(ATINER)

Athens Journal of Tourism

(ATINER)

Volume 6, Issue 3, September 2019

Articles

ATHENS INSTITUTE FOR EDUCATION AND RESEARCH
A World Association of Academics and Researchers
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ATINER is a ***World Non-Profit Association*** of Academics and Researchers based in Athens. ATINER is an independent **Association** with a **Mission** to become a forum where Academics and Researchers from all over the world can meet in Athens, exchange ideas on their research and discuss future developments in their disciplines, **as well as engage with professionals from other fields**. Athens was chosen because of its long history of academic gatherings, which go back thousands of years to *Plato's Academy* and *Aristotle's Lyceum.* Both these historic places are within walking distance from ATINER's downtown offices. Since antiquity, Athens was an open city. In the words of Pericles, **Athens*"…is open to the world, we never expel a foreigner from learning or seeing".*** ("Pericles' Funeral Oration", in Thucydides, *The History of the Peloponnesian War).* It is ATINER's **mission** to revive the glory of Ancient Athens by inviting the World Academic Community to the city, to learn from each other in an environment of freedom and respect for other people's opinions and beliefs. After all, the free expression of one's opinion formed the basis for the development of democracy, and Athens was its cradle. As it turned out, the Golden Age of Athens was in fact, the Golden Age of the Western Civilization. *Education* and *(Re)searching* for the 'truth' are the pillars of any free (democratic) society. This is the reason why *Education* and *Research* are the two core words in ATINER's name.

The Athens Journal of Tourism
ISSN NUMBER: 2241-8148- DOI: 10.30958/ajt
Volume 6, Issue 3, September 2019
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Before you submit, please make sure your paper meets some basic academic standards, which include proper English. Some articles will be selected from the numerous papers that have been presented at the various annual international academic conferences organized by the different divisions and units of the Athens Institute for Education and Research.

The plethora of papers presented every year will enable the editorial board of each journal to select the best ones, and in so doing, to produce a quality academic journal. In addition to papers presented, ATINER encourages the independent submission of papers to be evaluated for publication.

The current issue of the Athens Journal of Tourism (AJT) is the third issue of the sixth volume (2019). The reader will notice some changes compared with the previous issues, which I hope is an improvement. An effort has been made to include papers which extent to different fields connected to Tourism and Hospitality, and will further promote research in the specific area of studies.

Gregory T. Papanikos, President
Athens Institute for Education and Research

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13th Annual International Conference on Mediterranean Studies, 6-9 April 2020, Athens, Greece

The **Center for European & Mediterranean Affairs** organizes the **13th Annual International Conference on Mediterranean Studies, 6-9 April 2020, Athens, Greece** sponsored by the Athens Journal of Mediterranean Studies. The aim of the conference is to bring together academics and researchers from all areas of Mediterranean Studies, such as history, arts, archaeology, philosophy, culture, sociology, politics, international relations, economics, business, sports, environment and ecology, etc. You may participate as stream leader, presenter of one paper, chair a session or observer. Please submit a proposal using the form available (https://www.atiner.gr/2020/FORM-MDT.doc).

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- **Dr. Yannis Stivachtis**, Director, Center for European & Mediterranean Affairs and Director & Professor, International Studies Program Virginia Tech – Virginia Polytechnic Institute & State University, USA.
- **Dr. Gregory T. Papanikos**, Honorary Professor, University of Stirling, UK.
- **Dr. David Philip Wick**, Professor of History, Gordon College, USA.

Important Dates

- Abstract Submission: **31 August 2019**
- Acceptance of Abstract: 4 Weeks after Submission
- Submission of Paper: **9 March 2020**

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- Acceptance of Abstract: 4 Weeks after Submission
- Submission of Paper: **11 May 2020**

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- **Dr. Valia Kasimati,** Head, Tourism, Leisure & Recreation Unit, ATINER & Researcher, Department of Economic Analysis & Research, Central Bank of Greece, Greece.
- **Dr. Peter Jones**, Co-Editor, Athens Journal of Tourism & Professor of Management, University of Gloucestershire, UK.

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An Interpretative Analysis of Storytelling in the Beverage Industry

By Peter Jones[*] & Daphne Comfort[†]

Stories, in one form or another, are probably as old as the human race, but in recent years, businesses have increasingly come to recognise the importance of storytelling. The aims of this paper are to explore how the major players in the beverage industry, arguably one of the most important elements in the hospitality industry, have employed stories in their corporate communications and to offer some reflections on current approaches to storytelling within the industry. The findings reveal that all the world's leading beverage companies employ stories on their corporate websites, as part to their approach to business communication, and that these stories address a variety of themes, including company histories, brands, employees' experiences, breweries, customer stories, and corporate social responsibility.

Keywords: *Stories, Storytelling, Beverage Companies, Hospitality Industry.*

Introduction

Storytelling - simply defined as the cultural and social activity of sharing stories – is probably as old as the human race, but in recent years, there has been increasing recognition of the role of stories in business communication. PricewaterhouseCoopers (2017), for example, suggested that *'storytelling is one of the most powerful tools available to effective communicators'* and Gupta (2015) argued that *'stories are an effective tool in the strategy process and for communicating and achieving strategic objectives'*. In examining storytelling in business intelligence, Elias et al. (2013), argued that *'stories help us to communicate knowledge, share, and interpret experiences'*, while in highlighting *'the power of storytelling in public relations'* Kent (2015) claimed *'stories have the power to inform, persuade, elicit emotional responses, build support for coalitions and initiatives, and build civil society'*. Within the hospitality industry, there has been some interest in the importance and the role of stories and storytelling (e.g. Mossberg 2008, Ryu et al. 2018). That said, Agren and Olund's (2007) suggestion that *'many hotels have a story to share and storytelling is today a buzzword in the industry, but it has not received much attention in the academic world'*, published over a decade ago still has some force. The beverage industry is arguably one of the most important elements in the hospitality sector of the economy, and the basic research question addressed in this paper is how the major players in the industry are employing storytelling in their corporate communications. The paper then offers a number

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of concluding reflections on current approaches to storytelling within the beverage industry.

Storytelling and the Hospitality Industry

Storytelling has its roots in the origins of human civilisation and has traditionally been used to share, and pass on, knowledge, values, myths, legends, fables and religious beliefs, from one generation to another and across geographical space. Initially storytelling was conducted though drawings and word of mouth communication though over time the written, and then the printed, word became an increasingly important storytelling medium. Osman (2014), for example, argued *'transcending barriers of language and culture, storytelling is one of the oldest art forms in history, utilised to transmit cultural, moral and complex information in a simple, engaging and meaningful manner'.* More recently, developments in information and communication technologies, particularly social media, have seen storytelling become an increasingly all pervasive and all-embracing experience. Within the business world Gill (2015) defined *'corporate storytelling'* as *'the process of developing and delivering an organisation's message by using narration about people , the organisation, the past, visions for the future, social bonding and work itself, in order to create new point-of-view or reinforce an opinion or behaviour'.*

Storytelling has certainly assumed increasingly importance within a wide range of businesses and while much of the evidence on the importance of storytelling in business is colloquial and anecdotal, a growing body of academic work has been published on the role of storytelling in business activities and operations. Lundqvist et al. (2013), for example, demonstrated how brand stories can be used to create and reinforce positive brand associations and they suggested that *'more research is needed on the effect of stories on consumer brand responses'.* In exploring *'when consumers and brands talk',* Woodside et al. (2008) developed a narrative theory that looked to add to storytelling research in consumer psychology by developing narrative theory that described how consumer use brands in the stories they report about themselves. In conclusion, Woodside et al. (2008) suggested that their findings had important implications for marketing practice. In their review of the literature for their study of storytelling practices by Spanish brands, Delgado-Ballester and Fernandez-Sabiote (2016) claimed that storytelling is *'becoming a persuasive tool in the areas of advertising, communication, branding and management to connect with stakeholders of a company due to its potential effects on story receivers'.*

More colloquially, many business commentators and consultants claim a number of benefits for storytelling within the business world. Typically, storytelling is seen to be important in linking a wide range of business challenges and opportunities to everyday human experiences and in helping to generate emotional connections with companies and in giving them a human face. Many good, arguably the best, stories are memorable and thus not only the story itself, but also the message behind the story, can help to sustain positive views of a business and its operations and behaviours. Stories can be important in disseminating and sharing a company's values, which may be built on founding philosophies and achievements, and in helping to enhance these values in future business development trajectories. More specifically, stories can be important, in developing awareness and understanding of a company's values and commitments to a wide range of stakeholders and in developing and enhancing brands. Ultimately, and ambitiously, there is the belief that stories can be inspirational and that they can have the power to encourage and stimulate changes in behaviour.

More specifically within the hospitality industry, the role of stories and storytelling has been highlighted, for example, in marketing and in the creating and sharing of experiences. Kennedy (2015) has suggested that *'storytelling'* is *'a key to hotel marketing success'* while Dickinson (2017) outlined *'how to transform your hotel's marketing with storytelling'.* More specifically Dickenson (2017) argued *'by using a storytelling approach in your hotel marketing strategy, you can relate valuable content without actually "selling" your hotel to guests'* rather *'you're showing them why they should choose you over your competitors in an engaging, authentic way'.* Kennedy (2015) suggested that hotel sales professionals *'should incorporate storytelling into their toolbox of presentation techniques'* and should look, for example, to *'tell stories about your area or destination'* and to *'talk about how previous guests who have visited for a group or event, later came back to enjoy the hotel for leisure.'*

A number of researchers have explored the importance of storytelling in helping to understand tourism and hospitality experiences. Moscardo (2017) for example, drew on work in evolutionary, cognitive and social psychology to reveal that stories play a significant role in supporting positive tourism experiences. In looking to convey *'extraordinary experiences through storytelling'*, Mossberg (2008) looked at *'conceptualizing tourism and hospitality organisations as stories'.* Further she argued that *'for the consumer to be immersed in the story and to have an extraordinary experience, two preconditions are proposed'*, namely *'the need for the experience to take place in a hedonic service consumption setting'* and *'a servicescape that allows the consumer to step away from everyday reality'* (Mossberg 2008). Martin and Woodside (2011) used consumers; stories *'to probe how visitors interpret the places, people and situations while travelling in Japan'* and *suggested* hospitality mangers can profitably use such stories to *'improve service experiences and to design communication strategies to strengthen positive iconic images reported by consumers.*

The Importance of the Beverage Industry

The beverage industry includes manufacturers and distributors of soft drinks, bottled water, energy and sports drinks, milk products coffee and tea, nutritional drinks and beers, wines and spirits. Statista (2019) reported that the volume of the global beverage market had risen from 696 billion litres in 2019 to 948 billion litres in 2017. The industry is a significant element in the majority of national economies and recent estimates suggest that the global beverage market will be valued at $1.9 trillion by 2021 (Research and Markets 2017).

Within the hospitality industry, food and beverages are often grouped together (Dittmer 2001, Novak 2017) but in many ways, beverages are themselves a major element in many hospitality experiences. This is reflected in a number of ways. A wide range of alcoholic and non-alcoholic drinks and a range of bars and lounges are marketed as an important part of the hospitality offer on ocean cruises and all the major cruising companies offer a 'Drinks Package' to customers. Royal Caribbean, for example, has three inclusive beverage packages on offer, including, the Premium Package, at US $49 per person, per day, which includes house and premium cocktails, frozen cocktails, beers, premium wine by the glass non-alcoholic cocktails, bottled still water, soda fountains with a souvenir Coca-Cola cup and a 20% discount on wine bottle purchases. All packages have a daily limit on the value of the alcoholic drinks.

In many parts of the world visits to, and tours of, distilleries, vineyards, wineries and breweries are important hospitality experiences. In France, the Bordeaux Tourist Bureau, for example, markets a wide range of wine tours in and around the city while the in Spain the Rioja Alta and Rioja Alavesa Wine Tour offers visitors the opportunity to '*immerse yourselves in the ancient winemaking traditions of Rioja'* (Viator 2019a) and includes visits to three wineries and unlimited wine tastings. In Ireland, Jameson (2019) offers the *'World's Leading Distillery Tour'* at the *'iconic birthplace of Jameson Irish Whiskey in Dublin'.* The distillery reported 35,000 visitors in 2017 and claims to be the most visited whiskey experience in the world. In Germany the *'Behind-the-Scenes Brewery and Beer Tour in Munich'* (Viator 2019b) which includes visits to several of the city's breweries, an opportunity to meet master brewers, to see their beer making facilities, learn about the brewing process and to sample a range of beers. Elsewhere in the world, there are similar tours, for example, Barossa Valley Wineries Tour in Southern Australia, the visit to the Jack Daniels distillery in Tennessee, US, the World of Coca Cola Tour in Atlanta, US and the tour of Labatt's brewery in London, Ontario, Canada.

Within the UK, over 35,000 public houses (pubs) advertise stocking 'real ale', (traditional draught cask beers), as the often-defining feature of their offer. The Cottage Inn at Baltic Wharf on Bristol Harbour offers three locally produced real ales and real cider while he Orchard located nearby sells over 20 still ciders and perries sourced from rural farmhouse producers across the country as well as a selection of real ales. Classic Hospitality, advertises its steam train hospitality packages for the Cheltenham Festival, the pinnacle of the UK's National Hunt Racing Season, with the message *'enhance your steam train journey by pre-ordering a bottle of Champagne which we will have ready on your table or in your private cabin ready for you and your guests' arrival'* (Classic Hospitality 2019). This message is illustrated by an image of a tray of glasses of champagne.

Methodology

In an attempt to explore how the major players in the beverage industry are employing storytelling in their corporate communications, the world's top ten beverage companies, as measured by turnover and reported in the *'2018 Top Food and Beverage Companies* (Food Engineering 2018), were selected for study. The companies were PepsiCo, Anheuser-Busch Inbev, The Coca Cola Company, Heineken, Suntory, Asahi, Diageo, Kirin, Molson Coors, and Pernod Ricard. As the leading players in the beverages market, the selected companies might be seen to reflect innovative approach to storytelling in corporate communication. Brief pen pictures of the ten selected companies are provided at following the outline of the method of enquiry adopted by the authors.

The authors conducted an Internet search for information, using the key phrase 'stories and storytelling' and the name of each of the ten selected beverage companies. This search, conducted in March 2019, using Google as the search engine, revealed that all ten of the selected ten beverage companies posted what they explicitly labelled as stories on their corporate websites. A selection of these stories provided the source material for this paper. In selecting the stories, the authors pursued a simple interpretivist, rather than a more structured systematic approach, such as content analysis. The authors believe their impressionistic approach is appropriate in an exploratory paper, which looks to illustrate the ways the leading beverage companies employed stories as part of their business communication processes. Further, the authors included a large number of verbatim quotations, drawn from the corporate websites, in an attempt to capture the details and emotions of the stories as vividly as possible. The specific examples and selected quotations drawn from the stories were used for illustrative purposes, with the principal aim being on reviewing how the selected beverage companies employed storytelling in their corporate messages and not on providing a comparative evaluation of the storytelling process. The paper is based on information that was posted on the Internet, and thus in the public domain, and the authors took the considered view that they did not need to contact the selected beverage companies to obtain formal permission prior to conducting their research.

PepsiCo is a US multinational food and beverage corporation. The company's North American Beverages Division traces its origins back to 1898 when Caleb Bradham, an entrepreneur from North Carolina, created Pepsi Cola and began offering it to his pharmacy customers and its current product range includes carbonated soft drinks, energy drinks, juices and juice drinks and ready to drink teas and coffees. Anheuser-Busch Inbev is a multinational drinks and brewing holdings company based in Leuven, Belgium, and its global brands include Budweiser, Corona and Stella Artois. The Coca Cola Company, a US based multinational corporation, is a manufacture, retailer and marketer of non-alcoholic concentrates and syrups and while it owns over 500 brands it is best known for its flagship Coca Cola drink. Heineken is a Dutch brewing company, it owns some 160 breweries in over 70 countries and produces a wide range of beers and ciders and its brands include Heineken, Amstel, Birra Moretti and Cruz Campo.

Suntory is a Japanese brewing and distillery group originally established in Osaka, and it produces a range of alcoholic and soft drinks. Its alcoholic brands include Suntory Whisky, Courvoisier, Gilbeys, Jim Bean and Laphroaig. Asahi is a Japanese beer and soft drinks company based in Tokyo and its brands include Asahi Super Dry, Peroni, Tyskie and Lech. Diageo is a UK based multinational alcoholic beverages company headquartered in London, it produces Smirnoff, Johnny Walker, Baileys and Guinness and owns 37% of Moet Hennessey, whose brands include Moet Chandon and Veuve Clicquot. Kirin is a Japanese beverage company whose alcoholic brands include Kirin Ichiban Shibori Nama Beer, Kirin Lager and Kirin Nodogoshi Nama and its soft drinks range includes Mets, a range of soda drinks in a variety of fruit flavours. Molson Coors is a multinational brewing company, headquartered in Denver, US. The company's product range spans beers, lagers, malt drinks, wines and spirits and energy drinks and its beer brands include Carling, Coors Light, Caffrey's Irish Ale and Worthington White Shield. Pernod Richard is a French company headquartered in Paris and its brands include Pernod Anise, Absolut, Jameson Irish Whiskey, Chivas Regal and Jacob's Creek wine.

Findings

The Internet search revealed that the ten leading beverages companies publicly posted a range of stories on their corporate websites. The stories were presented in a narrative format, often illustrated with images, and a number of the selected companies used video clips as part of the storytelling process. The stories covered a number of themes including company histories, brands, employees' experiences, breweries, customer stories, and corporate social responsibility. Company history and development was a common theme in the storytelling process. Under the headline *'Our History'*, Diageo, for example, told its *'story – from the 17th century to today'*. *'The story begins'* in 1627 with *'the first record of the Haig family – the oldest family of Scotch Whisky distillers'* and includes Arthur Guinness' signing of a 9,000 – year lease on a property in Dublin in 1759 and the beginning of the production of its hallmark black beer and the blending of whiskies by John Walker in Kilmarnock, Scotland in 1820. Moving towards the present day Diageo's stories include the companies' launch of *'DrinkiQ'*, designed to *'help consumers make more informed choices about drinking, including the decision not to drink'* in 2008, the purchase of Mey Icki, the leading spirits producer and distributor in Turkey in 2011, and the acquisition of the Meta Abo Brewery in Ethiopia in 2012.

Molson Coors reported that *'our company's history can be traced back to 1774'* and under the banner *'drink in more of our rich history'* outlined the company's key developments and acquisitions across four centuries. Readers were invited to *'Meet Our Families'*, which outlined the stories of John Molson, Adolph Coors and Frederick J. Miller, who all played key roles in the company's development. John Molson, for example, founded Canada's oldest brewery on the banks of the Saint Laurence River in Montreal in 1786. Heineken claimed its *'rich history is a fabric that weaves through the company'* and that it *'reaches across countries, across time and includes historical events and people whose legacy we still celebrate today.'* Heineken's *'stories behind how we have come to be who we are'* are told via a series of video clips. In providing *'A snapshot of our history'*, Asahi claimed *'our history is rich, our stories are varied, and together they make us who we are'*.

Under the headline *'How It all Began'*, in 1898, Suntory claimed *'the spirit of bold ambition is the base of everything we do.'* More specifically, the story recounted how Shinjito Toni, the company's founder, *'pushed boundaries even with his very first store in Osaka, which he started with the vision to bring Western-style wines and liquors to Japan.'* Further, the story tells how *'in 1923 Shinjito started a whisky business with the vision of creating an authentic Japanese whisky to suit Japanese tastes'*. PepsiCo reported that its *'story started with Caleb Bradham, a North Carolina industrialist, who developed the first PepsiCo recipe in the 1880's'* and *'registered a patent for the recipe in 1903.'* Further, in the same year, Caleb Bradham *'advertised the drink as exhilarating and invigorating'* and it *'sold 7, 9698 gallons'* and *'encouraged by the popularity, he collaborated with two investors to bottle Pepsi in 1905'*.

A number of the leading beverage companies used to stories to contribute to their brands. Anheuser-Busch Inbev, for example, invited readers to *'Discover more about your Favorite Brands'*. *'A New Chapter for Camden Town'* told of how *'more than 20 years ago, Australian Jasper Cuppaidge missed a plane at Heathrow Airport on his way home from a surfing trip'*. So, the story continued, *'unexpectedly stuck in London, he collected glasses in a local pub for extra cash - and so began a love affair with beer that would result in him founding one of the UK's most prominent modern breweries.'* Since then the *'Camden Town Brewery, based in Camden Town, London, has been at the forefront of the British craft-beer movement for years'*. In the story *'Innovation at Kona Brewing'*, Anheuser-Busch Inbev suggested 't*he best reason to brew beer in Hawaii is the available selection of fresh, delicious adjunct ingredients. Cacao nibs go into Kona Brewing's Black Sand Porter, while vanilla beans are used to brew Vanilla Thrilla, an imperial vanilla stout. By obtaining these fresh ingredients from farm collectives, Kona can craft a seemingly endless list of new beer recipes - many of which would be prohibitively expensive to replicate anywhere else in the world'*.

Diageo told the story of a number of its famous brands. These stories included *'Perfecting the Porter'*, which outlined how *'precise instructions for brewing Guinness Superior Porter are recorded, laying the foundations of today's Guinness Original and Guinness Extra Stout'*. Under the banner *'Smirnoff Revolutionises Vodka'*, the story is told of how *Pytor Smirnoff is credited with developing a method for filtering his vodka through charcoal five times, removing impurities and imparting character'*. Other Diageo brand stories focus on John Walker and Sons Old Highland Whisky, Gordons Bronx Cocktail first introduced in 1924 and the launch of Captain Morgan Original spiced Rum which pioneered the important role of flavours in the production of rum. The Coca Cola Company posted a number of *'Brand Stories'* including *'Orange Vanilla Coke and Orange Vanilla Coke Zero Sugar'*, which announced that *'variety-seeking Coca-Cola fans will soon have a new fun-yet-familiar flavor to reach for. Orange Vanilla Coke and Orange Vanilla Coke Zero Sugar – the first Coca-Cola trademark flavor innovations in over a decade'* was available in a range of packaging options. Within the story, Kate Carpenter, the company's brand director, claimed *'the team considered three other flavors – raspberry, lemon and ginger. But the combination of orange and vanilla emerged as the clear favorite in focus groups'*, that *'we wanted to bring back positive memories of carefree summer days'* and *'that's why we leaned into the orange-vanilla flavor combination – which is reminiscent of the creamy orange popsicles we grew up loving, but in a classically Coke way'*.

Employees' stories featured on a number of the leading beverage companies corporate websites. Under the headline *'Great Place to Work: Our Culture Sets Us Apart'*, Molson Coors, for example, provided three stories of the benefits of working for the company. In *'Your career. Developed here'*, the company outlined how it offered *'one-on-one mentoring, skill development, career path customization, and leadership coaching. All so we can help you grow your career personally'*. The story entitled *'Internationally Mobile'* claimed 'as *an international brand builder, we believe our people give us a winning edge – which is why we provide development opportunities all over the world'*. In its introduction to *'Our employee stories'* Diageo claimed *'we are proud to have a diverse workforce made up of thousands of talented people, each with their own story to tell'*. More specifically, Alison king, a liquid scientist, Habtu Bazezuw, a health and safety officer, Lorena Diaz Vargas, a production manager and Alec Begg, a coppersmith, all told their stories via short video clips. In a similar vein, Heineken employed a number of video clips to highlight the stories of some of its employees. The story *'Are You Ready to be Bold'*, told of how *'tired of being in the office, Marcel dropped his suit and joined the brewing masters in the lab. He helped them to develop ground breaking new flavours'*.

The Coca Cola Company posted a large number of customer stories under a series of categories including *'Romance'*, *'Special Family Times'*, *'Times with Friends'*, *'Reminders of Family'*, and *'Childhood Memories'*. All of these stories begin with the lines *'Coca Cola touches the lives of people each and every day. From special occasions to exceptional moments in everyday life, Coca Cola is there.'* One of the *'Romance'* stories told how *'One winter we had a bad blizzard. I had to have my Diet Coke. My husband traveled our untreated, gravel, snow – and ice covered road 10 miles to town to get my diet Coke. It took him two hours – but he did it for me. This is a testament to a wonderful husband and a fantastic soft drink'*. Under *'Reminders of Family'* was a story, which ran *'as a child I can remember my father taking me to a Greek restaurant in Zanesville, Ohio. Located inside was an old-time fountain parlor where I had my first handmixed Cherry Coca –Cola. The restaurant has* *long since been gone, but the moment in time of sharing that drink with my dad will last for the rest of my life'.*

Three of the leading beverage companies used stories to illustrate their approach to corporate social responsibility. In telling *'Our* CSV (Creating Shared Value) *Story',* Kirin, for example, argued *'The Kirin Group is dedicated to resolving these key social issues: being a responsible alcohol producer, health and well-being, community engagement, and the environment'.* At the same time, Kirin claimed *'by addressing these issues with a deep commitment, we will help create a prosperous society and a bright future for our customers.'* Further, the company suggested *'to be able to pass on a beautiful planet to future generations is a wish for all of us'* and *'as a company that benefits from the many blessings of nature, including water and agricultural products, we recognise that sustainability of the global environment is essential to ensuring the continuity of our business'.* Heineken's *'Our Sustainability Story'* was told in seven chapters. According to this story, *'minimising the impact of our business from barley to bar and from orchard to glass is a top priority'* as is continuing to invest *'in our brewing facilities to modernise and make them more energy efficient'.* At the same time, some of the selected companies used stories to outline their approaches to environmental management. The Coca Cola Company, for example, described its endeavours in looking to *'Create a World without Waste'* and more specifically in exploring *'ways to make recycling better and more accessible to more places'.*

Some of the leading beverage companies posted more novel stories on their corporate websites. In 2018, Pernod Ricard posted four short videos, featuring four scenes played by actor Robert Hoehn about employees' lives, in stand-up comedy style. One of these stories concerned the *'exploit achieved by Ronnie and Steven, two Scottish employees working at the Miltonduff distillery who, armed only with shovels and sand bags defied a true rainstorm to prevent their production site from flooding'.* More generally, Pernod Richard argued that *'defined by its creators of conviviality signature'* the company had *'transformed its unique culture and its employee pride into a key element of its identity.'* Kirin told *'The Story Behind Kirin Beer Labels'*, which told how *'the kirin depicted on Kirin Beer labels is a legendary creature derived from ancient Chinese myths and is said to be a harbinger of good luck.'* Under the headline *'Our Most Beautiful Breweries',* Anheuser Busch Inbev told the stories of a number of its breweries including the story of the *'Cerveceria Patagonia Brewery'* in Argentina, which overlooks *'the sublime glacial Moreno Lake'.* The brewery combines hops from Patagonia, German brewhouse technology and decades of knowledge from master brewers, while *'the attached bar gives visitors the opportunity to try many varieties of local beer and take in the incredible view'.*

Concluding Reflections

The findings reveal that all the world's leading beverage companies employ stories on their corporate websites, as part to their approach to business communication, though the nature and the extent of storytelling varies between companies. These stories address a variety of themes, including company histories, brands, employees' experiences, breweries, customer stories, and corporate social responsibility. While the stories only provide a snapshot at a particular moment in time, three/four sets of concluding reflections merit attention.

Firstly, while the stories address a variety of themes, they all have a clear corporate stamp, and they were designed to promote and enhance a positive image of beverage companies and of the joys and pleasures associated with the consumption of their products as part of the hospitality experience. Further these stories were specifically choreographed to that end by the beverage companies. As such, these stories stand in marked contrast to a number of different messages about the consumption of alcohol, for example, and about its role in society. While some of the stories posted by the companies that produce and market alcoholic drinks, and the websites on which they are posted, include messages about responsible drinking, views about alcohol consumption are contested. There is also growing political, medical and public concern about excessive alcohol consumption and about its costs and consequences to society. Alcohol Change UK (2018), for example, recognised that *'alcohol is part of many of our lives. We use it for celebration, to socialize, to wind down, to cope'* but argued *'yet every year alcohol-related harm leads to thousands of lives lost and hundreds of thousands more damaged. The harm goes far beyond those who drink too much, affecting families, communities and ultimately our whole society'.*

Concerns about the positive image stories can promote about the beverage industry are not only confined to alcohol. Soft drinks, including soda, colas, tonics, lemonade and energy drinks, for example, are the largest single source of calories and added sugar in the US diet (Harvard T.H. Chan School of Public Health 2019). In the UK, the British Medical Association (2018) argued that '*sugar-sweetened beverages are a major source of added sugars and are typically high in calories, and low in essential vitamins and minerals'.* The British Medical Association (2018) further argued that it is *'deeply concerned that the intake of added sugars by many children and adults in the UK far exceeds recommended levels and there is increasing concern about their role in the development of a range of health conditions'.* On an environmental note, in a recent report (Ellen MacArthur Foundation 2019) it was while Coca Cola revealed that the Coca Cola Company produced 3 million tones of plastic packaging in 2017 and that PepsiCo did not disclose the volume of the plastic packaging it produced. While both companies cited their commitments to striving to make 100% of plastic packaging reusable, recyclable or compostable by 2025, the report suggests that both companies still have some way to go to achieve this goal.

Secondly, many of the leading beverage companies recounted stories about their company history and their founders and one of the aims here is to emphasise trust and confidence in beverages whose popular appeal has stood the test of time. As such, the focus is on using stories to develop and enhance relationships with existing and potential customers. More generally, as illustrated earlier in the paper, a number of the leading beverage companies employ stories to develop their brands. In additional to conventional narrative, video has an important role to play and as revealed earlier, some of the leading beverage companies employed video clips as part of their storytelling process. Pera and Viglia (2016) argued *'video storytelling has tremendous power compared to written storytelling as it favours the occurrence of the emotional dimension of consumer relationship experiences transforming individual consumption experiences into collective ones'.* Further, Pera and Viglia (2016) suggested *'by building relationships among members, customers are building a relationship with the brand'.*

More generally, however, a number of commentators have raised concerns about the increasing use of stories in contributing to branding and here the issue of authenticity looms large. Naidu (2013), for example, argued *'in business, all your stories must be authentically true'* and emphasised *'it's simply not worth the backlash and the damage that can have on your credibility. All it succeeds in doing is giving you a reputation for manufacturing, spinning and inventing stories'.* Where beverage companies use employees' stories, ethical concerns may be seen to arise in that colleagues might feel that a refusal to contribute positively to a request to publicly contribute to corporate storytelling could prejudice his/her current employment or future career prospects. At the same time, there is also the issue of differentiation in that branding is widely seen to be offer important opportunities for companies to differentiate themselves from their competitors. However, while the details of the stories posted by the leading beverage companies vary, as illustrated earlier in this paper, in many cases, the underlying messages about the role of drinks within the hospitality experience are similar and this might be seen, in part at least, to undermine the role of storytelling in branding.

Thirdly, some commentators have questioned whether many of the types of stories employed by the leading beverage companies are stories at all. Gearin (2018), for example, suggested that *'storytelling has become a loaded term'* but that when corporate writers *'engage in storytelling it suggests they are operating at a higher level, following in the grand traditions of Homer, Rowling and Spielberg'.* Further Gearin (2018) argued *'unfortunately when brands think about telling stories, they feel they need to talk about themselves – how we began, what we make, why we do what we do, the story behind the people behind the brand… Yes, these stories can be nicely told and lovingly produced, but they often make the brand look self-obsessed. Worse than that, they're often incredibly boring'.* Gearin (2018) concluded that *'it would be great if more corporate storytelling came from a place where businesses were more interesting, useful, relevant, entertaining or just plain helpful.'*

In a similar vein, Hammond (2017) argued *'that not only is the term story overused in the world of communication, it is also widely misused.'* Hammond

(2017) argued that in the *'classical oral storytelling tradition'* stories *'were never set in stone but forever changing as they were told, influenced by audience reaction and then re-told.'* Here Hammond (2017) suggested that the digital environments not only offer *'accelerated interactivity'* but *'still echoes the ancient tradition of storytelling by mirroring the importance of the audience in the process. In both instances, and across centuries, the audience and consumers are there to listen, to develop and to share'.* A number of the leading beverage companies are using social media in the storytelling process and looking to the future one of the challenges for these companies is to develop an increasingly sophisticated and interactive approach to their storytelling.

By way of a final conclusion, the contribution of this paper has been to offer an exploratory review of the ways in which the major players within the beverage industry are employing storytelling in their corporate communications. The paper not only provides a general picture of the current nature of storytelling within one of the most important sectors of the hospitality industry, and as such helps to fill a gap in the current literature, but it also provides a valuable platform for further and more detailed analysis of the role of storytelling within the industry. At the same time, the authors' wider reflections on the findings suggest that the nature and role of storytelling within the beverage industry are contested and that this too may offer fertile ground for future research amongst the industry's various stakeholders.

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National Cultural Constructs and Consumer Socialization Effects on Adolescent's Influence on Family Vacation Decisions

By João Paulo Baía[‡]

With the expansion of globalization, the search for new markets and the interest of companies in the knowledge of how, in specific cultures, families structure their purchase decisions, is of particular relevance nowadays. Literature has evidenced the existence of diverse cultural dimensions, namely individualism-collectivism and power distance. In addition, the family buying decisions is one of the most difficult consumer behavior subjects. Thus, adolescents became an increasingly attractive segment for companies, because they are considered as an active element and have influence the most important consumption unit, the family. However, services for family use have not yet been properly studied. This research main goal is to examine the influences of the national cultural constructs of individualism-collectivism and power distance, and consumer socialization effects on adolescent's influence on family vacation decisions. A quantitative research method is utilized in high schools in Lisbon district, Portugal. 1,800 questionnaires were delivered in classrooms during May 2018. Adolescents were instructed to deliver questionnaires to their mothers, and 726 validated questionnaires were returned. Results of logistic regression analysis point to individualism, parental communication style, internet influence, television influence, adolescent's service knowledge, family size and structure as purchase important explanatory variables. Several contributions are made to this knowledge area. Firstly, the importance of including the adolescent in purchases for family use is reinforced. Secondly, marketers should focus their efforts on adolescents more individualistic, with more permissive parenting styles families, more influenced by internet and television, with greater service knowledge, and from single-parent and larger families. These results are innovative. A contribution to companies is offered by providing evidence of adolescent´s influence on family purchases. Given their importance on family decisions, it is important that marketers focus their efforts on adolescent satisfaction.

Keywords: *Consumer Behaviour, National Cultural Constructs, Consumer Socialization, Family Decision Making, Adolescent, Influence, Family Vacations.*

Introduction

Literature has evidenced the existence of significant cultural differences between countries, and these differences manifest themselves in the various cultural dimensions, namely individualism-collectivism and power distance (Al-Zu'bi 2016, Yang et al. 2014, Feng et al. 2011). For marketers, the search for new markets is very important in the context of globalization, and being the most important decision-making and consumption unit, it's most relevant the understanding of how families in different cultures make consumption decisions (Ishaque and Tufail 2014, Kaur and Medury 2013, Leng and Botelho

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2010). In addition, the family buying decision process is considered one of the least researched and difficult subjects within consumer behavior (Aleti et al. 2015, Akinyele 2010, Beatty and Talpade 1994, Belch et al. 1985). In that context, adolescents constitute an important segment for companies, mainly for the influence they exert on family purchase process (Al-Zu'bi 2016, Mau et al. 2016, Kaur and Medury 2013, Luczak and Younkin 2012). Thus, it is important for marketers to understand adolescent consumer patterns (Luczak and Younkin 2012).

One main service for families' use in which joint decisions tend to occur is vacations (Watne and Winchester 2011). The way that families with adolescents make joint vacation decisions can be much more complex than past research has pointed out (Watne et al. 2014). Several researchers pointed the importance to study culture concept for use in international marketing to review proper applications of cultural constructs (Mooij 2015, Feng et al. 2011). For Aleti et al. (2015), "understanding how socialization agents transfer knowledge to learners is important to marketers because it offers the opportunity to stimulate consumer knowledge and, consequently, purchases within joint decision-making units such as the family" (Aleti et al. 2015: 173).

Consumer socialization is the processes through which consumption related skills, knowledge, and attitudes are transferred between generations (Aleti et al. 2015, Yang et al. 2014, Watne et al. 2011, 2014, Ward 1974). Adolescent's socialization has been successful predicted by parental communication. Nevertheless, the effect of parental communication style in adolescents' perceived influence on buying decisions is still unexplored (Sharma and Sonwaney 2013).

In recent times, consumer socialization theorists have explored the effect of socialization agents on adolescents, including television (Kushwaha 2017, Moschis and Moore 1979). However, there's also a lack of research testing the impact of internet on adolescents' consumer socialization (Sharma and Sonwaney 2013, Niu 2013, Luczak and Younkin 2012).

Previous research on family vacation has been limited because there is little consideration of the impact that adolescents can have on decision-making process (Watne et al. 2014). The dominant social group on which people spend their vacation is the family, and also the most important social structure for companies that supply that service (Baía 2018, Khoo-Lattimore et al. 2016, Carr 2006). In this context, it is fundamental for marketers to study the family in its various forms (Kaur and Medury 2013, Shoham and Dalakas 2005, Lee and Beatty 2002, Commuri and Gentry 2000). Given the limited research on the adolescent's influence on family buying decisions, several authors refer to the need to deepen the study of this phenomenon (Kaur and Singh 2006, Commuri and Gentry 2000). Adolescents have increasingly become the focus of both research and companies (Ashraf and Khan, 2016, Mau et al. 2016, 2014, Goswami and Khan 2015, Srivastava 2015). The efforts made by adolescents in family purchases have increased nowadays (Sondhi and Basu 2014, Singh and Nayak 2014, Chitakunye 2012, Kaur and Medury 2011).

The substantial and growing adolescent market needs marketers to understand the adolescent purchase behavior for current sales and their participation in the family structure (Niemczyk 2015, Srivastava 2015, Shahrokh and Khosravi 2014, Yang et al. 2014). There is a good stream of research which has shown that adolescents' role in family purchase decisions varying by product, decision stage, adolescent, parental, and family characteristics (Aleti et al. 2015, Ishaque and Tufail 2014, Shahrokh and Khosravi 2014, Shergill et al. 2013, Ali et al. 2013, Chaudhary and Gupta 2012).

This study examines the influence of the national cultural individualism-collectivism and power distance constructs, and consumer socialization effects on adolescent's influence on family vacations purchase decision, whose interest derives from the literature (Khoo-Lattimore et al. 2016, Aleti et al. 2015, Kim et al. 2015, Feng et al. 2011, Watne and Winchester 2011, Kaur and Singh 2006). The present research presents a holistic approach to the topic of adolescent influence, also considering the influence of service knowledge on his/her participation, and the influence of demographic variables such as household size and family type (Baía 2018, Ali et al. 2015). This paper also explores the role of television and internet as antecedents to consumer socialization of adolescents and its effects on their purchase influence.

Although past literature indicates the adolescent as an influential element of family vacations purchases (Khoo-Lattimore et al. 2016, Niemczyk 2015, Kaur and Medury 2011, Mangleburg 1990, Foxman et al. 1989a, b), a holistic approach to the adolescents' influence on parent's vacations final decision remain unresearched (Baía 2018, Khoo-Lattimore et al. 2016, Niemczyk 2015, Kaur and Medury 2011, Akinyele 2010, Kaur and Singh 2006). The subject of the present investigation is the consumption behavior of family vacations purchase.

There is a main theoretical dimension in the research problem which essentially involves the answer to the following questions: What is the impact of the national cultural constructs and consumer socialization on adolescent's influence on family vacation decisions? What are the family demographic characteristics that impact the adolescent's influence on family vacations purchase decisions? What is the mother's perception about the adolescent's influence?

The paper begins with the literature review and the research hypotheses definition. Then the methodology used will be characterized. The main research results will be presented and they will be discussed, as well as the main conclusions, limitations and directions for future research.

Literature Review and Hypotheses

The family consumption behavior domain presents some gaps, among which, the adolescent's influence is often underestimated or omitted, with regard to purchasing decisions (Khoo-Lattimore et al. 2016, Watne and Winchester 2011, Kaur and Medury 2011, Carr 2006). Past research on traditional families found out that the adolescent is considered as a less relevant member when considering family purchasing decisions.

The Adolescent Role

Past research has identified adolescents as relevant direct or indirect influencers of the purchase of a large amount of household items, and a very important future market of a larger variety of products and services (Aleti et al. 2015, Srivastava 2015, Shahrokh and Khosravi 2014). The adolescent is an influencing member on family purchasing decisions within consumption unit, and this influence is manifested directly, that is, by actively acting in the direction of a certain decision (Kaur and Singh 2006, Beatty and Talpade 1994, Mangleburg 1990). For several researchers, the adolescent’s influence on family buying decisions is not adequately explained (Aleti et al. 2015, Shergill et al. 2013, Chaudhary and Gupta 2012, Kaur and Singh 2006).

On family vacation decisions there has been argued that adolescent participation is minor or null in the final stage (Khoo-Lattimore et al. 2016, Watne and Winchester 2011, Kaur and Medury 2011, Carr 2006). Niemczyk (2015) in his study on holidays decisions, concluded that adolescents have some say in the final decision solely in the case of domestic holidays, but they do not participate in that phase when it is concerned holidays more planned and abroad. Ashraf and Khan (2016) found an adolescent “decline in the involvement may be because family vacation is a high-budget decision and parents might be more involved in the final decision-making stage” (Ashraf and Khan 2016: 396). However, Baía (2018) found adolescents actually revealed an active participation on that service decision. Those contradictious results emphasize the existence of a gap regarding the study of the adolescent’s participation in the decision phase of family vacations purchases. Thus, the study of that purchase lacks deeper connection and there’s some evidence that one can expect that the effect of other variables should be studied, like national cultural constructs, consumer socialization, and some demographic family characteristics to have important effects on adolescent’s influence on family vacation decisions.

National Cultural Constructs

In research of national values of different societies, Hofstede (1994: 4) defines culture as the “collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from those of another”. Hofstede (2001) has identified several dimensions of national culture including individualism vs collectivism and power distance, to determine the impact of culture constructs on individual consumer behaviour (Al-Zu’bi 2016). Individualism versus collectivism refers to the country’s cultural position in relation to the individual or group importance, that is, to what extent is the individual or society more valued (Chan and McNeal 2003, Hofstede 1993).

Individualism vs Collectivism

Individualism versus collectivism refers to a country's cultural position relative to the individual or group's importance (Chan and McNeal, 2002a, Hofstede 1994, 1993). The distance to power is related to the desire in a society by hierarchy versus egalitarianism (Chan and McNeal 2002a). The individuals from collectivist culture devote more attention to their families and sacrifice themselves for the communal interests of the affiliated groups than the individualistic people (Al-Zu'bi 2016). People from individualist cultures use the term "I" in their speech, while the people of the collectivist cultures frequently use the term "We" in their arguments (Mooij and Hofstede 2010). For Yang and Laroche (2011), "in Western cultures, the development of self is more separate, distinct, and independent of others. Therefore, acceptance and support from parents are sufficient for adolescents to establish a strong positive attitude toward themselves" (Yang and Laroche 2011: 9). Thus, the first hypothesis is:

H1: The adolescents will be perceived as having more influence on family purchases if they are in individualist culture than if they are in collectivist culture.

Power Distance

Hofstede (1993) has defined power distance as "the degree of inequality among people which the population of a country considers as normal: from relatively equal (that is small power distance) to extremely unequal (large power distance)" (Hofstede 1993: 89). Thus, power distance is related with the desire for a more hierarchical society or, in opposition, with the wish for a more egalitarian society (Chan and McNeal 2003). The power distance is reflected in the fact that, in a society, members who hold less power accept that power is distributed with iniquity (Hofstede 1993). Based on Hofstede (1993), it can be concluded that Western Europe countries have a low power distance. This means that parents in those countries value the obedience of adolescents compared to parents in cultures with a higher power distance. Therefore, those parents are more likely to encourage and be more open to the participation of adolescents on family decisions (Shergill et al. 2013). So, the second hypothesis is:

H2: The adolescents will be perceived as having more influence on family purchases if they are in low power distance culture than in high power distance culture.

Consumer Socialization

Adolescents' influence on consumption decisions of their parents largely depends on socialization factors such as the parental communication style, internet influence, and television influence (Aleti et al. 2015, Watne et al., 2011, 2015, Haq and Rahman 2015, Barber 2013, Kaur and Medury 2011). Amongst the diverse agents identified, parents, peers and media have received the most attention (Aleti et al. 2015, Dotson and Hyatt, 2005, Moschis and Churchill 1979).

Parental Communication Style

Parental communication style and effect on adolescent's socialization process depends, in great extent, on the parental orientation, being more restrictive or more permissive (Kushwaha 2017, Al-Zu'bi 2016, Kim et al. 2015, Yang and Laroche 2011). Several authors pointed, on the basis of concept-oriented style (COS) and socio-oriented style (SOS), four types of parental communication patterns were identified: (i) Laissez-faire (low COS, low SOS); (ii) Protective (low COS, high SOS); (iii) Pluralistic (high COS, low SOS); and (iv) Consensual (high COS, high SOS) (Sharma and Sonwaney 2013, Rose et al. 1998, Moschis and Moore 1979). The laissez–faire family is believed to have weak correspondence between parent and adolescent, the protective family demonstrates social amicability where adolescent could gain knowledge all alone to a limited extent; the pluralistic family fosters the adolescent to practice open communication, while the consensual family allows the adolescent to develop his or her own perspective on family cohesiveness (Carlson and Grossbart 1990). Past research pointed that parents with concept-oriented style consult adolescents and value their opinions in purchase decisions (Sharma and Sonwaney 2013, Rose et al. 1998, Moschis and Moore 1979).

According to Watabe and Hibbard (2014), parents with socio-oriented communication style seek to promote obedience by monitoring and controlling adolescents' consumer learning and behavior. Those researchers found that in permissive parenting style, adolescents testify that "mother did not view herself as responsible for directing and guiding my behavior as I was growing up" (Watabe and Hibbard 2014: 364).

As Rose et al. (1998) pointed, "Consensual and pluralistic mothers held more negative attitudes toward advertising than laissez-faire mothers" (Rose et al. 1998: 80). Therefore, the third hypothesis is:

H3: Adolescents with laissez-faire and pluralistic parents will be perceived as having more influence on family purchases than those with protective and consensual parents.

Internet Influence

For Kaur and Medury (2011), worldwide there has been a huge explosion in internet use, and has been a major influence on the way adolescents socialize. According to Luczak and Younkin (2012), considering the internet use as a vehicle and through its contents, it should influence adolescents' knowledge through direct experience. More, the "internet use as a vehicle and through its content, aides the formation of adolescents' attitudes towards consumption through the development of their consumption knowledge and skills" (Luczak and Younkin 2012: 49). Further, adolescents are also known to be more skilled in engaging with internet than parents. For these reasons, adolescents' internet use is also a matter of interest to academicians and marketeers (Kaur and Medury 2011, Belch et al. 2005). Thus, the perception of the effects of the socialization of adolescent consumption by agents such as the internet and television are an area of great interest in our days. The increasing use of the internet as a communication tool makes this a potentially strong socialization agent (Lee et al. 2003).

Adolescents experience the internet as a physical and social space, allowing people to talk, form relationships, discuss issues and perform many of the social tasks normally performed in the physical environment (Kaur and Medury 2011).

For Barber (2013), the internet should be considered as a potential socializing agent with a significant impact on adolescents. According to Kaur and Medury (2011), the influence of internet on the adolescent would significantly relate to his/her role in decision making. Thereby, it is expected that:

H4: Internet influence will be positively related to the adolescent's influence on family purchase decisions.

Television Influence

Informative influences of traditional mass media help guide consumers to products and brands through providing credible evidence (Barber 2013), often using the persuasive power of reputable informants such as media sources. The most influential of the mass media has been the television through advertising what brands are acceptable by society or supported by celebrities (Churchill and Moschis 1979, Moschis and Mitchell 1986). Television's influence is mostly expressive, affecting attitudes such as desire for products, brand preference, and a sense of belonging (Barber 2013). For Haq and Rahman (2015), television helps adolescents to develop product-related knowledge, consumer-role perception and influences their purchasing intentions.

Mangleburg and Bristol (1998) found that the degree of television viewing improves the adolescent's marketplace knowledge. Kushwaha (2017) found that parents who regularly watch television with adolescents could control the content to be watched and thus feel need of less intervention.

For Sharma and Sonwaney (2013), "children who received more parental restriction regarding television viewing tended to be less conscious of brand names" (Sharma and Sonwaney 2013: 34). So, one can expect that:

H5: Television influence will be positively related to the adolescent's influence on family purchase decisions.

Service Knowledge

Social power relates to a person's ability to persuade or influence others based on some attribute such as knowledge or expertise (Aleti et al. 2015, Beatty and Talpade 1994). In the case of adolescents influencing their parents in purchase decisions, such power comes from expertise and knowledge about a certain product or service (Watne et al. 2011, Beatty and Talpade 1994). Chitakunye (2012) pointed that adolescents are motivated by parents to use their cognitive skills in consumer decisions. Adolescents tend to be most knowledgeable and interested in leisure travelling, which lead to more influence attempts (Aleti et al. 2015, Watne and Winchester 2011). Baía (2018) found that adolescents actually revealed an active participation on vacation decisions when their service knowledge is high.

Thus, the service knowledge should lead to greater adolescents' influence attempts and more parental receptiveness (Chitakunye 2012, Belch et al. 2005, Shah and Mittal 1997, Beatty and Talpade 1994). Thus, the sixth hypothesis is:

H6: The adolescents will be perceived as having more influence on family purchases if they have greater service knowledge than if they have minor knowledge.

The family type is considered as an important factor when explaining the influence of the adolescent in the decisions of purchase in the family, with the adolescents in single-parent families to present significantly higher levels of influence comparatively to those from traditional families (Mangleburg et al. 1999, Ahuja et al. 1998, Ahuja 1993, Ahuja and Walker 1994, Ekstrom et al. 1987, Darley and Lim 1986). For Lackman and Lanasa (1993), the change in the influence of adolescents seems to emerge from a number of factors, the increasing increase in divorce rates (Caruana and Vassallo, 2003, Ekstrom et al. 1987). Ahuja (1993), in a comparative study between single-parent and traditional families, concluded that in their role as junior partners in the performance of management activities and emotional support of the mother, adolescents in single-parent households could also participate in decision-making process at a higher level than adolescents in traditional families. Ahuja and Walker (1994) found that children in single-parent families seem to have more influence on the purchasing decision process than their peers in traditional families (Caruana and Vassallo, 2003, Mangleburg et al. 1999, Ahuja 1993, Darley and Lim 1986, Ekstrom et al. 1987). For Ashraf and Khan (2016), Lackman and Lanasa (1993) and Ekstrom et al. (1987), the rise in single-parent families have led to an increase in the say adolescents have in family purchase decisions. Thus:

H7: The adolescents will be perceived as having more influence on family purchases if they live in single-parent families than if they live in traditional families.

Predominantly, past research has included the family characteristics as explanatory of the adolescent's influence on family purchase decisions (Kushwaha 2017, Watne et al. 2014, Neulinger and Zsoter 2014, Kaur and Medury 2013, Shergill et al. 2013). The family size was more frequent and recently considered a variable in the study of family buying decisions, with the authors pointing that the adolescent will have greater influence on purchases on larger families (Ahuja 1993, Ahuja and Stinson 1993). Therefore, it is expected that:

H8: The adolescents will be perceived as having more influence on family purchases if they are in larger size families than if they are in smaller size families.

Methodology

The present research is exploratory, aiming to examine the influences of the national cultural constructs of individualism-collectivism and power distance, and consumer socialization effects on adolescent's influence on family vacation decisions, according to the mother's perception.

The universe in this study is formed of Portuguese families, with at least one adolescent (between 12 and 19 years). There is no knowledge of studies about the impact of cultural constructs and socialization consumer on adolescent's influence on family vacations purchase in Europe, so this study offers a contribution in the family consumer behavior area.

The generality of studies used data collection from convenience samples (Aleti et al. 2015, Srivastava 2015, Kim and Lee 1997). In the present study, there was the same difficulty, due to the lack of information provided by official organisms, it was necessary to use a non-probabilistic sample. The collected sample was focused on households with at least one adolescent child between the ages of 12 and 19, which is consistent with previous research (Aleti et al. 2015, Srivastava 2015, Kim and Lee 1997, Beatty and Talpade 1994).

In the literature on this area, several authors pointed out the importance of study product or service categories for family use (Belch et al. 2005, Kim and Lee 1997, Beatty and Talpade 1994). In the present investigation the selection of the service category to be studied derives from the literature review, with the decision on the family vacations (Kim and Lee 1997, Foxman et al. 1989a, b, Foxman and Tansuhaj 1988). More, little is known about the adolescent's influence in this category of service on the final purchase decision.

The questionnaire survey was the method of data collection chosen for this study, which is consistent with past practices (Aleti et al. 2015, Srivastava 2015, Shoham and Dalakas 2005, 2003, Beatty and Talpade 1994).

The questionnaire structure aimed to pursue the research objectives outlined. A pre-test was carried out that led to small changes in the questionnaire final structure. The suggestions presented by the 18 respondents in that phase concerned some difficulty in understanding certain expressions used in the initial version. The measurement scales for variables studied were adapted from past research on this field (see Table 1).

Table 1. *Linking the Model to the Questionnaire*

Variables in study	Adapted from…
Explained variable	
• Adolescent Influence on Family Purchase Decisions	Shoham e Dalakas (2003); Beatty e Talpade (1994)
Explanatory variables	
• Individualism vs collectivism	Wu (2006), Hofstede (2001)
• Power distance	Wu (2006), Hofstede (2001)
• Parental communication style	Chan and McNeal (2003)
• Internet influence	Kaur and Medury (2011)
• Television influence	Kaur and Medury (2011)
• Service knowledge	Beatty e Talpade (1994)
• Family size	Ahuja and Stinson (1993)
• Family type	Ahuja and Stinson (1993)

Explained Variable

Several authors have used a likert scale to measure the adolescent's final decision relative influence on decision making process considering parents and adolescents participation (Shahrokh and Khosravi 2014, Mangleburg et al. 1999, Kim and Lee 1997, Beatty and Talpade 1994).

The explained variable measurement scale used was based on past research (Shoham and Dalakas 2003, Beatty and Talpade 1994). The mother's perception may in a range from 1 to 7 points (where 1 = I had no influence, and 7 = I had all influence).

Explanatory Variables

The "individualism vs collectivism" is measured using the Hofstede (2001) scale. For this variable, twelve items where used, each one in a seven-point Likert scale. For parental communication style the Chan and McNeal (2003) seven-point Likert scale was used, ranked completely disagree (1) to completely agree (7). The "internet influence" variable used Kaur and Medury (2011) nine items with seven-point Likert scale, ranked completely disagree (1) to completely agree (7). The "television influence" variable also used Kaur and Medury (2011) nine items adapted to television, with the same seven-point Likert scale, ranked completely disagree (1) to completely agree (7).

The variable "service knowledge" represents the subjective knowledge, and will be measured according to Beatty and Talpade (1994) scale. A seven-point Likert scale is used, ranked completely disagree (1) to completely agree (7). The item to be measured will be translated by the phrase: "before buying this service I would describe myself as being very familiar with this service category." The variable "family size" uses the ordinal scale of Ahuja and Stinson (1993), ranging from 2 persons to 6 or more persons. Finally, the family type used the Ahuja and Stinson (1993) dual scale.

Data Collection Procedures and Sample

The research was conducted in May 2018. In order to carry out the data collection, 15 high-schools were contacted, in Lisbon district. With regard to the sampling process, the Lisbon district presents an important demographic profile in Portugal, namely the average size of the household. Thus, letters were sent to the Executive Councils of several schools in Lisbon area, and all the schools contacted agreed to participate in the study. Then, for each school level the form teachers were contacted, and instructed the teachers in each class to provide a questionnaire and a letter to the mother of each student, requesting her participation. During this phase, 1,800 questionnaires were delivered by the teachers in the classrooms during May 2018. Students, aged 12 to 19 years, were instructed to deliver the questionnaires to their mothers and to return them, fully completed, some days later. Finally, the questionnaires were collected from the high-schools during May 2018. This resulted in a total of 726 questionnaires fully answered by mothers, which meant a response rate of 40.3%. That represents a higher rate than most of main previous studies (Kaur and Medury 2013, Shergill et al. 2013, Wu 2006).

Statistical Techniques Used

The research objectives determine the method to be used in data analysis. Several authors have used linear regression to study the adolescent's influence in family purchase decisions (Mangleburg et al. 1999, Beatty and Talpade 1994). Nonetheless, is scarce the use of logistic regression in the study of adolescent's influence on family purchasing decisions (Baía 2018). There are two main reasons for choosing logistic regression: the variables level of measurement and a binary explained variable.

Variables Measurement

The explanatory variables considered do not raise any issues regarding the use of logistic regression (Hutcheson and Sofroniou 1999). The explanatory variables considered in the present investigation involve three types of scales: categorical, ordinal and interval. Individualism-collectivism, parental communication style, internet influence, television influence, service knowledge are interval variables, with one or more items classified in Likert scales with seven points. The family size is an ordinal variable, ranging from 2 to 6 or more persons, and family type is a binary variable classified in single-parent family or traditional family.

The Explained Variable

The explained variable, measured through a seven-point range scale, was transformed into a dichotomous variable. Therefore, the values that are in the range of 5 to 7, will correspond to 0 = does not influence; and values from 1 to 4 will correspond to the value 1 = influence (Baía 2018).

Variables Selecting Method for the Logistic Regression Model

The Forward LR method of inclusion of variables will be used in logistic regression model in study. For Hutcheson and Sofroniou (1999), the ordinal or interval data can be transformed into dichotomous data, allowing its analysis the use of logistic regression models.

Data Analysis and Findings

Internal Consistency

Cronbach's α ranks high in most researcher preferences among the several available methods to estimate internal consistency. The reliability of a measure refers to its ability to be consistent (Maroco and Garcia-Marques 2006). Mostly Cronbach's α coefficients presented values above 0.8, indicating good reliability. The individualism-collectivism scale presents a value of 0.743, and being above 0.7, is taken as acceptable reliability (Gliem and Gliem 2003). The power distance scale presented a value of 0.874, almost excellent accordingly to Gliem and Gliem (2003).

The parental communication style scale has a 0.812 value, that represents a good Cronbach's α coefficient. For the internet influence, a 0.823 coefficient, also good. As for the television influence scale, 0.828 was found, which is a good Cronbach's α coefficient (idem 2003).

Profile of Respondents

The age group from 16 to 19 years old represents 61.5% of the total sample collected (see Table 2). Results also point to a distribution of 53.4% for female adolescents of the total number of adolescents under study.

Regarding mother's age, the most frequent age group is 35 to 49 years, with 70.1%. The second most frequent age group is 50 to 64 years, with a rate of 22.4% of the total of respondents.

The most frequent category of mother's educational level corresponds to high school education, with a rate of 36% of the total of respondents. The second most frequent category corresponds to basic school, with 28% of the total. Only 23.3% had a university graduation level (see Table 2).

The farmers and skilled workers represent the most frequent category concerning mother's professional category, with a rate of 18.2% of respondents. The second most frequent category corresponds to workers, builders and similar workers, with 17.6% of the total.

The most frequent household monthly post-tax income interval is the 1,001 to 1,500 euros range, with 30.7%. The second most frequent monthly income range is 500 and 1,000 euros, with 24.5% (see Table 2).

Table 2. *Profile of Respondents (percentage)*

Demographics	Valid percent	Cumulative percentage
Adolescent's age range		
12 to 15	38.5	38.5
16 to 19	61.5	100
Adolescent's gender		
Male	46.6	46.6
Female	53.4	100
Mother's age range		
25 to 34	6.6	6.6
35 to 49	70.1	76.7
50 to 64	22.4	99.2
More than 64	0.8	100
Mother's educational level		
No Schooling	1	1
Basic education	28	29
High school	36	65.6
Bachelor's Degree	5.8	71.4
Universitary graduation	23.3	94.8
Masters or PhD	5.2	100
Mother's professional category		
Housewife	11.5	11.5
Low-qualified or Unskilled Workers	8.8	20.3
Plant and Machine Operators and Assembly Workers	12.7	33.1
Workers, Builders and Similar Workers	17.6	50.7
Farmers and Skilled Workers in Agriculture and Fisheries	18.2	68.9
Service and Sales Personnel	1.7	70.6
Administrative and Similar Personnel	6.4	77
Technicians and Professionals of Intermediate Level	3.4	80.4
Specialists of the Intellectual and Scientific Professions	7.3	87.7
Senior Management and Directors	12.3	100
Family income		
Less than 500 euros	4.5	4.5
From 500 to 1,000 euros	24.5	29
From 1,001 to 1,500 euros	30.7	59.7
From 1,501 to 2,000 euros	15.2	74.9
From 2,001 to 2,500 euros	13.2	88.2
From 2,501 to 3,000 euros	5.9	94.1
From 3,001 to 5,000 euros	4.5	98.6
More than 5,000 euros	1.4	100

Table 3. *Family Demographic Characteristics (percentage)*

Demographics	Valid percent	Cumulative percentage
Family Size		
2 persons	4.7	4.7
3 persons	18.9	23.8
4 persons	35.5	59.6
5 persons	27.5	87.4
6 or more persons	12.5	100
Family type		
Single-parent	29.9	29.9
Traditional	70.1	100

The most frequent category of family size, with a rate of 35.5% of the total of respondents, is four persons. The second most frequent category corresponds to five persons' household, with 27.5% of the total (see Table 3). The traditional family represent the most frequent category concerning family type, with a rate of 70.1% of respondents, which also means that for each ten adolescents, three of them lives in a single-parent household.

Explanatory Variables

Next, the adolescent's influence on family vacations purchase explanatory variables will be analyzed.

<u>Individualism-Collectivism</u>

Individualism-collectivism adds explanatory capacity to the adolescent influence model on family vacations purchase decision. Thus, H1 is verified, so adolescents are perceived as having more influence on family purchases when they are in individualist culture than when they are in collectivist culture (see Table 4).

Table 4. *Logistic Regression for Family Vacations (variables in equation)*

	variables	B	S.E.	Wald	df	Sig.	Exp(B)	95% C.I.for EXP(B)	
								Lower	Upper
7th step	Service knowledge	0.351	0.053	43.202	1	0	1.42	1.279	1.577
	Individualism-collectivism	0.169	0.077	4.761	1	0.029	1.184	1.017	1.378
	Parental communication style	-0.186	0.084	4.895	1	0.027	0.83	0.704	0.979
	Internet influence	-0.306	0.099	9.519	1	0.002	0.736	0.606	0.894
	Television influence	0.991	0.214	2.407	1	0	2.693	1.77	4.098
	Family type	1.136	0.197	33.171	1	0	3.116	2.116	4.586
	Family size	-0.539	0.197	7.45	1	0.006	0.583	0.396	0.859
	Constant	-2.838	0.682	1.299	1	0	0059		

Power Distance

Table 5 reveals that power distance doesn't add explanatory capacity to the adolescent influence model in the decision to buy family vacations. Thus, H2 is not verified, so that adolescents in low power distance culture are not perceived as having more influence on family purchases than those in high power distance one.

Table 5. *Logistic Regression for Family Vacations (variables not in equation)*

	variables	Score	df	Sig.
7th Step	Power distance	0.001	1	0.97
	Overall Statistics	0.001	1	0.97

Parental Communication Style

Parental communication style does add explanatory capacity to the adolescent influence model in the decision to buy family vacations. Thus, H3 is verified, so adolescents with laissez-faire and pluralistic parents are perceived as having more influence on family purchases than those with protective and consensual parents (see Table 4).

Internet Influence

The internet influence adds explanatory capacity to the adolescent influence on family vacations. Therefore, H4 is verified, so internet influence is positively related to the adolescent's influence on family purchase decisions, with adolescents who receive more internet influence have greater influence on family purchases (see Table 4).

Television Influence

The television influence adds explanatory capacity to the adolescent influence on family vacations. Thus, H5 is verified, thus television influence is positively related to the adolescent's influence on family purchase decisions, so adolescents who receive more television influence have greater influence on family purchases (see Table 4).

Service Knowledge

Table 4 shows that service knowledge adds explanatory capacity to the adolescent influence model in the decision to buy family vacations. Thus, H6 is verified, so adolescents with greater service knowledge exert more influence on family vacations purchase than those adolescents with less service knowledge.

Family Type

The family type adds explanatory capacity to the adolescent influence on family vacations. Thereby, H7 is verified, so adolescents are perceived as having more influence on family purchases if they live in single-parent families than if they live in traditional families (see Table 4).

Family Size

As can be seen on Table 4, family size adds explanatory capacity to the adolescent influence on family vacations. H8 is verified, and so we can conclude adolescents are perceived as having more influence on family purchases if they are in larger size families than if they are in smaller size families.

Explanatory Variables Interpretation

For the study of the adolescent's influence on decision to buy family vacations, the -2LL analysis allows us to conclude that the exogenous variables add explaining capacity to adolescent's influence on that service purchase. This is reinforced by the Chi-square value, when pointing out that there is a large part of the model explained variance when considering individualism, parental communication style, internet influence, television influence, adolescent's service knowledge, family size and family type as purchase relevant explanatory variables.

Discussion

A total of 726 fully completed questionnaires from the surveyed was reached, which is a larger sample than most past researchers presented (Al-Zu'bi 2016, Ashraf and Khan 2016, Ali et al. 2013, Chikweche et al. 2012, Chitakunye 2012, Mangleburg et al. 1999, Darley and Lim 1986).

In line with most past studies on household purchases, the present investigation used a convenience sample (Al-Zu'bi 2016, Ashraf and Khan 2016, Ali et al. 2013, Chikweche et al. 2012, Chitakunye 2012).

Internal Validity

The divergence of opinions among family members when questioned about adolescent's influence raised, in past research, internal validation issues (Beatty and Talpade 1994, Foxman et al. 1989b, Belch et al. 1985).

Several researchers have collected data questioning one or both parents and the adolescent in studies on adolescent influence on purchasing decisions (Watne and Winchester 2011, Ishaque and Tufail 2014, Shoham and Dalakas 2005, Beatty and Talpade 1994, Foxman et al. 1989a, b, Belch et al. 1985), which has raised the issue of perception differences between the members questioned, and subsequent lack of model internal validity. The mother has been pointed out in several studies as the most reliable member of the family in that measurement (Neely 2005, Mangleburg et al. 1999, Kim and Lee 1997). Thus, in this study, the mother's inquiry was chosen, preserving internal validation of the influence construct.

When comparing mother's influence with adolescent's influence, or what one can call relative influence, the scale used shall also provide external validation (Baía 2018).

Internal Consistency

These values are consistent with previous research (Ahuja and Stinson 1993). Mostly, past researchers did not refer to the internal consistency of scales used in their studies (Al-Zu'bi 2016, Ashraf and Khan 2016, Ishaque and Tufail 2014, Ali et al. 2013, Chikweche et al. 2012, Watne and Winchester 2011, Beatty and Talpade 1994, Foxman et al. 1989a, b).

Conclusions

In light of the results found in the present research, one can conclude that: There is a significant adolescent's influence on family vacations purchase. Individualism, parental communication style, internet influence, television influence, adolescent's service knowledge, family size and structure are explanatory variables of the adolescent's influence for that purchase. The adolescent has more influence on purchase vacations for family consumption in individualistic cultures. He/she has more influence on that purchase when the dominant parental communication styles are laissez-faire and pluralistic. Also, the adolescent participation on those purchases are higher when he/she's exposed in higher degree to internet influence and to television influence. Their influence's higher when they possess higher service knowledge. Finally, the adolescents' influence as a major impact on that purchase when they live in bigger size households, and within single-parent families.

Limitations and Recommendations

Although the present research adds some important contributions to the theoretical-conceptual framework in this field, providing a response to national cultural constructs and consumer socialization effects on adolescent's influence on family vacation decisions, the results don´t entirely explain the phenomenon. Thereby, other variables must also be considered in order to provide a more complete explanation on the adolescent's influence for this service decisions. Furthermore, in this study, the use of a convenience sample does not allow us to extrapolate the results, although this procedure is consistent with past research (Aleti et al 2015, Yang et al. 2014, Chaudhary and Gupta 2012, Feng et al. 2011).

More, collecting data solely from mothers, although being considered the most reliable information source within families (Isin and Alkibay 2011, Beatty and Talpade 1994), was insufficient by some authors which have chosen to inquire both adolescent and one parent (Al-Zu'bi 2016, Ashraf and Khan 2016, Mau et al. 2014, 2016, Goswami and Khan 2015, Sondhi and Basu 2014).

Finally, it is suggested that future research studies the effect of friends as agents of socialization in the influence of adolescents. This aspect has been little attention and needs deeper research. Many have seen the internet as a way of socializing through the conviviality of teens with their peers. However, this relationship does not run out on the internet.

Research Contributions

The present research provides several contributions to this area of knowledge. In the first place, the main contribution of the present research is the suggestion of a theoretical-conceptual framework that provides explanatory capacity of national cultural constructs and consumer socialization effects on adolescent's influence on family vacation decisions, according to the mother's perception. It also reinforces the importance of including the adolescent in the final decision for family vacations, which is an innovation in this area of research.

More, the research indicated the adolescent's influence in the purchase of family vacations, which is also an innovative result in traditional families. The results of the logistic regression analysis point to individualism, parental communication style, internet influence, television influence, adolescent's service knowledge, family size and structure as purchase important explanatory variables on the considered purchase. These results are innovative in the study of family purchases.

Finally, the results point to the relevance of considering adolescent as an influencer on family vacations final decision, indicating that he/she has an important role when considering relevant services for family consumption. This can be considered a very relevant contribution, indicating that the adolescent does not only participate in the purchase of services for own use, as much of previous research indicated.

Business Implications

The study offers a contribution to the companies by providing evidence of the adolescent´s influence on the purchases of family vacations. Given the adolescents relevance within family decisions, it is important that marketers focus their efforts on adolescent satisfaction, adopting strategies adjusted to the families. Should those professionals direct the marketing messages to adolescents living in individualistic cultures. Marketers approach to family markets should also be more precise if they target adolescents in families when parental communication styles are laissez-faire and pluralistic. Their messages will also become more efficient targeting adolescents with higher internet influence, with higher television influence. It's important for companies to target also adolescents with higher service knowledge, living in bigger size families and in single-parent structures. These results are innovative in the study of family purchases when it comes to buying family vacations.

If a decision is considered to be largely influenced by adolescents, then the messages should be addressed to this family member. In the present investigation it was concluded that adolescents represent an active influential market in the family vacations, and so marketers should adopt strategies that reflect the adolescent's relative importance in those decisions, as well as the demographic characteristics of these households. On the other hand, marketers should focus their efforts not only on adolescent satisfaction in products/services for their personal use, but also on those categories for family use.

Suggestions for Future Research

In addition to the products/services that may be more associated with certain patterns of consumption characteristic of families, it is important to point out as research opportunity the study on the adolescent's influence in the purchasing decisions in those households for several other products/services. Application of the model to other services for family consumption, like eating out, hotel services, and other leisure activities. It's important to explore the behavior nature of adolescents living on single-parent contexts, and to consider specific product and service categories that those family structures demand for.

On the other hand, the services/products of perceived adolescent's influence are not properly exhausted. Research in this area should focus on the influence of adolescents in the choice of services/products that are shared by the family versus those used by the parents; explore the mechanisms of decision making between male and female across this age range; explore differences between income ranges; and to go deeper in the study of the impact of mothers' occupational status on adolescents' influence.

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The Impact of a Book Festival on a Destination's Tourism Development

By Vincenzo Asero[*] *& Venera Tomaselli*[§]

Book festivals are cultural events attracting a large number of participants, spectators and sponsorships. They are emerging worldwide as a growing sector of the tourism and leisure industries and are seen to have significant impact on the host places. Studies in tourism and hospitality management have examined the potential effects of hosting a cultural event, and revealed a variety of factors that influence the possible benefits for a destination. In many cases, the benefits lead to the repetition of the event, over the years, in the same place. These impacts have also become important factors for obtaining community-wide event support. In this regard, book festival attendance and spectators' perception may constitute opportunities for increased benefits from tourism for a host destination, enhancing the role of an event in the development of tourism. Unlike economic impacts, however, legacy and intangible impacts are somewhat difficult to evaluate. Starting from these perspectives, this research focuses on tourism impact and legacy of cultural event hosting, considering empirical evidence from a book festival in Italy.

Keywords: *Event Tourism, Book Festival, Impacts Evaluation, Legacy, Multinomial Logistic Regression Models.*

Introduction

Events are an important motivator of tourism as well as representing a key element in the development and marketing plans of many destinations. Hosting events has become an important element in cities' and regions' strategies in order to attract visitors and investments, providing a boost to the tourism sector (Getz 2008). According to Getz and Page (2016: 593) "events are both animators of destination attractiveness but more fundamentally as key marketing propositions in the promotion of places given the increasingly global competitiveness to attract visitor spending".

Events can be classified according to content, location, size, scope and importance. They are planned and organized in a place by different public institutions and private organizations, and may contain a number of activities (Getz 1997). Planned events can be classified primarily on the basis of their form and differences in their purpose, target and program. These typologies include cultural celebrations, political and state events, events in the arts and entertainment, business and trade, education and science, sporting competition, as well as recreational and private events (Getz 2008).

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Events give greater economic life to the host places and raise their profile through tourism, additional trade and business development. Moreover, the impacts of events can greatly affect the quality of life of the local residents. The organization of events creates a variety of short- or long-term, positive or negative impacts, which lead to positive or negative outcomes. In this regard, literature distinguishes the term 'impact' from 'legacy'. As opposed to 'impact' the term 'legacy' is often used in a positive manner and implies after-effects, often long-term rather than immediate 'impacts'.

Despite the differences in the definitions, legacy is a multifaceted concept that encompasses tangible and intangible outcomes (Kaplanidou and Karadakis 2010). They include effects such as community pride, social cohesion, event participation, involvement of local stakeholders, enhanced destination image, increase in tourism numbers, creation of specific infrastructures and urban (re)development. Therefore, it has been argued that strategies need to be adopted in order to take control of the territorial, economic and social impacts of events, and analysis is required when looking at the impacts of each individual event.

Studies in tourism and hospitality management have examined perceived impacts from hosting an event, and revealed a variety of factors that influence evaluations of the possible benefits. A great deal of interest has centred on economic development and tourism benefits of events, with little attention paid to legacy and intangible social impacts (Li and McCabe 2013). In addition, most of the research literature on impacts is related to sporting events rather than to festivals (McCool and Lime 2001), though both sports tourism and event tourism can be considered as sub-sets of tourism in general (Deery et al. 2004).

Although economic impacts are important, exploring social impacts may have an even more substantial influence on the community (Gibson 2007). Unlike economic impacts, however, legacy and social impacts are somewhat difficult to evaluate (Kim et al. 2015) since their measurement is a very complex process. Assessing legacy impacts entails monitoring and evaluating the long-term effects of events, which is still a neglected area of research. On the other hand, social impacts are increasingly used as one of the main justifications for staging and funding events (Richards et al. 2013).

This study focuses on the experience of people attending a book festival and explores the causal relationships among spectators' satisfaction, event and host destination features, and intentions to attend a future edition of the same festival. It was hypothesized that the level of satisfaction gained by the spectators when attending the event has an impact on their intentions to attend the same festival in the future and tested whether this relationship, which is considered as a tourism legacy impact of the event, is affected by the event itself, or the place where the event is held, or both factors. The event observed is the 8th edition of *Taobuk - Taormina Book Festival*, an international literary festival hosted in the city of Taormina, one of the most famous tourist destinations in Sicily.

This study supports the argument that, apart from economic impacts, there are long-term benefits from hosting an event for the place where it takes place. Thus, a better understanding of the above relationships can provide managerial insights for planning, over time, editions of events that are hosted in the same place.

Conceptual Background

Tourism development potentially provides many benefits, but these can be realized only if tourism is managed in order to keep the negative impacts to a minimum, while positive impacts are maximised. In this perspective, the issue of impacts for a destination arises when considering the effects generated by a tourist event attracting a large number of participants, spectators and sponsorships. Usually, there is a relationship between the development and marketing of events for tourism and economic development purposes. However, as Getz et el. (2007) found in their research, sometimes there is no relationship between events and tourism; this is due either to the organizers' specific aims, or limited or no interest in their tourism potential.

Many studies have found that events can have an influence on economic activities of the host destination. The attraction of many tourists is usually at the centre of analysis, since the host events attract many spectators with a high level of income and expenditure. However, the attempt to measure the impacts presents some difficulties, most significantly because of the problems of isolating the impacts of one event within a complex economy.

Apart from the economic impacts, within the literature the most frequently examined topics are community impacts, resident attitudes and perceptions. In this regard, different scholars have considered resident perceptions and host community reactions (e.g. Ritchie and Smith 1991, Soutar and McLeod 1993, Jeong and Faulkner 1996, Fredline and Faulkner 2000), revealing a variety of factors that influence resident evaluations of possible benefits and costs of event hosting. For instance, Baloglu and McClearly (1999), found that residents generally form their perceptions of hosting based on prior experiences, whereas Kim et al. (2006), have argued that attitude differences can be derived from residents' heterogeneity. Meanwhile Delamere et al. (2001) explored a wide range of non-economic benefits and costs of hosting festivals by measuring local community attitudes toward social impacts.

The impacts in the long-term for a place hosting an event can be considered in terms of legacy. The key difference relates to time, as impacts are short-term while legacies are long-term effects of the event (Masterman 2009). Preuss (2007) defines legacy as all that remains longer than the event itself, which may be considered as a consequence of the event in its environment (Chappelet 2012). According to Taksa et al. (2015), while impacts may result from strategic planning, legacy focuses on the different outcomes resulting from hosting the event. These outcomes include potential economic, tourism, social, physical, and/or environmental factors (Thomson et al. 2013). Thus, the measurement of legacies must consider all changes caused by an event over time, even if the most difficult part of the evaluation is the timescale when the legacies occur.

Allen et al. (2008) noted the increased importance of legacy within the event management context since the issue has become central to the decision to host or create an event. However, some authors (e.g. Matheson 2010, Thomson et al. 2013) stress that legacy is conceptualized in different ways in the academic literature as well as in the industry's practice, due to the complexities that exist around the concept. As Chappelet (2012: 26) stated, it can be seen as positive or negative, tangible or intangible, territorial or personal, intentional or unintentional, global or local and perceived from the various event stakeholders' perspectives.

Mapping the key stakeholders of an event, Jones (2010) identified as a central stakeholder the audience, that is to say, the people attending an event. This implies that taking into account audience expectations can support event organizers in making decisions and set priorities (de Prito 2013). As Oliver (1980) observed, expectations affect the experience perception after consumption in terms of satisfaction or dissatisfaction, referring the result to positive or negative feelings. Consequently, spectators' event satisfaction may affect their behavioural intention.

In tourism, the relationship among experience, satisfaction and behavioural intention is well documented (e.g. Kozak 2001, Chen and Chen 2010) even in the case of events (e.g. Shonk and Chelladular 2008, Lee and Beeler 2009, Son and Lee 2011). However, although it is recognized that tourism benefits when spectators experience a connection with the place hosting an event, the research results are different. For instance, Brown et al. (2016) explored the relationship between event satisfaction and intention to revisit a host destination among people attending the London 2012 Olympic Games, finding, in line with other studies (e.g. Kaplanidou and Vogt 2007), that the Olympic Games have not had a direct impact on intentions to revisit the host city.

In the present study, the relation between spectators' satisfaction and their intention to participate in the same event has been considered as an emotional evaluation and, therefore, a tourism legacy effect that may induce participants to repeat the experience in the future.

Explaining the Choice of Attending: Data and Models

A self-administrated questionnaire survey was conducted to collect data from spectators of *Taobuk – Taormina Book Festival*. The questions in the questionnaire were designed based on a review of the literature and specific characteristics of event tourism. The questionnaire was distributed by a team of research assistants at three venues which hosted events of *Taobuk*.

For the specific concerns of this study, some items were selected from the questionnaire in order to analyse the factors determining the tourist drawing power of the *Taobuk* by the following issues:

- motivations affecting the choice to attend the 2018 edition of the festival
- level of satisfaction
- intention of attending future editions.

A preliminary study was carried out on each scheduled event of *Taobuk* in order to calculate the number of spectators. This analysis was aimed at ensuring the optimum representativeness, stratifying the units of analysis (the spectators) by day, place and time of each event according to a non-probabilistic sampling procedure.

Responses from 437 spectators were used to test the statistical significance of the results. In inferential terms, the non-parametric χ^2 test for the hypothesis of association between the variables of the database has yielded significant results with p-value<0.05, confirming the reliability of this analysis for all the audience of *Taobuk*.

About 70% of respondents said that they knew *Taobuk*, as they had already attended other editions. This seems to support the consistency of answers given to the question about the factors affecting the choice to attend 2018 *Taobuk* edition (Table 1).

Among these factors, the ‘Typology of event’ (33.7%) is the most selected. Adding to this value the percentages expressed for factors closely linked, namely ‘Notoriety’ and ‘Organization of *Taobuk*’, the amount exceeds 40%. Therefore, the results show that *Taobuk* has acquired its audience over time, while the prevalence expressed for the ‘Typology of event’ is a key component of its attractiveness.

Table 1. *Factors of the 2018 Taobuk Edition Attending Choice*

	Frequency	**%**	**Valid %**	**Cumulative %**
Taormina location	57	13.0	13.6	13.6
Typology of event	141	32.3	33.7	47.4
Notoriety of *Taobuk*	23	5.3	5.5	52.9
Organization of *Taobuk*	8	1.8	1.9	54.8
Tourist services in Taormina	3	0.7	0.7	55.5
Quality of tourist services	2	0.5	0.5	56.0
Hospitality of Taormina	9	2.1	2.2	58.1
Other factors	26	5.9	6.2	64.4
Taormina Location + Typology of event	58	13.3	13.9	78.2
Other combinations	91	20.8	21.8	100.0
Total	418	95.7	100.0	
Missing System	19	4.3		
Total	437	100.0		

The other important factor is ‘Taormina location’ (13.6%). Also in this case, the value increases (17%) adding other items describing Taormina as a tourism destination, namely 'Tourist services', 'Quality of tourist services' and 'Hospitality of Taormina'.

Even the multiple combination 'Taormina location' with 'Typology of event' reaches a percentage of 13.9%, confirming the relevance of these two factors in the choice of attending *Taobuk*. It is clear, therefore, that *Taobuk*, beyond its own attractiveness, finds in Taormina an important complement to its appeal.

On the other hand, *Taobuk* is also an event promoting the image of Taormina as a tourist destination and can produce positive effects for the economic activities of the territorial area.

The level of satisfaction expressed by the 8th edition *Taobuk* audience is measured by means of a continuous scale with scores from 1 to 10. Specifically, the higher percentages are for positions 7 (29.1%), 8 (29.7%) and 9 (12.6%) of the *continuum*.

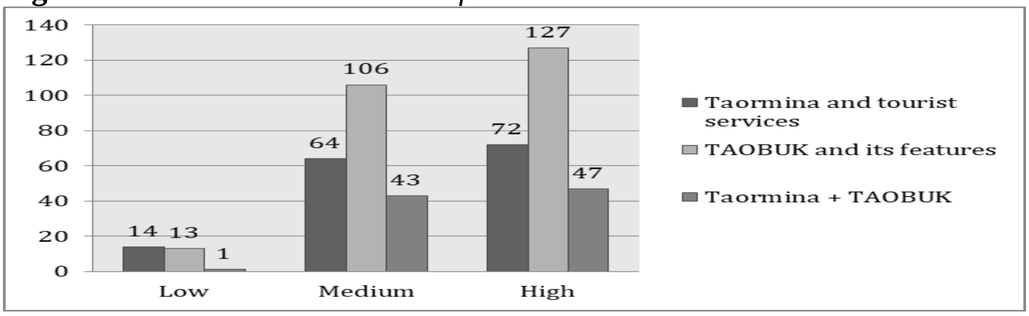
Since the chosen positions were largely polarized on few recurrent values, the positions were classified into three categories (Table 2): the first is low level - aggregating the scores from 1 to 5 (8.5%), the second is medium level for scores 6 and 7 (40.9%) and, finally, high level aggregating scores from 8 to 10 (50.6%).

Table 2. *Satisfaction Level of Expectations Related to Taobuk*

	Frequency	%	Valid %	Cumulative %
Low	29	6.6	8.5	8.5
Medium	139	31.8	40.9	49.4
High	172	39.4	50.6	100.0
Total	340	77.8	100.0	
Missing System	97	22.2		
Total	437	100.0		

On the basis of the previous results, factors related to Taormina and to *Taobuk* were, firstly, aggregated into two variables – 'Taormina and its tourist services' and '*Taobuk* and its features' - selected by 47.6% of respondents and 73.4%, respectively, and then crossed with the level of satisfaction.

Figure 1. *Choice Factors and Satisfaction Level*



As shown in Figure 1, *Taobuk* is the most relevant factor in the choice of attending when the satisfaction level is medium and high.

The highest percentage (70%) of respondents would attend future editions of the festival (Table 3), but the share of those who have not decided is relevant (24%).

Table 3. *Intention to attend Future Taobuk Editions*

	Frequency	**%**	**Valid %**	**Cumulative %**
Yes	279	63.8	69.9	69.9
No	24	5.5	6.0	75.9
I do not know	96	22.0	24.1	100.0
Total	399	91.3	100.0	
Missing System	38	8.7		
Total	437	100.0		

Analysing the satisfaction level related to the intention to attend future editions, 'Yes' prevails (72.2%) for the medium and high level. The higher the level of satisfaction, the more supported is the intention to attend future *Taobuk* editions. Hence, the highest percentage (44.4%) of respondents who would attend future editions of the festival is the most satisfied.

The multinomial (polytomous) logistic regression (MLR) modelling is employed in the present data analysis to determine if the intention to attend future editions of *Taobuk*, as Y-dependent variable with more than two nominal or unordered categories, is affected by both the factors related to Taormina (X_1-independent variable) or *Taobuk* (X_2-independent variable) as defined above, and the satisfaction level just experienced in the 2018 edition of the festival (X_3-independent variable).

In the present study, the relationship models proposed are based on the following main hypotheses:

- H_1: The higher the probability of Taormina and its services to affect the intention of attending the future *Taobuk* editions, the higher the probability that this intention is positive;
- H_2: The higher the probability of *Taobuk* and its features to affect the intention of attending the future editions of the festival, the higher the probability that this intention is positive;
- H_3: The higher the level of satisfaction for the 2018 *Taobuk* edition, the higher the probability of positive intention is for future editions attending;
- H_4: The higher the probability of the interaction effect between Taormina and *Taobuk*, the higher the probability for positive behavioural intention is for the future.

In addition, the interaction effects both between Taormina and satisfaction levels for the 2018 *Taobuk* edition, and between *Taobuk* and the influence of satisfaction levels on the probability of attending future editions, have been analysed.

Furthermore, having selected the highest and the lowest satisfaction levels for 2018 *Taobuk* edition, the previous hypotheses are re-tested.

With the aim to test each hypothesis, MLR models are estimated, because analysis is focused on the relationships between a nonmetric dependent variable and categorical independent variables (factors). It compares multiple categories of the Y-dependent variable, to predict the likelihood of the categorical outcome variable given a set of X_n-independent variables (Agresti 1990).

In addition, most multivariate analysis procedures require the basic assumptions of normality and continuous data for independent and/or dependent variables. MLR is used whenever the above assumptions tend to be violated (Tabachnick et al. 2001), as in the data of the present study. MLR models are based on the probability of membership of each $n - 1$ category of the Y-dependent variable compared to a baseline or reference category (Greene 2012). Estimating the model, the coefficients of the reference category are normalized to zero (Maddala 1990) because the probabilities for all the categories must sum up to 1 (Greene 2012).

Furthermore, in MLR two different statistics are used: the (log) likelihood ratio (often referred to as the *-2* Log Likelihood or deviance) and the Wald test. In general, the likelihood ratio gives more reliable results than the Wald statistic (Hosmer and Lemeshow 2000). As a consequence, the following analysis of results is mainly focused on the likelihood ratio.

Results

In order to test if the relationship between satisfaction level for the 2018 edition and the motivations to attend *Taobuk,* referred either to Taormina or *Taobuk* or both, affects the intention to attend future editions of the festival, some multinomial logistic models were estimated.

The first model (Table 4) checks the hypothesis H_1 about the effect of Taormina on the intention to attend the future *Taobuk* editions. The association between the two variables is very significant (χ^2=280.453, p-value<0.001 and the measures of goodness of fit are all close to 1). The relationship between the two variables, then, likely exists and the hypothesis test about the causal effect is supported.

Using 'I do not know' as reference category for the dependent variable, the values of β-coefficients are very significant (p-value<0.001) both in the case of intention to attend or not and also for Taormina and not Taormina. Specifically, the attending choice is related to elements not referred to Taormina (β=1.418 for TAO=0) and the probability to attend (Exp(β)=4.128), is 4 times higher than for the reference category ('I do not know'), whereas for Taormina and tourist services (TAO=1) this probability is lower. For the relationship between the intention of not attending future editions and Taormina, the signs of β-

coefficients are negative in both the case Taormina (-1.079) or not Taormina (-1.872). Therefore, Taormina is not an important factor affecting the intention to attend future editions.

Table 4. *Parameter Estimates of Causal Effects on Intention to attend Taobuk Future Editions (Y-dependent variable) by Taormina (X-independent variable)*

Intention to attend		***B***	**Std. Error**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(β)**	**95% Confidence Interval for Exp(β)**	
								Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**
Yes	[TAO=0]	1.418	.178	63.113	1	.000	4.128	2.910	5.857
	[TAO=1]	.798	.170	21.925	1	.000	2.220	1.590	3.100
No	[TAO=0]	-1.872	.439	18.219	1	.000	.154	.065	.363
	[TAO=1]	-1.079	.281	14.765	1	.000	.340	.196	.589
The reference category is: '*I do not know*'.									
No	[TAO=0]	-3.290	.416	62.598	1	.000	.037	.016	.084
	[TAO=1]	-1.876	.260	51.901	1	.000	.153	.092	.255
I do not know	[TAO=0]	-1.418	.178	63.113	1	.000	.242	.171	.344
	[TAO=1]	-.798	.170	21.925	1	.000	.450	.016	.084
The reference category is: '*Yes*'.									
Yes	[TAO=0]	3.290	.416	62.598	1	.000	26.833	11.878	60.617
	[TAO=1]	1.876	.260	51.901	1	.000	6.529	3.919	10.878
I do not know	[TAO=0]	1.872	.439	18.219	1	.000	6.500	2.752	15.353
	[TAO=1]	1.079	.281	14.765	1	.000	2.941	1.696	5.099

The reference category is: '*No*'.

Changing the reference category ('Yes, I would like to attend the *Taobuk* future editions'), all the β-values are very significant and the most important relationship is negative between 'No, I will not attend' and no element referred to Taormina (β=-3.290). Hence, the higher the probability linked to the intention of not attending, the lower the occurrence of Taormina is. Examining the 'I do not know if I will attend', the sign of β-values are negative. This result is consistent with the previous and shows that Taormina does not affect the choice to attend *Taobuk*.

Finally, the probability of attending is very high (Exp(β)=26.833) for the elements not related to Taormina compared to the reference category ('No'). Taormina is not very attractive but the positive intention to attend is more likely than to not attend, even if the factors are not just related to Taormina and its services. The hypothesis H_1 about the effect of Taormina on the intention to attend the future *Taobuk* editions is significant, but the expected causal effect is likely not due to Taormina and its services.

The second model (Table 5) checks the hypothesis H_2 about the effect of *Taobuk* on the intention to attend the future *Taobuk* editions. The association relationship between the two variables is very significant (χ^2=310.289, *p*-value< 0.001).

Table 5. *Parameter Estimates of Causal Effects on Intention to attend Taobuk Future Editions (Y-dependent variable) by Taobuk (X-independent variable)*

Intention to attend		***B***	**Std. Error**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(β)**	**95% Confidence Interval for Exp(β)**	
								Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**
Yes	[TAOB=0]	.187	.217	.742	1	.389	1.205	.788	1.843
	[TAOB=1]	1.504	.156	92.547	1	.000	4.500	3.312	6.114
No	[TAOB=0]	-.891	.297	9.006	1	.003	.410	.229	.734
	[TAOB=1]	-1.966	.404	23.736	1	.000	.140	.063	.309

The reference category is: '*I do not know*'.

No	[TAOB=0]	-1.078	.289	13.860	1	.000	.340	.193	.600
	[TAOB=1]	-3.470	.384	81.752	1	.000	.031	.015	.066
I do not know	[TAOB=0]	-.187	.217	.742	1	.389	.830	.543	1.269
	[TAOB=1]	-1.504	.156	92.547	1	.000	.222	.164	.302

The reference category is: '*Yes*'.

Yes	[TAOB=0]	1.078	.289	13.860	1	.000	2.938	1.666	5.180
	[TAOB=1]	3.470	.384	81.752	1	.000	32.143	15.149	68.198
I do not know	[TAOB=0]	.891	.297	9.006	1	.003	2.438	1.362	4.362
	[TAOB=1]	1.966	.404	23.736	1	.000	7.143	3.239	15.754

The reference category is: '*No*'.

Using 'I do not know' as reference category, the value of β-coefficient is very significant (p-value<0.001) only if the intention to attend is affected by *Taobuk* and its features (β=1.504) and the positive sign shows that if the intention to attend increases/decreases, then the factor related to *Taobuk* also increases/decreases. The probability to attend is 4.5 times higher than the probability linked to 'I do not know' reference category, given *Taobuk* and its features. *Taobuk*, then, is a very important factor for choosing to attend the future editions of the festival. Furthermore, the choice of not attending is negatively related more to features referred to *Taobuk* (β=-1.966) than no *Taobuk* (β=-0.891). Then, the results show that the intention to not attend future editions is not caused by the features of *Taobuk*.

Assuming 'Yes' as reference category, the intention to not attend and 'I do not know' are closely related to *Taobuk* but the higher the probability of to not attend, the lower the probability of *Taobuk* as choice factor is.

Finally, with the reference category 'No, I will not attend *Taobuk* future editions', interesting is the β=3.470 between *Taobuk* and its features and the choice of attending future editions: the higher the intention to attend, the higher the probability of the occurrence of *Taobuk* and its features is with a probability of attending, given *Taobuk*, 32 times more than of not attending (Exp(β)=32.143).

The third model (Table 6) checks the hypothesis H_3 about the effect of satisfaction level for the 2018 edition on the intention to attend the future *Taobuk* editions. The association relationship between the two variables is high and very significant (χ^2=325.712, *p*-value<0.001) and the values of the indicators of goodness of fit are very close to 1.

Table 6. *Parameter Estimates of Causal Effects on Intention to attend Taobuk Future Editions (Y-dependent variable) by Satisfaction Level for the 2018 Edition (X-independent variable)*

Intention to attend	*Satisfaction level*	***B***	**Std. Error**	**Wald**	**df**	**Sig.**	**Exp(*β*)**	**95% Confidence Interval for Exp(*β*)**	
								Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**
Yes	Low	.357	.493	.524	1	.469	1.429	.544	3.753
	Medium	.862	.193	19.864	1	.000	2.368	1.621	3.460
	High	1.974	.239	68.435	1	.000	7.200	4.510	11.494
No	Low	.357	.493	.524	1	.469	1.429	.544	3.753
	Medium	-2.539	.600	17.924	1	.000	.079	.024	.256
	High	-2.303	.742	9.640	1	.002	.100	.023	.428

The reference category is: '*I do not know*'.

No	Low	.000	.447	.000	1	1.000	1.000	.416	2.403
	Medium	-3.401	.587	33.585	1	.000	.033	.011	.105
	High	-4.277	.712	36.079	1	.000	.014	.003	.056
I do not know	Low	-.357	.493	.524	1	.469	.700	.266	1.839
	Medium	-.862	.193	19.864	1	.000	.422	.289	.617
	High	-1.974	.239	68.435	1	.000	.139	.087	.222

The reference category is: '*Yes*'.

Yes	Low	.000	.447	.000	1	1.000	1.000	.416	2.403
	Medium	3.401	.587	33.585	1	.000	30.000	9.496	94.773
	High	4.277	.712	36.079	1	.000	72.000	17.835	290.662
I do not know	Low	-.357	.493	.524	1	.469	.700	.266	1.839
	Medium	2.539	.600	17.924	1	.000	12.667	3.910	41.033
	High	2.303	.742	9.640	1	.002	10.000	2.337	42.783

The reference category is: '*No*'.

Using 'I do not know' as reference category, the *β*-values are significant only for the medium and high level of satisfaction. Specifically, the high level is positively very related to intention to attend (*β*=1.974) and the probability to attend is more 7 times than the reference category Exp(*β*)=7.200. As a consequence, the more likely the intention to not attend, the lower is the satisfaction level.

Taking into account as reference category 'Yes, I would like to attend the *Taobuk* future editions', the significant effects of medium and high satisfaction level on the intention to not attend are negatively related. The higher the satisfaction level, the lower the probability of the intention to not attend is, as shown by the values of the odds of not attending, too.

With the 'No, I will not attend the *Taobuk* future editions' as reference category, the relationship between high satisfaction levels and the intention to attend is positive (*β*=4.277), Remarkable are the values of the odds for high and medium satisfaction level. The intention to attend future editions, indeed, is 72 times more likely, given high level and 30 times, given the medium level, than for the 'No' reference category.

Finally, for any reference category, the β-values for low satisfaction level are always not significant. This is likely due to the reduced number of units (29, 8.5%) classified in this level.

The hypothesis H_3 about the effect of satisfaction levels for the 2018 edition on the intention to attend the future *Taobuk* editions is strongly supported by the results and the causal effect is more likely due to the high than medium level.

Furthermore, in order to check H_4 for the interaction effects of Taormina and its services and also *Taobuk* and its features, both and separately with satisfaction levels of expectations (H_5 and H_6) for the 2018 edition of *Taobuk*, the full factorial method employed to estimate the parameters produces no significant interaction effect, even if the Likelihood Ratio test was just significant only for H_5 ,Taormina and satisfaction level interaction effect *(-2 Log Likelihood of Reduced Mode*l=43.471, *p*-value<0.05).

At a subsequent stage, the same hypotheses above were checked on segment of highest level of satisfaction (H_7). Thus, selecting only 172 subjects (50.6% of the full sample), we obtain significant results only for the intention to attend the future *Taobuk* editions with β-values much more robust than the previous analysis with the full sample. The effect of Taormina is extremely interesting: on this segment, it is more evident when linked to the *Taobuk* effect but not significant for the interaction effect between Taormina and *Taobuk*, although we have checked this, too.

Finally, selecting the lowest level of satisfaction (H_8), no significant result for any effect, likely due to the fact that there are too few subjects (29) in this segment, as also occurred for the previous model.

Discussion and Conclusion

Events are animators of destination attractiveness that attract media attention around the world, which could be a useful way to improve the hosting places' image. Numerous authors agree on the important perceived role of events in changing or enhancing the destination image of the host places (Chalip et al. 2003, Gursoy and Kendall 2006). Meanwhile, events can create a sense of values and beliefs for the tourism industry.

Events have become of interest in tourism due to the potential they offer to generate different types of impacts, among which economic and social ones are mostly emphasized by event organizers and analysed by researchers. Many studies on the impacts of events concentrate on the issue of economic impact (Kasimati 2003, Hall 2004, Richards and Wilson 2004). However, exploring social impacts may have an even more substantial importance since they are considered as key factors underpinning a rationale for investment in hosting events (Fredline et al. 2003). Hence, legacies contribute to the success of hosting events, with effects that continue into the future.

Although difficult to measure, social impacts are observed in different areas, including tourist satisfaction with the event itself (EventIMPACTS as cited in Li and McCabe 2013). Experience quality significantly influences satisfaction, and satisfaction affects behavioural intentions. This relationship supports the idea that "visitors with high levels of satisfaction are more likely to have an affirmative attitude of the experience, have higher intentions of revisiting a destination" (Lee and Beeler 2009: 18).

In the current study the above-cited findings seemed to be partially confirmed. Hence, spectators' 2018 edition of *Taobuk* satisfaction has a significant effect on their intention to attend future edition of this festival, and the causal effect is more likely in the case of high and medium levels of satisfaction. However, although the effect of Taormina, the place where *Taobuk* is held, on the intention to attend future editions of *Taobuk* is significant, the expected casual effect to repeat the experience is likely not due to Taormina and the tourist services of this destination. On the contrary, the results show that *Taobuk* has a direct and strong effect on the intention to attend the future edition of the festival. This may be partially explained by the fact that many people who attend an event are interested solely in the event (Osti et al. 2012).

At the same time, this study found that there is a relationship between the host place of Taormina and the level of event satisfaction. It has a particular value since Taormina plays the role of providing place identity, and is symbolic for *Taobuk* on many levels, from the name of the book festival to the scenic views on offer. This has an important implication for destination management, although the results showed that Taormina is not an important factor affecting the intention to attend future editions of *Taobuk*. This relationship is consistent with Brown et al. (2016: 169) who claim that "the benefits of investing in venues with which spectators gain a psychological connection may extend beyond the event experience to the city as a tourist destination".

These results imply that experience satisfaction may be considered as a legacy effect of *Taobuk*, since it can affect the spectators' intention to attend future edition of the same event. In addition, the findings suggest that a beneficial relationship may exist between the event and the destination where the event is held. Therefore, some practical strategies can be adopted by event organizers in planning future editions of *Taobuk* and targeting favourable event markets, reinforcing the positioning of the local tourism destination product. On the other hand, as Lee et al. (2007: 402) stated "festival organizers are likely to contend that their primary goal is to provide high quality, satisfying experiences that visitors perceive to be good value in order to increase the probability that the visitors will return in the future and/or recommend the festival to others in their social circle".

To enhance the effectiveness of such initiatives, *Taobuk* organizers could also be more active on social media for the collection of data to be turned into information to support decision-making processes. Hence, social media could be useful to enable the faster identification of factors influencing attendance preferences and evaluations (Ravindran et al. 2018). Thus, the use of Big Data (Boyd and Crawford 2012) through social media and digital interactions can provide new insights for creating new sources, beyond traditional sources of data as a natural part of event planning and management.

Acknowledgements

Financial support: Ricerca di Ateneo - Piano per la Ricerca 2016/2018.

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From Eco-Tourism to Ego-Tourism: Fluctuations in Human View on Nature over Time

By Sandra M. Granquist[*], Per Åke Nilsson[†], Anders Angerbjörn[‡]

Human view on nature has fluctuated over time, depending on contemporary knowledge and beliefs. In recent centuries, the view has shifted from an instrumental to an existential apprehension of nature. This development has contributed to the emergence of nature-based tourism. By using nature-based tourism as an example, we explore trends and tendencies concerning use and views of nature. Today, it is regarded politically correct to consider nature based on ethical standpoints deriving from scientific research results, which have been addressed as cornerstones to cope with negative anthropogenic effects on nature. However, concurrently with the emerging existentialism and individualism in society, these ethical standpoints have been questioned, which can potentially create a trend where people act against political correctness. We explore how this affects the human view on nature, and debate the emergence of a trend towards a more individualistic consumptive nature-based tourism, called ego-tourism, as well as how this trend may affect tourism and wildlife conservation.

Keywords: *Eco-Tourism, Ego-Tourism, Wildlife Conservation, Political Correctness, Nature.*

Introduction

Throughout the last five centuries, views on nature have fluctuated between an instrumental and utilitarian apprehension or an existential and idealistic apprehension, depending on contemporary established knowledge and beliefs (Adey 2010, Atkinson 1991). During medieval times, nature was often considered from an instrumental, quantitative, point of view as something to use for own profit or own comfort (Arler 2003, Burkart and Medlik 1990). The usefulness was often measured by size of area, vegetation, animal livestock and access to game animals, or its applicability to commercial activities (Briassoulis 2002). In recent times, a more or less existential apprehension of nature has instead developed among people (Towner 1996). During the modernist era of the 20th century with its positive views on the never-ending improvement of human development, further efforts were taken to merge the instrumental and existential views on nature (Urry 1990). Individuals with a qualitative view on nature often build their attitude on existential assumptions, like impact of nature on well-being of the visitors (Bredesdorff 1975, Walton 2009). The existential attitude towards nature was

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later criticized by resistance groups claiming that attitudes should not only be based on human convenience, but also on scientific research results regarding how to preserve nature for the future. These arguments were performed, embodied and enacted across different political and cultural contexts, and are today labelled as political correctness (Coccossis and Mexa 2004, Eber 1992).

In this article we explore fluctuations in human views on nature based on contemporary knowledge and beliefs by using nature-based tourism as a setting. The human view on nature has changed, from a scenario when humans were considered to dominate nature to a new scenario where nature dominates humans in the sense that individuals are expected to consider the importance of preserving nature. In recent times, environmental awareness has increased in importance in society in general, which also affects nature-based tourism. It is regarded politically correct to view nature based on ethical standpoints deriving from scientific research results. These standpoints should be considered as cornerstones to cope with negative anthropogenic effects on nature, for example in nature-based tourism settings. A large responsibility is put on each individual regarding environmental friendliness and concurrently with the emerging existentialism and individualism in the society, ethical standpoints have been questioned, which can potentially create a trend where people act against political correctness. The aim of the paper is to investigate how the changing view on nature may form a personal feeling of being an outsider concerning the attitude towards nature. By using nature-based tourism to exemplify the scenario, we endeavour to identify why not everyone follows what is currently considered as politically correct in society and/or what is suggested by contemporary research findings regarding how nature should be treated. The paper is organized in three sections. Firstly, changes in human attitudes towards nature historically and in recent times are reviewed, with a focus on nature-based tourism. Secondly, we outline possible reasons why people don´t recognize recommendations on how to treat nature based on ecological research findings and debate possibilities of an emerging ego-tourism trend. The final section concludes our findings.

Literature Review

Background

The normal relation to nature during medieval and early modern times was a conception of something frightening and inhuman, underpinned by the Christian view that nature was something given by God to man for optional use (Davidson and Spearritt 2000, Dowden 2000, Giddens 1985, Towner 1996). Nature-based tourism was not practiced during ancient times. Instead, tourism was manifested by three other objectives: health by visit to mineral wells, faith by pilgrimage to sacred places, and pure curiosity (Kapuscinski 2005, Ousby 1990).

This instrumental view on domesticated nature continued during the 16th and 17th centuries (Figure 1), but during the romantic 18th century, nature instead became regarded as a place where people could rest and find themselves and where it was possible to "see God on his back" (Linné 1735). The first sign of that shift in significance was the concept *civilization* as an urban lifestyle where wilderness became something ennobling (Rousseau 1762). Between the 17th and 19th centuries, the focus of travelling shifted scholastically from being an opportunity for discourse to enthusiasm for "eyewitness" observation of nature and wilderness (Adler 1989). This existential feeling of nature was found in more or less remote places, but for convenience nature was also brought into cities in the form of parks during this time, offering an escape from civilization without leaving town. For upper- and middle-class people it was however, possible to afford a place outside town to go to during the summer months. These romantic views were common until the end of the 19th century and in many ways, tourism became regarded as equal to a visit to nature (Adey 2010).

The definite breakthrough of nature-based tourism emerged in the 1930s due to the successfully enforced paid vacations for employees. Together with new transport possibilities like bicycle and car (Pearce 1989), a new type of tourism - pleasure-seeking - appeared, where nature became a place for amusement and discovery (Walton 2009). The real democratization of tourism by charter made it possible also for people outside the upper-classes to leave home for holiday (Adey 2010). During the first half of the 20th century, *positivism*, with its focus on experience, was seen as the principle tool to achieve knowledge, especially concerning nature status and development (Comte 1842, Kuhn 1962, Piore and Sabel 1984, Schumpeter 1942). This resulted in a new trend in society, *modernism*, with its optimistic belief that the children of today will be better off as adults than their parents. Participation in cultural heritage was claimed to be a basic human right (Boniface 1995, Cohen 1988) and nature became a similar right for everybody to experience, although not labelled as a heritage (Butler 1991).

Nature Predicament: Use and Preserve

During the last decades of the 20th century, the modernist era with its collectiveness had changed to a more individualistic view on life where responsibility of actions shifted more or less from authorities, such as the state and municipalities, to the individual citizen (Derrida 1967, Foucault 1972, Lyotard 1984). New concepts emerged on the agenda like social capital and human resources, with a focus on the individual (Burt 1997, Coleman 1990, Gibson 2006, Lin 2001, Putnam 1993). This shift in responsibility from authorities to individuals also concerned the environment and, consequently, nature-based tourism (Lickorish 1991, Lindberg et al. 2001). Concurrently, the awareness of potential anthropogenic effects on the environment became more evident and a general radical concern for the future of the earth developed in society (Carson 1962, Green et al. 1990). As an example, the think tank Club of Rome presented a manifest in 1972 called *Limits to Growth* stating that prevalent negative trends will create a disastrous situation for the globe if nothing is done concerning four central issues: shortage of raw materials, uncontrolled population increase, finite amount of energy sources, and an exploding waste problem (Meadows et al. 1972).

In line with the general trend in environmental awareness, the negative impact of tourism became increasingly overt (Boissevin 1996, Deaden and Harron 1994, Hunter 1997) and hence affected the ideology of how to manage nature-based tourism (Figure 1). The new policy was labelled "use and preserve". This environmentally based discourse on tourism revolves around how to balance use and protection of nature in a sustainable way which preserves both natural and socio-cultural capital, but also satisfies the needs of tourists (Farell 1992, Hunter 1997, Ko 2001). Even if this act of balance exists in overarching views, e.g. that nature is a privilege that has been given to us and that the wellbeing of the environment is important, it may be controversial to bring about responsibility on an individual level to both using and protecting nature at the same time. A prerequisite for successful implementation of such an arrangement is reciprocal understanding from both users and protectors (Ballantyne et al. 2009, Budenau 2007, Fennel 2013).

Tourism Development: A Major Threat to the Globe

One conclusion of the Club of Rome panel discussions was that the human living space, the biosphere, with its inclusion of all forms of life on earth, is limited. It was stated as something that should not be looked upon as a static condition but changing over time, a movement towards something inevitable and occasionally undefined (Meadows et al. 1972). This plastic capacity of the biosphere, regarded as something with positive consequences during the modernist era (e.g. Nicolis and Prigogine 1989, Piore and Sabel 1984), has during the recent decades instead become considered to head in disastrous directions (Buchner 2009).

The depressing news from the Club of Rome was followed up at a world conference in Rio de Janeiro twenty years later, prepared by UN. The documentation from the conference is called *Agenda for the 21st century* or simply *Agenda 21*. The commission stated that the problems mentioned by the Club of Rome as manageable, could now be considered as almost insurmountable climate problems for the world rulers during the next century. It would not be possible to offer reasonable living conditions to the next generations unless extraordinary undertakings were made, most of them inconvenient for mankind. It became everyone's concern to contribute to the development of the world's capacity to host its population (The UN World Commission on Environment and Development 1991).

The number of tourists increased globally from 200 million arrivals in 1975 to 1,4 billion in 2019 (UNWTO News 2019). Despite awareness of the consequences of the number of tourists, post-modernism fostered the same longing for escapism as during the romantic era (Gmelch 2003), fleeing ordinary daily life to escape to a "neutral" place where nature offers fresh air, clean water and untouched waterholes (Jacobsen 2011). Following the increased awareness of anthropogenic effects on the environment, a contribution from tourism became regarded as necessary to help solve these problems not only for maintaining cultural heritage (Boorstin 1961, Turner and Ash 1975), but also as a reduction of the threat to the environment (Buzard 1993, Hammit and Cole 1998). The concept of eco-tourism developed during the nineties and was defined frequently by multiple authors. An early definition was put forward by the Ecotourism Association of Australia (1992) as "ecologically sustainable tourism that is protecting the natural environment and encouraging understanding, appreciation and conservation of cultural elements". More recent definitions often also included the terms education, ethics, impacts and local benefits (Fennell 2001). Further, since clean water and undamaged nature are not endless commodities, the concept alternative tourism developed and was, at this time, launched as a sustainable method for visiting nature by balancing use and maintenance (Atkinson 1991, Mose 1998, Smith and Eadington 1992). It resulted in a lot of various concepts such as hiking, mountain trekking, biking and canoeing (Boissevin 1996, Nilsson 2002).

In the context of nature-based tourism, attempts to reach an equilibrium between using and protecting have included research on how to disseminate knowledge from academia (deriving from disciplines such as biology and tourism science) to society. As an example, wildlife watching tourism is known to sometimes have detrimental effects on wild animal populations. However, if equilibrium between using (watching) and protecting the animals can be obtained, wildlife watching has a potential to facilitate satisfaction for both tourists and the wildlife (Carney and Sydeman 1999, Cassini 2000, Christiansen et al. 2010, Fennel and Ebert 2004, Granquist and Sigurjónsdóttir 2014). A way to cope with the problem has been to use teleological (explanatory) instead of ontological (banning) approaches, where reasons for why behaviour can have detrimental effects have motivated tourists to behave appropriately (Granquist and Nilsson 2016, Marschall et al. 2016). Even if not all visitors follow explained recommendations, the concept has the potential to generate a tolerable situation.

In the context of wildlife tourism, different views on values of animal species can complicate the attempt to reach equilibrium between using and protecting nature. Consequently different situations require divergent solutions, sometimes contradictory to each other (Curtin 2005, Nilsson 2012). In some cases, a given species is considered an essential resource for mankind by some, while others consider the species absolutely non-consumptive. An example is the situation in Iceland, where whale watching is a large industry in the same area as whaling occurs, which has created ethical discussions in the society (Burns et al. 2018). The trophy hunting tourism industry in Africa is another example of a complex scenario. Although the industry has frequently been claimed to have good intentions for wild animal conservation as well as for locals due to economical contributions and creation of new jobs associated with the industry, trophy hunting tourism has also been criticized. Recently, Humane Society International pointed out that the claimed economic and conservation benefits of the trophy hunting tourism industry is exaggerated (Murray 2017). Further, in some cases, animals are harvested based on their expression of secondary sexual traits such as horns or antlers. Since there may be a correlation between expression of these traits and the individual animal's overall fitness, selective harvest of males with the largest secondary sexual traits can lead to extinction in otherwise resilient animal populations (Knell and Martinez-Ruiz 2017). Sometimes wild animals, such as lions, are bred with the sole purpose of trophy hunting by foreign tourists, which has created further ethical discussion. Barham (2013) described this type of hunting as "canned hunting" (Barham 2013).

These ethical standpoints differ from a romantic view where nature just functions as a stage where people can perform on their terms, to a view where nature deserves to perform on its own terms and conditions (Bramwell and Lane 2011, Brouder 2013, Böhm and Pfister 2011, Redpath et al. 2015).

Despising Political Correctness

Conservation, biosphere and ethics are well-defined concepts within natural science, and they reflect an accepted view among scientists in questions concerning ecology (Beaumon e al. 2008, Boncoeur et al. 2002, Coccossis and Mexa 2004, Dodds et al. 2010, González and Bello 2002). However, there is no consensus concerning the individual human responsibility for the future of the environment, as most stakeholders both within and outside the tourism industry are supposed to take some responsibility (Granquist 2016, Ioannides and Petridou 2015, Mäkitie and Ylisirniö 2013). This may create uncertainty and a lack of confidence regarding how to act, or in some cases even cause arrogance towards the approach recommended by scientists. One rather influential opinion, adhere to an approach of political incorrectness (Bridges and Wilhelm 2008, Hughes 2013). This group may deny facts accepted by scientists, even if there are adducing examples proving scientists right. Studies from the USA show that this occurs not only among poorly educated people but also in scientific surroundings and it is possible to deny even proven facts if they are contrary to own conception (Garrett 2006, Jarrick 2017, Nyhan et al. 2017). A typical argument could be: "The environmental benefits of using fossil fuels far outweigh the risks. Fossil fuels don't take a naturally clean environment and make it dirty; they take a naturally dirty environment and make it clean" (related in Epstein 2014).

Consequently, it is not astonishing when some tourists despise political correctness on purpose. They see nature as a place to which all are entitled for recreation and amusement and/or have a desire to demonstrate repudiation of the importance of nature. Nature itself becomes considered as something that stands in the way of their freedom (Ankre 2007, Lindsey et al. 2007). This political in-correctness is currently found when describing politics (Wierlemann 2002), describing gender discrimination (Willis 1992) and as a tool for right wing protesters (Weigel 2016).

Methodology and Findings

In the following section of the paper, we investigate how the recent increase in environmental awareness in society, which has subsequently led to an expectation that the individual takes on responsibility of being environmentally friendly, potentially can affect individual opinions. We endeavour to identify why not everyone wants to follow what is currently considered as politically correct in society regarding human view on nature and/or what is suggested by contemporary research findings. Different reasons are summarized and nature-based tourism is used to exemplify the phenomenon. Further, attempts are made to predict possible consequences for the emerging trend.

Why does Failure to recognizing Guidelines Derived from Scientific Findings occur?

Today, it is regarded politically correct to apply a nature based approach to ethical standpoints deriving from scientific research results. Individuals are expected to take most of the responsibility in being environmentally friendly. In a nature-based tourism setting, this can for example revolve around following guidelines, using ecofriendly ways of travelling, etc. In some cases, there are specific "codes of conduct" to recommend how tourists should behave to reduce anthropogenic impacts on nature and wildlife (Öquist et al. 2018) However, within the tourism research literature, authors often find that not everyone follows such expectations. There may be several reasons why not everyone behaves in accordance with contemporary research findings. In Table 1, we list four possible causes for not recognizing recommendations based on findings deriving from ecology research. Firstly, individuals may consider it to be their „right" to visit nature, a right that can be compared to the right to take part in their cultural heritage. The opinion within this group is that recommendations on optimal access to nature given by ecologists based on scientific research should not be superior to this right. Hence, the right to enjoy nature is prioritized before the need to consider preservation actions. A second reason for acting against what is considered correct is lack of knowledge in the subject. This often stems from failure in disseminating scientific knowledge from academia to society in a pedagogic way. People who are not aware of how and why actions and decisions affect the environment can be less likely to act accordingly to what is considered right based on scientific findings. Other people may, although being aware of what is considered right based on scientific knowledge, lack confidence in scientific findings and disagree with research methods or claim that biases exists in research methods. However, lacking knowledge or disbelieving in scientific findings does not out rule that these groups have a positive attitude towards preserving nature. Furthermore, in a fourth group, some generally dislike the idea of political correctness enough to wilfully disobey such conventions despite understanding and sometimes even agreeing with research-based conclusions. As postmodernists, they are fostered to put greater importance on their ego (Table 1).

Table 1. *Four Possible Causes to not recognizing Recommendations of how to Treat Nature Based on Ecological Research Findings*

Possible Causes	Definition
My right	
The right to access nature heritage	Individuals consider it to be their „right" to visit nature, a right that can be compared to the right to take part in the cultural heritage. Recommendations on optimal access to nature given based on scientific research should not be superior to this right
Lack of knowledge	
Lack of education or problems in disseminating scientific knowledge to society	Individuals lack understanding of what is considered "right". This can stem from failure in disseminating scientific knowledge to society in a pedagogic way. Not following recommendations in this case is unconscious
Wrong knowledge	
Disbelief in findings derived from ecology research	Individuals do not believe in scientific findings that are the foundation of a recommendation
Political incorrectness	
General objection to political awareness	Individuals objects to what is considered as politically correct due to a desire to demonstrate repudiation of the importance of nature

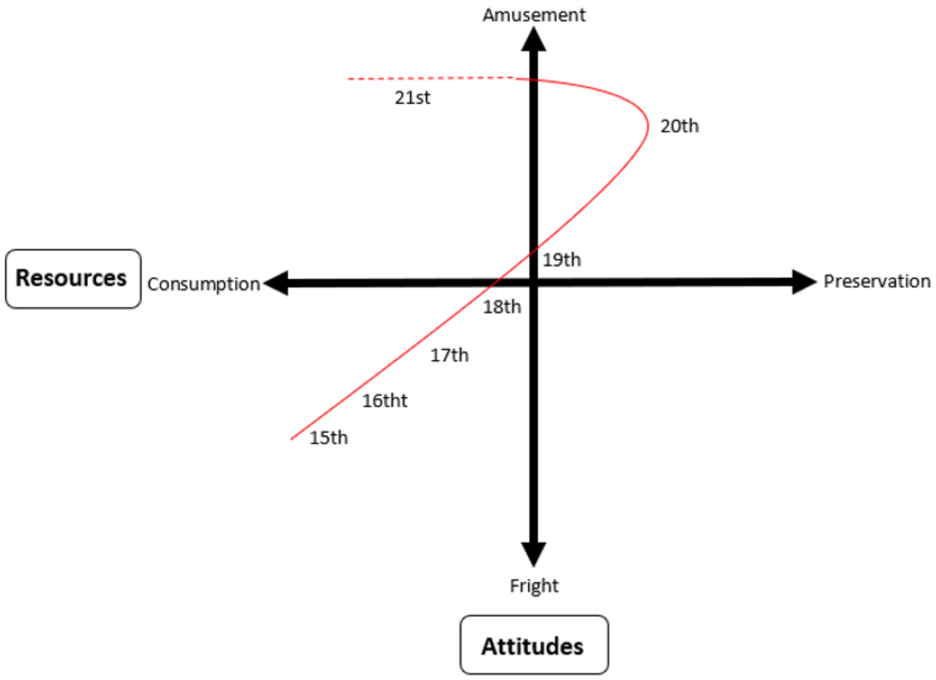
From Eco-Tourist to Ego-Tourist?

The concept "ego-tourist" was first introduced in 1993 and defined as a tourist who wants to travel in a way that contributes to his/her ego enhancement (Wheeller 1993, Wheeller 1994). Later, the concept was connected to rich or famous people who visit pristine places pretending to care about the environment but only staying at hotels in urban areas (Dann 1977, Munt 1994). There has been an attendant shift away from the traditional mass-packaged holidays, to tourism that fit within the exciting and adventurous lifestyles of the new middle classes (MacCannell 2002). While mass tourism has been regarded as shallow and degrading experiences, ego-tourism practices, based on the above definition, have been viewed benevolently and few critiques have emerged (Wheeller 2005). Another definition was put forward by Perkins and Brown (2012). They describe eco-tourists as people with high biospheric values, with a focus on an intrinsic worth of nature, having a high interest in tourism specific pro-environmental attitudes and commitment to environmental protection. The opposite of high biospheric values would, according to Perkins and Brown (2012), be high egoistic values, which is found among people who have a strong self-interest and greater interest in hedonistic-type tourism, but less interest in nature tourism. People with high egoistic values also have less interest in environmental conservation and protection, hence caring more about their own experience than the ecosystem (Perkins and Brown 2012).

As discussed above, the indication of an increasing number of people questioning political correctness supplements the view on ego-tourism by changing the motives behind it. It is not only upper-class tourists who want to see pristine nature but also ordinary people. What connects them is repugnance towards political correctness and a desire to be free to do what they want without allowing nature to dominate their actions (Briassoulis 2002, Brown 2015, Granquist and Nilsson 2013, Moffit 2016, Urbinati 2014, Wheeller 2007). Based on the findings in the present article, as a result of these divergent views and opinions, an "ego-tourism" trend may emerge (or already has), with tourists claiming the "right" to nature both as heritage but also that nature should be available for humans without restrictions (Figure 1). Another reason for an ego-tourist approach is lack of understanding of scientific research findings, or absence of confidence regarding those findings obstructing free access to nature. This underlines the importance of proper dissemination of scientific findings to the society (Granquist and Nilsson 2016, Marschall et al. 2016). The "correctness" of scientific findings must be processed in a way that is understood and accepted, something which seems to be more delicate than scientists and authorities often expect.

The view on nature has shifted over time from regarding nature as something evil to something that defines the essence of life; from something available to consume for development or amusement and finally to something that has to be preserved from human interference. Eventually, this development seems to show a retrograde in dominance where nature, which historically was controlled by human, is now dominating human everyday life (also comprising nature-based tourism) in terms of expectation of environmental preservation. A trend towards a more individualistic consumptive use, ego-tourism, could be a result which in turn would have unforeseeable future consequences (Figure 1). The horizontal axis indicates how humans have utilized nature resources; from consumption during the 15th century to preservation in the 20th century. The vertical axis shows the change in attitudes towards nature; from the 15th century when people were frightened of nature to where people seek relaxation and amusement in the 21st century.

Figure 1. *Human View on Nature (and Nature-Based Tourism) Change Over the Historical Time (Numbers Referring to Different Centuries)*



Conclusions

Methods to dominate nature in different ways were developed up to late 20th century. Concurrently with the emerging post-modernism and individualism, these methods became disunited and problems with methods to deal with nature became more complicated than before. Further, previous anthropogenic interference with nature had in fact deteriorated nature in some ways. The Rome Club and the Rio Conference first indicated and then stated clearly that human dominance over nature has turned to a situation where nature dominates human behavior and everyday life. This development has also become evident within the tourism industry.

In this paper we have reviewed fluctuations in human views on nature over time with nature-based tourism as a setting. Further, we explored how the emerging existentialism and individualism in the society potentially can create a trend where people are refraining from regarding nature based on ethical standpoints derived from scientific research, which is currently considered politically correct. The emergence of a possible ego-tourism trend as a result of this was also debated, which, although not embracing the majority of tourists, exists and the future of it is unforeseeable.

The crucial question for environmentalists will be: should this development be acknowledged and acted against, and if so, how? Is it useless to counteract political correctness or should political correctness be formulated so it can be accepted? Or is it time to be less ethically pushy and provocative? Will these indications regarding a more self-centered view on nature lead to a regime shift in tourism towards a wider acceptance of ego-tourism? The questions are manifold.

Many people are frustrated that nature impedes the progress of the development of society, resulting in an urge to demonstrate repudiation of the importance of nature, and further, it is still often not clear who are responsible for preserving nature. This may lead to a desire to act in opposition to what is expected according to political correctness. Post-modernists are fostered to put their ego in the center and denying fact is not unique to less educated people. Researchers have learned by observation that there is a strong will to deny research that is contrary to people's political or emotional conceptions. Climate change is now the great concern, but since nobody wants to live with the predicted effects, a dismissal of them is a common human reaction. This may foster a trend of opposition to both the message and the messenger.

Despite being based on scientific research and experience, views on conservation, biosphere and ethics are either hard to grasp or perceived as awkward or threatening to many and may be denied as a spontaneous reflex (Table 1). Environmentalists have dominated the discourse regarding conservation since the end of the last century and are obviously not prepared to accept these diverse opinions. The scenario can be compared to the identity policy, where only those belonging to an ethnic group or a gender are allowed to represent it to others, while it is often not considered politically correct for "outsiders" to have an opinion. Similarly, the views of environmental scientists on conservation, biosphere and ethics are often considered as interpretative prerogative while alternative views from outsiders are considered politically incorrect. Individuals not belonging to the scientific community may perceive themselves as being outside the political highway and therefore believe that they have a right to act as they themselves find proper, serving their own needs.

General objection to political correctness is not the only reason for not following what is recommended by scientists. In this paper we define four different causes to not behaving according to what is considered as politically correct; advocating for the right to access the natural heritage, lack of knowledge, disbelieves in scientific findings or purposely acting against what is considered as politically correct (Table 1). A major challenge would be to sort out the background for these attitudes and test, for example, how they are related to increasing knowledge on how and why a specific recommendation is presented based on scientific research. Heberlein (2012) pointed out that attitudes and behaviour, for example regarding environmental views, are typically not highly correlated. The group that advocate for "their rights" or that are "politically incorrect" will probably not change their behaviour or attitude by more knowledge. However, groups that "lack knowledge" or think that the "knowledge is wrong" may initially have a positive attitude towards preserving nature, despite acting against what is recommended based on scientific findings (Table 1). With increased knowledge and a deeper understanding, this group may change their behaviour to being less ego-centred, while their positive attitudes towards nature preservation would stay constant.

The possible emerging trend from eco-tourism to ego-tourism clearly calls for further research. Potential problems must be identified, and solutions deliberated. A problem could, for example, be that disagreements between locals and tourist might increase, underlining the importance of further research on the topic. We suggest that future research would profit from taking on an interdisciplinary approach involving different scientific disciplines, such as ecology and tourism research. A transdisciplinary approach, combining results from the scientific community with knowledge from stakeholders in the society such as locals, but also politicians with different agendas would be beneficial (Granquist and Nilsson 2016). Although we in the current study used nature-based tourism to exemplify and deduce fluctuations in human view on nature, our findings could possibly be used as a model for other parallel cases where human view on nature equally affects the scenario, such as in debates about whaling and large carnivore hunt and even climate change.

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