction Of Place Identity: Visual Image Of Croatia', The "Baltazar Adam Krčelić" College Of Business And Management, Vladimira Novaka 23, 10290 Zaprešić, Croatia, pp. 277-282.
- Donaire, j., Camprubi, r., Gali, n. (2014), 'Tourist clusters from Flickr travel photography', *tourism management perspective*, Vol.11, pp. 26-33.
- Dwityas, N., Briandana, R. (2017), 'Social Media in Travel Decision Making Process', *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, Vol. 7, N.7, pp. 193-201.

- Echtner, M., Ritchie, B. (1991), 'The Meaning and Measurement of Destination Image', *Journal of Tourism Studies* 2 (2) pp. 2–12.
- Echtner, M., Ritchie, B. (2003), 'The Meaning And Measurement Of Destination Image', *The Journal Of Tourism Studies* Vol. 14, No. 1., pp. 37-48.
- Fakeye, P., Crompton, J. (1991), 'Image Differences between Prospective, First-Time, and Repeat Visitors to the Lower Rio Grande Valley', *Journal of Travel Research* 30 (2), pp.10–16.
- Fatanti, M., Suyadnya, I. (2015), 'Beyond User Gaze: How Instagram Creates Tourism Destination Brand?', *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 211 pp. 1089 – 1095.
- Feighery, W. (2009), 'Tourism, stock photography and surveillance: a Foucauldian interpretation', *Journal of Tourism and Cultural Change*, Vol. 7, No. 3, pp.161 –178.
- Font, X. (1997), 'Managing the tourist destination's image', *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, Vol. 3, (2), pp. 123-131.
- Gali, N., Donaire, J. (2015), 'Tourists taking photographs: the long tail in tourists' perceived image of Barcelona', *Current Issues in Tourism*, Vol.18, Issue 9, pp. 893-902.
- Garlick, S.(2002), 'Revealing the Unseen: Tourism', *Art and Photography*, Cultural Studies 16(2), pp. 289-305.
- Garrod, B. (2007), 'A Snapshot into the Past: The Utility of Volunteer- Employed Photography in Planning and Managing Heritage Tourism', *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 2:1, pp. 14-35.
- Garrod, B. (2008), 'Understanding the Relationship between Tourism Destination Imagery and Tourist Photography', *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol.47, No.3, pp. 346-358.
- Gartner, W. (1989), 'Tourism Image: Attribute Measurement of State Tourism Products Using Multidimensional Scaling Techniques', *Journal of Travel Research*, 28 (2) pp.16–20.
- Gartner, W., Hunt., J. (1987), 'An Analysis of State Image Change over a Twelve-Year Period (1971-1983)', *Journal of Travel Research*, 26 (2), pp.15–19.
- Gogoi, B. (2014), 'A Conceptual Framework Of Photographic Tourism', *Impact Journals*, Vol. 2, Issue 8, pp. 109-114.
- Gou, S., Shibata, S. (2017), "Using visitor-employed photography to study the visitor experience on a pilgrimage route – A case study of the Nakahechi Route on the Kumano Kodo pilgrimage network in Japan", *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, Vol.18, pp. 22-33.
- Gunn, A. (1989), "Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions", 2nd Ed, New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold Publishers, pp. 23-28.
- Human, B. (1999), 'Kodachrome icons: photography, place and the theft of identity', *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol.11(2/3), pp. 80-84.
- Hunt, J. (1975), 'Image as a Factor in Tourism Development', *Journal of Travel Research*, 13 (3) pp. 1–7.
- Hunter, C. (2008), 'A Typology of Photographic Representations for Tourism: Depictions of Groomed Spaces', *Tourism Management*, 29 (2) pp. 354-65.
- James, W., Albers, P. (1988), 'Travel Photography: A Methodological Approach', *Annals of Tourism Research* 15(1), pp.134-158.
- Jenkins, O. (2003), 'Photography and travel brochures: The circle of representation', *Tourism Geographies, An International Journal of Tourism Space, Place and Environment*, 5:3, pp. 305-328.
- Kaewnopparat, J. (2017), 'The Impact Of Photography On Tourism: Photography Construction Perspective', *University of Tennessee, Knoxville*.
- Kim, H., Richardson S. (2003), 'Motion Picture Impacts on Destination Images', *Annals of Tourism Research* 30 (1) pp. 216–237.
- Lai, K., Li, X. (2015), 'Tourism Destination Image: Conceptual Problems and Definitional Solutions', *Journal of Travel Research*, Sagepub, pp.1-16.
- Lawson, F., Bond-Bovy, M. (1977), 'Tourism and Recreational Development', London, Architectural Press.

- Lo, S., Mckercher, B., Lo, A., Cheung, C. (2011), 'Tourism and Online Photography', *Tourism Management* 32(4), pp.725-731.
- MacKay, K., Couldwell, C. (2004), 'Using VisitorEmployed Photography to Investigate Destination Image', *Journal of Travel Research*, 42 (4) pp. 390-96.
- MacKay, K., Fesenmaier, D. (1997), 'Pictorial Element of Destination in Image Formation', *Annals of Tourism Research*, 24 (3) pp. 537–565.
- Markwell, K. (1997), 'Dimensions Of Photography In A Nature-Based Tour', *Annals of Tourism Research*, Vol. 24, No. 1, pp. 131-155.
- Matlovičová, K., Kolesárová, J. (2012), "Destination Image And Possibilities Of Its Formation: A Case Study Of The Image Of Thailand As A Tourist Destination Perceived By Slovaks", Central European Regional Policy and Human Geography, University of Debrecen, Hungary, pp. 5-20.
- Milman, A., Pizam, A. (1995),'The Role of Awareness and Familiarity with a Destination: The Central Florida Case', *Journal of Travel Research*, 33 (3) pp. 21–27.
- Murphy, P., Pritchard, M., Smith, B. (2000),'The Destination Product and Its Impact on Traveller Perceptions', *Tourism Management*, 21 (1): 43–52.
- Nikjoo, A., Bakhshi, H. (2019), 'The presence of tourists and residents in shared travel photos', *Tourism Management*, Vol.70, pp. 89-98.
- Palmer, C., Lester, J. (2005), 'Photographic tourism Shooting the innocuous, making meaning of tourist photographic behavior', In Novelli, M. (2005), 'Niche Tourism: Contemporary Issues, Trends and Cases', (pp. 15-25) London: Routledge.
- Phelps, A. (1986), 'Holiday Destination Image—The Problem of Assessment: An Example Developed in Menorca', *Tourism Management* 7 (3) pp. 168–180.
- Reilly, M. (1990), 'Free Elicitation of Descriptive Adjectives for Tourism Image Assessment', *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(4) pp. 21–26.
- Reynolds, W. (1985), 'The Role of the Consumer in Image Building', *Sage journal*,Vol. 7, (3), pp. 69-76.
- Stedman, R., Beckley, T., Wallace, S., Ambard, M. (2004), 'A Picture and 1000 Words: Using Resident-Employed Photography to Understand Attachment to High Amenity Places', *Journal of Leisure Research*, 36 (4), pp. 580-606.
- Stepchenkova, S., Li, X. (2012), 'Chinese Outbound Tourists' Destination Image of America: Part II', *Journal of Travel Research*, 51 (6) pp. 687–703.
- Tapachai, N., Waryszak, R. (2000), 'An Examination of the Role of Beneficial Image in Tourist Destination Selection', *Journal of Travel Research*, 39 (1) pp. 37–44.
- Tarascio, G. (2015), 'Photography and Tourism: The use of Photographic representations to influence a destination Image perception: The case study of Sicily', school of Architecture and Built Environment, Ma Tourism Management, university Westminster.
- The Egyptian Cabinet's Information and Decision Support Center (2018), Tourism in figures, Egypt.
- Tudor, R. (2013), 'The Image Of Tourist Destinations Represented In Travel Blog Photography. Case Study: Romania's Image Reflected In French Bloggers Photos', *Journal of tourism*, issues.13, pp. 32-39.
- Tussyadiah, I. (2010), 'Destination-Promoted And Visitor-Generated I Mages – Do They Represent Similar Stories?', *Temple University, USA*.
- Urry, J. (1990), *The Tourist Gaze: Leisure and Travel in Contemporary Societies*, (1st Ed), London: Sage.
- Virdee, I. (2017), Photographic Tourism Research: Literature Review. *Unpublished manuscript*.
- Zeng, B., Gerritsen, r. (2014), 'What do We Know About Social Media in Tourism? A Review', *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 10, pp. 27–36.

ECONOMIC AND SOCIAL FACTORS AFFECTING THE
PURCHASING POWER OF CUSTOMERS IN FAST-FOOD
RESTAURANTS

((APPLIED IN MARSA MATROUH CITY))

Prof/ Dalal Abd-El Hady

The dean of the faculty of tourism and hotels
Matrouh University, Egypt

Prof/ Amr Abd-El Hameed

The dean of the faculty of environmental and desert agriculture
Matrouh University, Egypt

Samar Mohamed Shebl Nada

Demonstrator
Hotel Studies Department
Faculty of Tourism & Hotels
Matrouh University, Egypt

Abstract: - Restaurants and food service industry is an important industry, which characterized by the rapid growth and the rapid and continual change in people's preferences. The growth of this service industry plays a pivotal role in the economies. Also, it is worth mentioning, there are a plenty of factors which affect the demand in general and fast food restaurants demand specifically and the most important factors are consumers' income, wages, tastes and prices of goods, alternative and complementary goods. The study of consumer purchasing behavior deals with all the ways that people do as consumers. But generally it tends to focus on behaviors that are related to searching, buying and using products and services. This study seeks to find a deeper understanding of the impact of different factors on consumer buying behavior in fast-food restaurants. It is studying the relationship between two variables and their relation with the fast-food restaurants; such social and economic factors and consumer purchasing behavior.

Key words: - customer purchasing behavior, customer purchasing power, social factors and economic factors.

1- Introduction

The hospitality industry is a broad category of fields within the service industry, which includes lodging, event planning, theme parks, transportation, cruise line, restaurants and additional fields within the tourism industry. Food service industry is an important industry, that highly represents in restaurants, which characterized by rapid growth and rapid and continual change in people's preferences (Azim et al., 2014). The growth of service industry plays a pivotal role in the economies (Cronin & Taylor, 1992).

Food service presents an interesting area for studying consumer behavior. Consuming food is effected via, a way of lifestyle and culture so that the differentiation in lifestyles and cultures leads to differentiation in food consuming behavior types. The study of consumer purchasing behavior deals with all the ways that people do as consumers (Johns & Pine, 2002). But generally it tends to focus on behaviors that are related to searching, buying and using products and services. Consumers may be treated as groups identified by geo-demographic characteristics and assumed to have common attitudes and behavior. Alternatively, individual, subjective perspectives may provide an insight into behavior patterns. Also, consumer behavior is studying many categories like individuals, groups, or organizations and the processes that they use to choose, secure, use, and dispose of products, services, experiences, or ideas to satisfy the needs and the influences that these processes have on the consumer and society (Johnsa and Pine, 2002). Consumer purchasing behavior is a huge issue which threatens the marketing and economic sectors and it is distinguished by continual change. Fast food has been appeared in the world economy since the past four decades. It has appeared since the ancient era in Rome, but it has been published and studied since the beginning of the 80's. Earlier publications on fast food were basically cared about the positive and negative aspect of fast food and its advantages and disadvantage, also the attitudes of the customers as a whole. This study will focus on another side of fast-food restaurants by shedding the light on the factors that influence their consumers' purchasing behavior. It will expose the nature and characteristics of Marsa Matrouh city. It will also discuss the changes which happened in the entire country and their effects on its activities and the tourism movement inside it (Furaiji et al., 2012).

Consumer purchasing behavior entails studies that take into its account how people determine things they will buy, what they choose to buy, the place they prefer to buy from it, why, and when they buy it (Muniady et al., 2014). Consumers are the ultimate users of finished products or the persons who purchase, or have the capacity to purchase goods and services offered for sale by marketing institutions in order to satisfy personal or household needs, wants or desires.; they could be industrial organizations, institutions, government, intermediate or households (Orji, 2013). The current research will discuss social and economic factors and will apply in fast-food restaurants because of its importance for the economy of the country and the whole community.

2- Literature review

As noted by Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2015), consumer buying behavior refers to the selection, buy and consumption of goods and services to satisfy their wants. There are distinct procedures involved in the human's behavior. Many factors, specificities and traits have an effect on the individuals about where is the purchaser into his decision making process, shopping habits, buying behavior, the brands to buys, the shops and restaurants that go. A purchasing

decision is the result of each one of these factors. Initially the consumer tries to discover what the goods or services he would like to consume; afterwards he selects only the commodities that will saturate his desires and commensurate with the money he has. Lastly, the consumer analyzes the spread prices on merchandise and takes the choice about what goods he or she will consume.

2.1) Purchasing decision making process:-

1) Consumer's decision-making process

At the early stages of consumer's behavior researches, its emphasis on the interaction between the seller and the buyer. While after the expansion in researches and studies, the process has been eruditeness as an entire process which contains factors affecting the consumer behavior during all the stages of purchase (Einarsdóttir, 2016). The consumer's decision-making process is divided into five stages. These stages include levels from the pre purchase till the post-purchase. During these levels, the consumer recognizes his needs, gathers information, evaluates alternatives and finally makes the purchase decision as shown in Figure 1. After the actual purchase happens, post-purchase behavior comes where the consumer evaluates the level of satisfaction he has received (Lautiainen, 2015) Kotler and Armstrong (2010) point out that, consumers may skip few stages during the processes of routine purchases. However, when a consumer makes a new and complex purchase, all of these stages need to be used to complete the buying process.

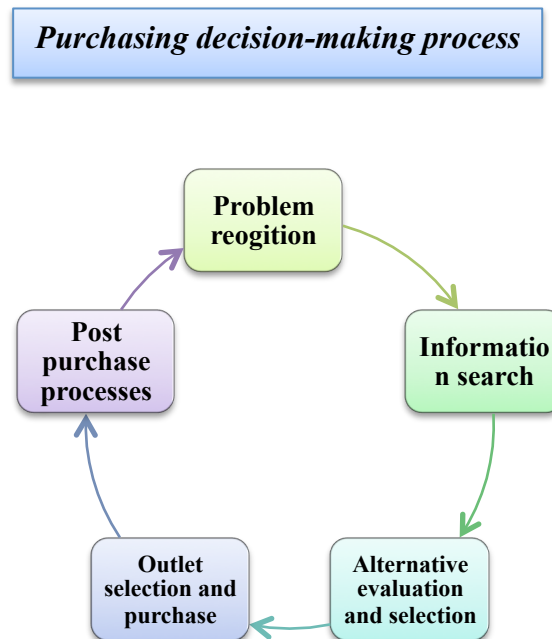


Figure 1: purchasing decision making process

1.1) Need's recognition

Problem recognition is the first stage in the consumer decision making process. It is the result of the variance between the desired state and the actual or current state which is sufficient to motivate people and make the decision process as shown in Figure 2 (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013). There are few types of classifications of recognition's need. The first type is when the purchaser realizes his need or problem that can be affected by internal or external factors (Kotler & Armstrong, 2010). According to Hawkins and Mothersbaugh (2013) the process of need's recognition can occur naturally or in a planned manner, it means that marketers can play a significant role in affecting the consumers' decisions. Marketers always develop the products that will help consumers to solve their problems. They also attempt to help consumers recognize problems, sometimes before their occurrence. The second type of recognition need include; Functional need, Social need and Need for change (Lautiainen, 2015).

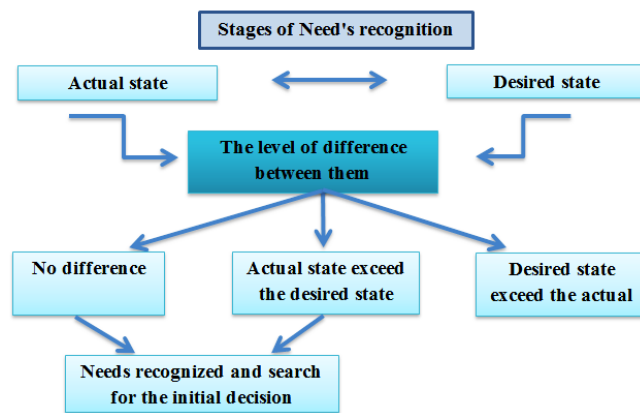


Figure 2: stages' of needs recognition

1.2) Information search

It is the second stage of the decision making process. At this stage the information, that will satisfy the consumers' needs, is gathered. For example, if he/she wants to eat outside in a restaurant, he/she will gather information about restaurants that have the type of food they prefer to eat and convenience also with their budget. It is not a simple step, because it is consuming both physical and mental energy and effort. Although it takes a lot of time, money and effort, there are many benefits for this step such as increasing and growing the awareness up towards available restaurants increases and grown up and preventing the wrong product selection because the consumer will select the most appropriate product for him like product with low price, high quality and preferred style. The consumer can get information from many sources like friends, newspapers, family magazines, the internet or trying the product previously. Personal sources considered as the best source such as family or friends because of the human nature which strongly affects by the others' views and opinion (Lautiainen, 2015). The next figure 3 showed some sources of information for consumers.

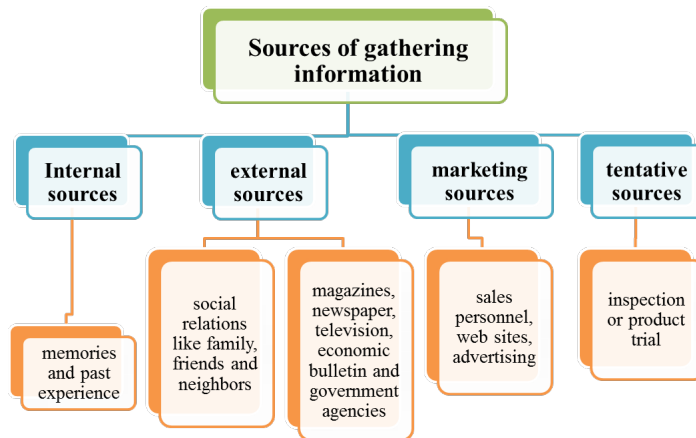


Figure 3: Sources of gathering information

1.3) Alternative evaluation

After collecting information, the consumer will be able to evaluate different alternatives; they are variety of choices in order to solve a problem or satisfy a specific desire. For example, before choosing a restaurant for dining out the consumer should consider the cost, speed of service, reputation of the place, the dishes, service excellence, product quality and the treatment of staff, all of them will be the evaluation criteria (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013:556). It means that different alternatives and choices will appear to consumers when the previous stage is finished. The process of evaluation varies according to the nature of the consumer and the purchases themselves, A successful information search leaves the buyer with possible alternatives which called "*evoked set*" that refers to the alternatives' used during the selection process. For example, if the consumer is hungry and decides to eat out, the evoked set will consist of Chinese food, Indian food and burger king etc (Solomon & Rabolt, 2004).

There are three types of the selection alternatives' processes; *firstly the affective or emotional choice* which is high when a consumer's motives focus on promotion and propaganda which include motives associated with hopes, aspirations, and growth. *Secondly, attribute-based choice* which requires knowing the specific attributes at the time that the choice has been made. *Thirdly, attitude-based choice* includes the use of general attitudes, summary impressions, intentions, or heuristics.

1.4) Outlet selection

According to Kotler and Armstrong (2010:179) at this stage, the consumer is ready to take the actual purchasing decision. Attitudes and beliefs highly affect the consumer's buying decision. Solomon and Rabolt (2004:312) pointed out that sometimes consumers make mental shortcuts which meaning makes the decision according to limited and not obvious information that leading to imprudent decision. These kinds of shortcuts can range from expanded believes and thoughts to specific and limited one. There are three basic strategies, the consumer can follow when making the actual purchasing decision; A) brand first, then outlet, B) Outlet first, and C) Brand and outlet at the same time (Hawkins & Mothersbaugh, 2013).

1.5) Post purchase

This is the last stage of the consumer's decision-making process which the consumer will evaluate his satisfaction level. There will be two types of scenarios; first if the consumer feels disappointing, it means that his expectations towards the product have not been achieved and that place loses this consumer forever. Second, if the product meets consumer's expectations, he will be satisfied and ready to spend more on this brand in the future. (Kardes & Cronley, 2011: 91).

2.2) Consumer's decisions and their types

Consumer behavior is changing greatly from a generation to another and it is a part of the whole human behavior. It is not necessarily the person who makes the purchases is the same person who consumes it. As a consequence, human behavior considered as a total process where an individual interacts with his environment and with others in the society. There are many varieties in consumer decision processes; it means that, the consumer moves between two levels of involvement; low and high level of involvement. However, there is two parts at this stage should be distinct between them; purchase involvement, which means the level of intention or interest in the purchases that arise from the need to purchase a particular product or service and product involvement, which is intended to refer indirectly to the loyalty of consumers or their involvement with a particular brand or a product category (Voinea & Filip, 2011). There are different types of consumer's decisions:

Nominal or habitual decision making: This kind of decisions also known as routine purchase which used when the decision taken for items that frequently purchased, the internal information is limited, the involvement with the purchase process and the items' cost is low (Lautiainen, 2015).

Limited decision making: This type of decisions does not include searching for lots of information. The consumer search for items, he is familiar with and knows previously, but still need to gather more information about which brand fits his needs more (Sharma & Sonwalkar, 2013 : 33-48). This level is distinguished by internal search and limited external information search, few alternatives, simple decision rules, and little post purchase evaluation.

Extended decision making: This type is totally the opposite of limit decision-making, when the consumer spend long time in gathering information, whether internal or external which followed by a complex evaluation for multiple alternatives and post purchase, so it will take longer period than other types to make a decision and the consumer has a high level of purchase involvement and it is used when items which purchasing are expensive.

Impulsive buying decision: it is refer to unorganized and sudden decisions. It is also called unplanned behavior which is driven mostly by emotional forces. These decisions contain a high level of risk because they occur suddenly without thinking (Gvion & Apter, 2017: 92-94).

2.3) Purchasing power:-

Purchasing power is a reflection of the value of money, which expressed in the case of purchase an amount, number or quantities of goods or services that the consumer can purchase by his income at a specific time. The purchasing power of the person decreases as a consequence of the income's stability state while there is an increase in the prices' level so a higher real income means a higher purchasing power since real income refers to the adjusted income for inflation. The inflation decreases the amount of goods or services the consumer will be able to

purchase. Therefore, the relationship between the inflation and the purchasing power is an inverse correlation (Bahmani-Oskooee et al., 2017:463-483). It can be measured by a calculation which developed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics in United States. The following part will clarify the steps must follow to calculate the purchasing power (Leonard, 2018).

1. Placement the base year
2. Placement the target year
3. Placement the Consumer Price Index (CPI) for both of years

By applying to the study:-

- 1) – The base year is 2009
- 2) – The target year is 2017
- 3) – The CPI for 2009 is 98.90 and for 2017 is 258.10

The calculation will be: $-(98.90/258.10) * 100 = 38.32\%$

4) - Subtract the percentage you have derived from 100 to determine the percentage of change, as follows $100 - 38.32 = 61.68 \%$

This means that the purchasing power of the person which is represented in the Egyptian pound declined by 61.68 % from the year 2009 to year 2017.

2.4) Purchasing power parity (PPP)

It is a term that economists use to measure how much a currency can buy relative to other currencies. This method is used for comparing standards of living between different countries. The simplest form called "law of one price" and the way in which the PPP method uses is considering and placement a group of goods, then calculates the price of this group in each country with its own currency. The desire is to reflect some products may be cheaper in one country due to supplies of raw materials and other factors (Bahmani-Oskooee et al., 2017:463-483). It cannot used to determine the equilibrium exchange rate, and will be invalid in the case of excluding the monetary approach to exchange rate determination, which requires PPP to be a fact. How to calculate the (PPP), for example, between Egypt and United States for fast food (Kimata & Khan, 2017):-

First step: - Determine two currencies

**The formula to calculate the price ratio is:
S (purchase power parity ratio) = Price 1/Price 2**

Second step: - Determine the product

The price of a Big Mac in Egypt is 50 EGP and in United States is 5.3 dollars.

The formula is: - Meaning that each 9.43 pounds equals one dollar

$$S = 50/5.3 = 9.4$$

Third step: - Comparing the result of the purchasing power parity to the currency exchange rate between both countries. Here are 17.88

The calculation shows that when comparing the result with the exchange rate, appears a clear decrease in the purchasing power of the Egyptian consumer compared to the American consumer. It means that the Egyptian pound is less than its real value by 52.74% ($17.88 - 9.43 = 8.45$), where the exchange rate of the dollar is higher than this result. The whole of that, indicate to that the standard of living for the US citizen is higher than the Egyptian.

3) Research objectives:-

1. Analyze and understand the consumers' buying behavior in fast-food restaurant
2. Study the effects of social and economic factors on the consumers' purchasing power
3. Know the characteristics of fast-food restaurants
4. Gain knowledge on how the purchase decision process is being made by individual consumers
5. Identify the effects of the January revolution in purchasing power of meals at fast food restaurants in the city of Marsa Matrouh.

4) Methodology

To fulfill the research objectives; this study used the quantitative approach. The survey instrument was two forms of face to face questionnaire which is a type of collecting primary data. The questionnaire comprised of two sections where the first section covered the demographic data of the consumers while the second section contains questions about consumers' purchasing power and behavior. Likert scale format was used as responses. The descriptive survey provides a realistic description of the purchasing power and behavior in fast food restaurants and how they affected by the nature of the city. Study was applied on the international and local restaurants' chains which open in Marsa Matrouh only in summer season.

The researcher was distributing the questionnaire from 1 June 2018 till 15 September 2018 to the customers of fast food restaurants. The number of distributed questionnaires was 432 customers, which visit these restaurants; Tekka, Hardez, Kfc, Moamen, Pizza Hut, Pizza King and Mcdonald's. The number of correct surveys which collected was 425 with the response rate of 98.37%.

After reviewing the relevant literature, the hypotheses which presented below are formulated:

H1: There is a significant correlation between consumer's characteristic and the type of fast-food restaurants.

H2: There is a significant correlation between economic circumstances and consumer purchasing power.

H3: There is a significant correlation between social factors and consumer purchasing behavior.

H4: There is a significant correlation between consumer's purchasing behavior and the nature of the city as a summering city.

H5: There is a significance correlation between the revolution of 2011 and the percentages of turnouts for these restaurants at the year of 2011.

4) Results and discussion

Table 1: Demographic Characteristics of consumers

Variables	Frequency	Percentage(%)
Age		
From 12 to less than 18	94	22.2%
From 18 to less than 30	155	36.4%
From 30 to less than 40	93	21.8%
More than 40	83	19.6%
Gender		
Male	186	43.8%
Female	239	56.2%
Marital status		
Single	155	36.5%
Married	165	38.8%
Widowed	60	14.1%
Divorced	45	10.6%
Qualification		
Preparatory degree	64	15.1%
Secondary degree	177	41.6%
University degree	154	36.2%
More than university degree	30	7.1%
Additional job		
Yes	130	30.6%
No	295	69.4%
Monthly income level		
Less than 1500 LE	40	9.4%
From 1500 to less than 3000 LE	90	21.2%
From 3000 to less than 4500 LE	150	35.3%
From 4500 LE to less than 6000LE	60	14.1%
More than 6000	85	20%
Less than 1500 LE	40	9.4%

Table 2: section two about specific questions

The variable	Likert scale	Recurrences	Percentage (%)	Average (μ)	Sd (α)	General percentage
Reasons for preferring a specific restaurant						
The prices are acceptable	Strongly agree	205	48.2%	4.17	0.947	83.4%
	agree	120	28.2%			
	Neutral	70	16.5%			
	disagree	30	7.1%			
	strongly disagree	—	—			
The quality of the taste	Strongly affect	125	29.5%	3.79	0.857	79.4%
	Affect	182	42.8%			
	Neutral	100	23.5%			

	Doesn't affect	15	3.5%			
	Doesn't strongly affect	3	.7%			
Important factors when selecting a fast-food restaurant						
Personal taste	Very important	147	34.6%	3.75	1.202	75%
	Important	116	27.3%			
	Neutral	93	21.9%			
	Unimportant	44	10.3%			
	Very unimportant	25	5.9%			
The income of the consumer	Very important	140	32.9%	3.67	1.239	73.4%
	Important	112	26.4%			
	Neutral	100	23.5%			
	Unimportant	40	9.4%			
	Very unimportant	33	7.8%			
The price	Very important	144	33.9%	3.56	1.162	71.2%
	Important	21	4.9%			
	Neutral	208	48.9%			
	Unimportant	29	6.8%			
	Very unimportant	19	4.5%			
Social factors which influence the opinion						
Sons in childhood	Strongly affect	152	35.8%	3.85	1.109	77%
	Affect	127	29.9%			
	Neutral	90	21.2%			
	Doesn't affect	43	10.1%			
	Doesn't strongly affect	13	3%			
Husband or wife	Strongly affect	142	33.4%	3.65	1.197	73%
	Affect	90	21.2%			
	Neutral	119	28%			
	Doesn't affect	54	12.7%			
	Doesn't strongly affect	20	4.7%			
Friends and colleagues	Strongly affect	127	29.8%	3.64	1.155	72.8%
	Affect	100	23.5%			
	Neutral	144	33.8%			
	Doesn't affect	30	7%			
	Doesn't strongly affect	25	5.9%			

4) Findings:-

The results refer to important points like the nature of the city, which effects on the consumer purchasing behavior, that characterized by the recreational internal tourism just in summer season. The major findings of the study indicated that the overall set of independent variables is highly associated with the dependent variable. However, the analysis found that social factors and economic factors are strongly associated with the buying behaviors of consumers. Also, it was featured that there is an unusual redistribution of social strata where people with fixed incomes and pensions (employees) became the most category which affected by the inflation so their social level is decreased as a consequence of the decrease of their financial level. While the entrepreneurs who can face the inflation became the top level even if they were lower in the social level. Although the increasing of inflation rates lead to a decrease in the purchasing power per capita by 61.68%, it did not affect the turnouts of these branches for the aforementioned reasons. There is a significantly reduction in the purchasing power. There is a strong relationship between the characteristics of the consumer and this type of restaurants, economic conditions and consumer purchasing power, social factors and behavior of the client, the customer purchasing behavior for the customer and the nature of the country as a summering country and finally between January revolution of 2011 and the turnouts of these branches.

5) Conclusion:-

This thesis aimed to focus on the social and economic factors and their effects on the consumer purchasing behavior in fast-food restaurant. It attempts to reach greater and deeper understanding of the consumer purchasing decision and behavior in fast-food restaurants which worked partially in summering cities. This type of work leads to influence the customer purchasing behavior whether a vacationer or a resident, because of the nature vacationer that he has the sufficient amount of money for accommodation, food and recreation to satisfy his needs and enjoy in the travel. So, going to these restaurants is popular matter while the resident is waiting these restaurants from the year to another even if it meant pressuring himself financially.

For future research, it is recommended to take larger sample where it is possible to emerge new relationships and other factors. Also, apply the study in more than one country to study the consumer personality and consumer behavior according to the nature of the city he located in. Making an expand study about the traits and characteristics of the consumers and customers of these restaurants in addition to apply this study again on other types of restaurants, but this time excluding fast-food restaurants. It must carry out studies about the economic situation of the country and making a comparison or evaluation between the exiting economic programs and suggestions to create other programs to correct the present economic path in an attempt to reduce this terrible disparity in exchange rates and price rise of the Egyptian pound. It is possible to study the management method which used by studying maintenance programs that used at the beginning of the summer and during the season, compared with the use of the principle of preventive maintenance where it was one of the most important recommendations of the managers of those restaurants. Finally, examine the different consumer situations which happened as a result of economic conditions comprehensively and design programs or ways to deal with them to recover from this condition and return back to their usual shopping behavior without any fear from the future.

REFERENCES

- Azim, A., et al. (2014). "Factors Effecting the Customers Selection of Restaurants in Pakistan." *International Review of Management and Business Research* **3**(2).
- Bahmani-Oskooee, M., et al. (2017). "Revisiting purchasing power parity in Eastern European countries: quantile unit root tests." *Empirical Economics* **52**(2): 463-483.
- Del I. Hawkins and David L. Mothersbaugh.(2013). *Consumer Behavior:Building Marketing Strategy*. Eleven edition. McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Einarsdóttir, H. (2016)."The impact of economics crisis on buying behavior and consumer attitudes". Thesis. Reykjavik University. School of business.
- Gvion Y.&Apter A. (2017) *Impulsivity, Decision-Making and Their Role in Suicidal Behaviour*. In: Kumar U. (eds) *Handbook of Suicidal Behaviour*. Chapter 5. P.92-94
- Hawkins, D. I. and D. L. Mothersbaugh (2015). *Consumer Behavior Building Marketing Strategy* 15th edition.
- Lautiainen, T. (2015). "Factors affecting consumers' buying decision in the selection of a coffee brand.". Saimaa University of Applied Sciences, Lappeenranta.
- Muniady, R., Al-Mamun, A., Permarupan, P. Y., & Zainol, N. R. B. (2014). Factors influencing consumer behavior: a study among University students in Malaysia. *Asian Social Science*, 10(9), 18.
- Paul, M. T., Kimata, J. D., & Khan, M. G. M. (2017). Purchasing Power Parity Theory and Applications for Solomon Islands. *Journal of Economics and Public Finance*, 3(4), 507.