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ANALYSING DESTINATION IMAGE FROM A CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR PERSPECTIVE

Nuno Baptista[1]
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ABSTRACT

Trough a narrative literature review, this article frames the evolution of destination image within the evolution of destination branding. Main theories used, methodologies, relevant findings and implications to marketing practice are identified. Four relevant conclusions are extracted: first, recent studies of destination image research tend to adopt a joint cognitive-affective approach in an attempt to capture destination image in a more effective way; second, the dimensions of destination image (overall image, affective image and cognitive image) affect consumer satisfaction and consumer loyalty differently; third, the current academic perspective on destination branding is mostly based on the notion that destination image is not susceptible of being easily changed by marketing efforts. Finally, residents, as privileged interpreters of place image should be called to participate in branding efforts.

Keywords: Place Branding, Destination Branding, Destination Image, Place Image, Literature Review.

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1. INTRODUCTION

Places compete for foreign investment, exports, skilled labor, residents and visitors. That reality has lead academics and also marketers to search for new ways to highlight the individual characteristics of places that can enhance competitive strengths. A major step in this search for place distinctiveness was the realization that places can act as brands.

Branding places is a complex process. Branding is about creating unique positions in consumers' minds trough distinctive associations targeted at clearly defined segments (Hankinson, 2010). Places are complex in nature involving multidimensional variables, such as urbanism, history, culture and heritage, economic and social aspects, demographic, cognitive and affective dimensions. Distinct stakeholders have different perceptions of the place and the complexity of branding places is increased by both the strong feelings that residents exhibited about their home places and the multitude of targets, which may include tourists, visitors, investors, residents, second home purchasers, students and workers.

When place branding is focused in tourism, it is usually designated as destination branding. A key concept in destination branding literature is destination image. The importance of image as an intangible cue to influence buyer behavior has long been recognized by both marketers and market researchers (Elliot & Papadopoulos, 2016). Since the 70s, destination image has been one of the major topics of research in tourism due to its importance for destination marketing, management, and branding (Song, Su & Li, 2013; Kim & Chen, 2015) and remains one of the most popular research topics in tourism.

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Framed by destination branding, this study aims to present an analysis of the current state of research in destination image, from a consumer behavior perspective. Connected with the aim of the study, this research was guided by the following research questions: What is the impact of destination image on consumer behavior?

To answer the research question, this article compiles current research on the topic of destination image, focusing on the most relevant approaches and theories used, contrasting related constructs, highlighting main empirical findings and implications to marketing practice. The objectives of the present review are: i) to situate the concept of destination image within destination branding research, by referring to related concepts and constructs; ii) to identify current conceptualizations of destination image; iii) to map the diversity of practical approaches to the concept of destination image by highlighting recent empirical findings.

The remainder of this article is organized as follows: in the next section we present the theoretical context of this research. The following section discusses the results of current empirical studies on destination image. The final chapter presents the conclusions of the study.

2. THEORETICAL CONTEXT

The application of marketing principles to places can be traced back, at least, to the seventh century when city "boosterism" emerged in response to the globalization of markets, increasing competition between national economies and expanding international commerce (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008).

Initial research on destination marketing was mostly based on the adaptation of mainstream marketing theories and concepts to tourism, including the classic marketing mix of the 4 P´s (Pike & Page, 2014) and the development of the destination image concept (Hankinson, 2010).

Dissatisfaction with the application of mainstream marketing principles to destinations, particularly the marketing-mix concept, led researchers to explore new approaches, which ultimately led to the development of destination branding. The pioneers of brand studies in tourism were Ritchie and Ritchie (1998), who identified destination brand as

> "…a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that both identifies and differentiates the destination; furthermore, it conveys the promise of a memorable travel experience that is uniquely associated with the destination; it also serves to consolidate and reinforce the recollection of pleasurable memories of the destination experience."(p.17).

Most countries and cities today affirm to develop some type of branding efforts, however in many cases these practices can be considered as mere place promotions, were catchy slogans and logos seem to concentrate the entire efforts, a situation that has been appropriately characterized by Beritelli and Laesser (2016: 1) as a "term extension and inflation" of branding. Recent studies evidence that, despite the efforts of destination management organizations (DMO´s) to develop attractive slogans and logos to promote destinations, these elements may not even be recognized by visitors. For example, Beritelli and Laesser, (2016) found tourists to be unaware of brands intentionally constructed by local DMO´s to promote Swiss destinations.

There is a consensus in the literature (Pike, 2009; Hudson, 2016) that the most comprehensive definition of destination branding to date has been the one proposed by Blain, Levy and Ritchie (2005) that identify destination branding as follow:

> The set of marketing activities: (1) that support the creation of a name, symbol, logo, word mark or other graphic that readily identifies and differentiates a destination; that (2) consistently convey the expectation of a memorable travel experience; that (3) serve to consolidate and reinforce the emotional connection between the visitor and the destination; and that (4) reduce consumer search costs and perceived risk. Collectively, these activities serve to create a destination image that positively influences consumer destination choice. (p.337)

The above definition has been granted the advantages of underscoring the critical contribution of destination image, a key concept in tourism studies, to the formation of a destination brand (Hudson, 2016), and highlighting the mutual benefits of destination branding for both DMO´s and the visitors (Pike, 2009).

In the 1990s, as places became more competitive, occurred the bridging period within the literature, when academics started to research how places attract not only tourists but also investment, workers and industry. Consequently, during this period, there was a shift from the use of the word *destination* to the use of the more-encompassing word *place* (Skinner, 2008).

Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2008) identify three phases in the development of place marketing. The phase of "place promotion" (from the seventh to nineteenth centuries) was triggered by the demand for agricultural colonization. The most notable example being the colonization of the American West. During this phase there was also a trend towards urban functional diversity, with the promotion of the first urban centers dedicated to mass-leisure tourism, in Britain. The second phase, labeled "planning instrument" (from the 1990s onward), was characterized by the development of urban planning and management as a means of delivering public services by administrative bodies. The terminology, concepts and philosophy of marketing started to be applied to public sector place planning, especially in Western cities, during the course of the 1980s. Finally, the stage of "corporate brand" (after 2000) is characterized by attempts to articulate new approaches that would be more relevant, including the notion of place or destination branding, which is a development of traditional product branding.

Place branding has been described as the current episode of place marketing development (Kavaratzis & Ashworth, 2008). Some authors have proposed that the essential feature of a place brand is nothing more and nothing less than the good name of something, a place, that's on offer to the public (Anholt & Hildreth, 2005). Pryor and Grossbart (2007: 293) suggest the following definition of place branding: "the process of inscribing to a place symbols and images that represent that set of central, enduring, and distinctive characteristics that actors have ascribed to that place, thereby creating a focus of identity".

Being consensually recognized that place marketing as its origins in tourism and urban policy studies, an analysis of the literature reveals that important developments in the application of branding principles to destinations came from the broader field of place branding research. In our view, it is not feasible to analyze destination branding research without considering place branding studies. First, because both fields overlap and much of the recent developments of destination branding come from place branding research. Second, because in some literature the terms are being used interchangeably (Skinner, 2008). The confusion over the use of terms stems not only from the way the literature developed over time in different subject areas but also appears to be linked to the way authors targeted articles for publication, using terms that would better align with their own discipline area (Skinner, 2008). Finally, some authors argue that branding destinations for tourism purposes limits inclusivity of the wider range of stakeholders of place (Kerr, 2006).

Destination image is a critical factor in influencing tourist's satisfaction and subsequent future behavior (Kim & Chen, 2015). Several definitions of destination image have been proposed. Based on an analysis of the literature, Martin and Bosque (2008) summarized 20 definitions of destination image and more recently Zhang et al. (2014) highlighted 10 different definitions. Earlier studies defined destination image as "the sum of beliefs, ideas and impressions that a person has of a destination" (Crompton, 1979: 418). More recent definitions of destination image tend to consider that it is a complex concept more than a summation of all the factual attributes of a destination (Baloglu et al., 2014; Suhartanto, Ruhadi, & Triyuni, 2016).

In the literature it is possible to identity two major approaches in conceptualizing destination image: the three-dimensional continuum approach and the three-component approach (Zhang et al., 2014). The first approach, three-dimensional continuum, suggests attribute-holistic, functional-psychological, and common-unique as the three continuums of image (Echtner & Ritchie, 1991). The attribute-holistic continuum reflects the perceptions of destination attributes as well as holistic impressions of the place. The functional-psychological continuum represents the distinction between directly measurable, functional components of a destination and intangible, psychological characteristics. The third continuum is indicative of both generic, common features and unique characteristics of the place.

The three-component approach holds that destination image is composed of cognitive, affective, and conative components (Lee, 2009; Zhang et al., 2014; Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016). The cognitive image refers to the beliefs or knowledge a person has of the characteristics or attributes of a tourism destination (Wang & Hsu, 2010). The affective component is represented by the feelings or emotional responses toward the destination (Baloglu et al., 2014; Hallmann et al., 2015). Finally, the conative aspect of destination image is the behavioral manifestation from the tourists' side and can be understood as onsite consumptive behaviors (Zhang et al., 2014; Suhartanto et al., 2016).

Customer satisfaction is one of the most relevant and frequently operationalized concepts of marketing thought and practice (Neal & Gursoy, 2008). Satisfaction plays a crucial role in successful destination marketing because it influences the choice of destination, the consumption of tourism services and tourist loyalty (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Tourist satisfaction can be defined as "a positive perception or feeling that tourists develop by engaging in a certain recreational activity" (Beard & Ragheb, 1980: 21). The central aspect of visitor satisfaction measurement in tourism research has been the disconfirmation theory, whereby satisfaction arises when consumers compare their perceptions with their initial expectations. (Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Neal & Gursoy, 2008; Prayag, 2009). According to the influential model developed by Oliver (1980), tourists develop expectations about a product before purchasing and subsequently compare actual performance with pre-formulated expectations. When the actual performance is superior to tourists' expectations, they have a positive disconfirmation, implying that consumers are satisfied and will be more willing to purchase the same tourist product again (Neal & Gursoy, 2008).

Other models used to evaluate consumer satisfaction in tourism include the norm model, the equity based model and the perceived overall performance model. The norm model, suggested by La Tour and Peat (1979), is based on the principle that norms serve as reference points for judging the tourist product, and dissatisfaction comes into play as a result of disconfirmation relative to these norms. In the equity-based model (Oliver & Swan, 1989) tourists' satisfaction result from the relationship between the inputs associated with the purchase (monetary, time and effort) and their perception about the rewards or benefits achieved. In the perceived overall performance model (Tse & Wilton, 1988) consumer satisfaction results from actual performance, regardless of consumers' expectations, meaning that initial expectations or past experiences should be considered separately. According to Yoon and Uysal, (2005) the perceived overall performance model is effective when tourists do not have previous knowledge about the destination, thus only their actual experiences should come to play and determine their satisfaction with the tourist experience.

In marketing theory, customer loyalty has been approached in different ways. When loyalty is conceptualized as attitudinal it is argued that customers' beliefs about the value received lead to their overall attitude toward a product or service, such as the intention to repurchase (Hawkins, Best, & Coney, 1989). When conceptualized as behaviors, loyalty is identified with continued purchasing, continued patronage and act of recommendation (Hughes, 1991). Both of these conceptualizations of loyalty are subject to criticism. According to Suhartanto et al. (2016) behavioral methods tend to look narrowly to what loyalty means and cannot differentiate a loyal customer that identifies with the product/service from consumers who simply consume for cost or convenience reasons. The same author argues that attitudinal approaches, on the other hand, lack any of the predictive power of the actual behavior. An alternative conceptualization consists in the integration of the two approaches (composite method), defining customer loyalty as the relationship between relative attitude and repeat patronage (Oliver, 1999).

3. EMPIRICAL FINDINGS IN CURRENT LITERATURE

Tasci and Kozak (2006) point some uncertainty in literature regarding the difference between destination brand and destination image. Some studies use the term destination image without much rigor in the conceptualization (Hallmann, Zehrer, & Muller, 2015). Qu et al. (2011) research brought some understanding to the field by developing and testing a theoretical model of destination branding, which integrates the concepts of destination branding and destination image. This model suggests unique destination image as a component of destination brand associations and proposed that the overall image of the destination (i.e., brand image) is a mediator between its brand associations (i.e., cognitive, affective, and unique image components) and tourists' future behaviors (i.e., intentions to revisit and recommend). The results of Qu's et al. (2011) research confirmed that overall image is a critical mediator between brand associations and tourists' future behaviors.

In tourism research, brand identity as been linked with brand positioning, and said to be the desired brand image articulated and communicated to target tourists (Tsaur et al., 2016). Konecnik and Go (2008) proposed a strategic conceptualization of destination brand identity, from a supply-side perspective, based on a framework composed of three dimensions: tourist analysis, competitor analysis, and self-analysis. Recently, Tsaur et al. (2016) proposed a five-dimension scale for measuring destination brand identity based on: destination image, destination quality, destination personality, destination awareness, and destination culture. A common ground on the above-cited studies is the stressed relationship between destination brand identity and destination brand image and the consideration that brand identity entails a strategic perspective of destination brands. Whereas brand identity is understood from the supply side, brand image is usually considered from the consumer side. As stressed by Hankinson (2010) place brand identity can be considered as a supply side perspective of place branding, which influences the demand side perspective, corresponding to place image.

Most empirical studies in the tourism literature focus on the cognitive component of destination image (Zhang et al., 2014) and tend to use a multi-attribute approach (Wang & Hsu, 2010). However, recently, more researchers are inclined to acknowledge the role of the affective dimensions of destination image (Zhang et al., 2014). In affective evaluation, the tourist evaluates the place by the affective quality of the sum of the attributes of that destination meaning that the more appealing the attributes of the destination are, the better and higher is the affective evaluation (Baloglu, Henthorne, & Sahin, 2014). Whereas cognitive images have been measured using lists of functional and psychological attributes, affective images have been measured almost exclusively using Russell, Ward, and Pratt's (1981) affective grid scale or variants (Hallmann et al., 2015).

Recent literature adds that other than cognitive and affective evaluation, places are also subject to overall evaluation, suggesting that affective and cognitive image together lead to an overall image of the destination (Baloglu et al., 2014). Authors such as Martin and Bosque (2008), Wang and Hsu (2010), Hallmann et al. (2015), and Kock et al. (2016) adopted a joint cognitive-affective approach in their attempt to capture destination image. Wang & Hsu (2010) empirical study found that overall destination image is determined by cognitive and affective images, where affective image partially mediates the relationship between cognitive and overall images. The authors also found that overall destination image indirectly influences behavioral intentions through tourists' satisfaction.

Studying a winter sport destination, Hallmann et al. (2015) concluded that both the cognitive and affective image matter on overall image and further on intention to revisit. However, the authors also point that the cognitive image component is more relevant than the affective image component. According to the authors, this is important to note for destination managers as the cognitive image component can be easier controlled and influenced. Baloglu's et al. (2014) study on Jamaica destination presented a more clarifying approach by researching separately first-time and repeat visitors and founding that first-time visitors rely more on affective and overall image, while repeat visitors turn to their cognitive impressions of the destination.

Also considering the multi-dimensional nature of destination image and loyalty, Zhang et al. (2014) analyzed 66 independent studies. The findings reveal that the impact of destination image on tourist loyalty is significant, with varying degrees. Overall image was found to have the greatest impact on tourist loyalty, followed by affective image and cognitive image. Of the three levels of tourist loyalty, destination image has the greatest impact on composite loyalty, and then on attitudinal loyalty and behavioral loyalty, successively.

In the context of tourist destinations, visitor loyalty remains an important indicator of successful destination development (Prayag, 2009) and is commonly considered a causal variable of satisfaction (Lee, 2009). Tourism literature points destination loyalty as decisive factor in the development of the tourism industry. At an operational level, revisit intention and recommendations to others are the most commonly used measured of tourist loyalty (Kim, Holland, & Han, 2013; Zhang et al., 2014). In an increasingly saturated marketplace, destination marketing should be guided by a thorough analysis of destination loyalty and its interplay with tourist satisfaction and destination image (Chi & Qu, 2008).

In an effort to present a more clear conceptualization of destination image, recently Kock et al. (2016), drawing on psychology, introduced an empirically validated destination content model (DCM) of destination image that aggregates three main concepts: i) destination image, understood as the overall evaluative construct and defined as an individual's overall evaluative representation of a destination; ii) destination imagery, relating to individual's diverse cognitive and affective associations to a destination and iii) destination affect, that include the overall affective response to a destination. The authors found that destination image positively affects behavioral intentions, specifically it positively relates with word of mouth (WOM), want to visit (WTV) and willingness to pay a higher price (WTP) for the destination Spain, but in the case of Germany the relationship was only verified between destination image and WOM and WTP, implying that different destinations can trigger distinct behavioral intentions.

Several empirical studies point a relationship between destination image and tourists' satisfaction. Research indicates that destination image influences satisfaction (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008) and the other way around, satisfaction influences destination image (Machado, 2010). Research in the context of tourism found that tourist satisfaction and destination image are important determinants of visit intentions and tourist loyalty towards a destination (Suhartanto et al., 2016). Satisfied travelers were found to have a higher probability of choosing the destination again, and more likely to engage in positive recommendations to others (Lee, 2009; Wang & Hsu, 2010; Tavitiyaman & Qu, 2013).

According to Chi and Qu (2008) tourist satisfaction improves if the destination has a positive image and destination image also affects tourists' behavioral intentions, in the way that a more favorable image will lead to higher likelihood of tourists returning to the same destination. The results of Chi and Qu's (2008) study confirmed that: i) destination image directly influenced attribute satisfaction; iii) destination image and attribute satisfaction were both direct antecedents of overall satisfaction; and iii) overall satisfaction and attribute satisfaction in turn had direct and positive impact on destination loyalty.

Finally, it should be mentioned the role of residents as contributors to destination image. According to Pike (2009) the host community should generally be regarded as an active participant of local tourism, both as hospitable hosts of the place, and as occasional local tourists. Pike (2009) also stresses that the participation of residents in the branding process brings truth and legitimization to the process, by incorporating the residents´ profound sense of place. In a study developed by Jeuring and Haartsen (2016) in the Dutch province of Fryslân it was found that residents understood the responsibility for sustaining a positive image of Fryslân as a tourist destination to be shared mostly between themselves and tourism entrepreneurs, while regional governments were attributed less responsibility for this destination marketing task. Govers (2011) stresses that when marketers develop a place brand for an external market, there is the risk of ignoring the fact that the shape and substance of places is really produced by residents.

The argumentation in favor of participatory action also resonates with the turn towards a "service-dominant logic" of marketing (Vargo & Lusch, 2004). According to Kavaratzis and Hatch (2013) concepts developed within this approach are particularly suitable to place branding, including the co-creation of brands, which stresses the fact that brands are co-created by a multitude of actors who encounter and appropriate them.

4. CONCLUSION

The literature of place branding is still in an infant phase, were some of the well-established concepts of branding start to be discussed and adapted to place branding, including product image. There is a general consensus that places can act as brands and that branding places differs from branding products and services; thus, place branding can be considered a unique case of branding that differs from other areas of application. Similarly, the concept of destination image assumes unique contours in destination branding that differentiate him from general marketing conceptualizations of product or services image.

Recent approaches to destination image tend to adopt a joint cognitive-affective approach in an attempt to capture destination image in a more effective way. Both, the cognitive and affective image, affect tourists' perceptions of the destination. However, studies indicate that first-time visitors rely more on affective and overall image, while repeat visitors turn to their cognitive impressions of the destination. This distinction is important to practionaires and destination managers since the cognitive image component can be easier to control and influence when compared with the affective image of destinations.

Destination image was found to influence customer´s behavioral intensions, including the intention to revisited the destination, the intension to engage in positive recommendations and WOM and the willingness to pay higher prices. Nonetheless, research indicates that different dimensions of destination image affect satisfaction and loyalty differently. Some empirical studies concluded that, compared with affective and cognitive image, overall image has the greatest impact on tourist loyalty. Empirical studies also found a bidirectional relationship between destination image and tourists' satisfaction, meaning that destination image influences satisfaction and satisfaction also influences destination image, both impacting on tourists' loyalty.

While the reviewed studies contribute to our understanding of the complexity of destination image, two key gaps are yet to close. First, researchers are still debating a sound theoretical framework for the components that could make up destination image. Second, and as stressed by Kock et al. (2016), most of the studies that conceptually distinguish between different components of destination representations fail to sufficiently implement this conceptualization at the operationalization stage.

Managing an appealing image in tourists' minds is understood as an important factor to sustainable success in tourism because a positive image helps position the destination in relation to competitor destinations. In addition, an assessment of the destination image can help managers to identify the strengths and weaknesses of a destination, enhance the understanding of tourists' behavioral intentions and provide a reference for practionaires in terms of developing tourism destinations.

Contrary to what appears to be the practice, research indicates that branding places should not be limited to produce appealing slogans and logos but to positively reinforce the distinctive characteristics of destination places. Second, most branding efforts are developed by DMO´s without the active involvement of local communities. The current academic perspective on destination branding is mostly based on the notion that destination image is not susceptible to be easily changed by marketing efforts. On the contrary, the literature recommends marketers to work on eliciting and interpreting the qualities and positive attributes already inherent to the place. For this purpose, the process of branding must be inclusive, the resident community as potential ambassadors of the brand and the best interpreters of the place should be called to participate in the branding construction processes.

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WHO ARE THE TOURISTS SHARING CONTENT ON SOCIAL MEDIA? BEHAVIOUR AND CHARACTERISTICS

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ABSTRACT

Increasingly, tourist information on the Internet comes from the content generated by users, being no longer limited to the communications of tourism professionals and government entities. At the same time, the comments, opinions and reviews made by consumers are the type of information which tourists value the most. This reality means that the Internet has become an extremely valuable source of information for prospective travelers. This study aims to identify and characterize the behavior patterns of tourists on social media during and after their travels, specifically: who are the tourists who create content, what leads them to have this initiative, and what behaviors stand out on each of these platforms. The methodology is based on a questionnaire survey, which was applied to tourists. The data was analyzed using descriptive statistical methods, cluster analysis and principal component analysis. It is possible to categorize tourists according to three perspectives regarding use of social media during and after the trip: those who prefer review websites, those who prefer social networks and those who don't particularly use social media in general.

Keywords: Internet, Social Media, Social Networks, Review Websites, User-Generated Content, Tourist-Generated Content.

JEL Classification: L83, L86, M31, O33, Z33

1. INTRODUCTION

Technological advances have affected human life in a number of ways, one of which regards how information is accessed. The strong development of information and communication technologies (ICT) and the greater ease of access to the Internet have brought new means of interaction and coexistence to society (Damian, 2014), expressed through platforms such as social networks, personal blogs, (such as YouTube and Flickr), online communities, and others (Xiang & Gretzel, 2010). This reality forced marketers to consider a new form of communication: Digital Marketing, focused on directing marketing efforts towards connecting with the vast number of consumers who are constantly present online (Damian, 2014; Ryan, 2014).

At the same time, it is a fact that the evolution of ICT directly influences the tourism industry, given the nature of the tourism product itself, which, among other characteristics, is intangible and requires that the purchase be made in a significant period of time prior to consumption (Buhalis & Law, 2008). Because of these inherent traits, consumers often seek a better understanding of the tourism product during the decision-making stage, which

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highlights the great importance of information in this industry. Knowing this, companies and institutions in the area tend to favor online communication as a way to broadcast the quality of their tourism product, thus encouraging its consumption.

Pan, MacLaurin and Crotts, (2007), Carrera, Chiu, Pratipwattanawong, Chienwattanasuk, Ahmad and Murphy (2008), Litvin, Goldsmith and Pan, (2008), Yoo and Gretzel, (2008a), Yoo and Gretzel, (2008b), Yoo and Gretzel, (2008c), Gretzel et al., (2009), Yoo, Lee and Gretzel, (2009), Yoo, Lee, Gretzel and Fesenmaier, (2009), Xiang and Gretzel, (2010), Fotis, (2015) and Yoo and Gretzel, (2016) find that a growing share of tourism content available on the Internet comes from tourists themselves. At the same time, prospective travelers are increasingly basing their travel plans on content generated by other consumers (Buhalis & Law, 2008; O'Connor, 2008; Adjei, Noble, & Noble, 2010; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010, Munar & Jacobsen, 2014; Fotis, 2015).

In this context, social media — an extensive source of tourism content generated by consumers — are the focus of this study, which intends to provide researchers, tourism professionals and tourists alike with an in-depth analysis of the behavior of the tourist as a creator of content on the Internet.

Taking the purpose of the study into account, this article is structured in three sections, in addition to the present introduction and the conclusion. The first section, encompassing the literature review, aims to identify, describe and adequately substantiate the main issues surrounding the study of tourist behavior on social media. The methodology section describes the procedures adopted during the measurement of results based on the empirical data which was obtained via survey. The third section covers the analysis performed on the empirical data, including the most conclusive statistically verified results.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The evolution of ICTs has contributed to the emergence of social media, a type of platform for social interaction which can be characterized by its ease of use, the democratization of tools for sharing different types of content (multimedia, text, hyperlinks, among others), and the very nature of this medium, which enhances communication between users and minimizes physical barriers by facilitating interactions between different spaces and times.

The concept of social media, according to Munar and Jacobsen (2013: 3-4), is a term that covers various types of online platforms, among which, to name some of the most popular ones, are wikis (Wikitravel), blogs (Travelblog), microblogs (Twitter), social networks (Facebook), multimedia sharing websites (YouTube, Flickr, Instagram) and review websites (TripAdvisor). On the other hand, Fotis (2015) argues that social media can be defined as a term covering all online applications whose main function is the development and exchange of user generated content (UGC).

In the present study, and considering the goals of the investigation, websites where UGC exchange serves a secondary purpose were also considered; in other words, not only are websites like TripAdvisor considered, but also platforms in which reviewing is a secondary feature (as is the case of Booking.com). This decision was based on the reality that tourists consult all kinds of platforms where users generate content, regardless of whether this is a primary feature or not. This consideration allows for the analysis of a more comprehensive set of platforms where tourists can create or consume tourist information, which is the main objective of this study.

Social media have rapidly evolved over a short period of time, not only in functionalities, but also in users. Facebook, founded in early 2004, has an average of about 1.8 billion unique active users per month (Facebook, 2016). Twitter counts about 313 million users

(Twitter, 2016), TripAdvisor nearly 390 million (TripAdvisor, 2016) and Instagram over 500 million unique active users per month (Instagram, 2016).

The potential of social media has contributed to the emergence of new channels of communication between consumers and businesses. As far as tourism is concerned, social media are used as a platform for sharing opinions and experiences, through the creation of testimonies, which can be shared and consulted with other tourists.

In addition, tourism information content is increasingly available on the internet, a great deal of which is produced by tourists themselves, and represents an extremely valuable source of information for both consumers and tourism professionals (Pan, MacLaurin & Crotts, 2007; Carvalho et al., 2008; Litvin, Goldsmith & Pan, 2008; Yoo & Gretzel, 2008a; Yoo & Gretzel, 2008b; Yoo & Gretzel, 2008c; Gretzel et al., 2009; Yoo, Lee, Gretzel & Fesenmaier, 2009; Xiang & Gretzel, 2010; Fotis, 2015; Yoo & Gretzel, 2016).

As an essential element to allow frequent access to the Internet and social media while traveling, is the smartphone, which has already become one of the most important devices for tourists (Charlesworth, 2009), either to consult information, share experiences, or simply to keep in touch with the rest of the world (Kang & Schuett, 2013; Fotis, 2015; Yoo & Gretzel, 2016). In fact, a study by Tnooz (2010) revealed that technological solutions that allow access to social media are the most used during the tourist trip (38% in the US and 64% outside the US).

In the words of Yoo & Gretzel (2016: 192), "It is obvious that social media provides a fertile place for travelers to create and share their travel experiences and also take on an important role in tourist information and decision-making." It is increasingly relevant to understand the behavior of the tourist in relation to social media, as well as the motivations and factors that contribute to the interaction with these platforms during the tourist trip, regarding the sharing of content.

The main factors that motivate tourists to express themselves through social networks (Fotis, 2015) are: convenience, that is, the fact that sharing content on social media is an easy and accessible way to communicate while also storing content (experiences) online; showing off, in the sense that the tourist enjoys the idea that their acquaintances want to do or know what he/she is doing; sharing experiences and stories that truly deserve to be told; inviting others to live the experience, by recommending a certain destination or activity to their acquaintances; sharing happy moments with friends and acquaintances; expressing sociability, as nowadays it is expected of tourists to share some type of travel-related content while traveling, and tourists wish to act in conformity with this societal norm.

2.1 Tourists, participants and creators of social media content

Depending on the motivations that lead to the use of social media, a tourist — in this case, a user — shows different behaviors which characterize him depending on how he interacts with online content.

Tedjamulia, Dean, Olsen, and Albrecht (2005), Shao (2009), and Van Dijck (2009) indicate that there are three ways of interacting with content on social media: as a viewer, who only consumes content created by others; as a participant, who initiates consumer-to-consumer and consumer-to-content interactions, including comments, content reviews, and so on; and as content creator, which includes the effective creation of online content, whether in text, image, audio or video format.

The vast majority of social media users are just viewers, watching and interpreting all kinds of content produced by third parties on the many different platforms available online. As they gradually become involved in their respective online communities, some users evolve from viewers to participants, and only a few of these participants eventually contribute with user-generated content (UGC).

Yoo and Gretzel (2016), supported by the existing literature (Acar & Polonsky, 2007; Lenhart, Madden, Macgill & Smith, 2007; Yoo, Lee & Gretzel, 2007; Jones & Fox, 2009; Nielsenwire, 2009; Yoo et al. 2009; Burgess, Sellitto, Cox & Buultjens, 2011), consider that the social interaction rate of social media users is strongly influenced by factors such as motivations in life, preferred types of social media, preferred types of device, level of trust in the community, user personality, among others. In addition to these factors, certain sociodemographic characteristics also impact use of social media: younger users tend to participate more actively and create more content; adult men contribute with content more often than adult women; among pre-adolescents, adolescents and university students, women create more content than men within the same age group.

2.2 Characterization of online tourists

In terms of the use of social media for tourism travel, several studies (Yoo, Lee & Gretzel, 2007; Yoo & Gretzel, 2008a; Yoo & Gretzel, 2008b) suggest a correlation between certain sociodemographic characteristics and certain behaviors on social media, In particular, those who produce social media content while traveling tend to be young, male, high-income, internet-savvy adults who travel frequently and are heavily involved in travel planning; in addition, users who share photographs of their tourism experiences tend to be of younger generations, while *baby boomers* (people born between 1946 and 1964) and the elderly typically to avoid sharing photos on the Internet.

In a more recent study, Yoo and Gretzel (2016) find that only about 20% of online tourists contribute with UGC. This means that the overwhelming majority of individuals only consume tourism UGC, most of which is created by only a small portion of all online tourists. Because of this, it is pertinent not only to assess who uses social media for purposes related to tourist travel, but also to ascertain who are the online tourists who, in fact, contribute with UGC on social media.

Through their study, Yoo and Gretzel (2016) verified that gender does not influence the propensity to use social media during the trip. In contrast, the age group of the users shows a great influence towards this propensity, as younger tourists use social media more often during the trip.

The online tourists who create UGC have a similar profile, as younger tourists are more likely to share content related to the tourist experience, compared to the older ones. It is estimated that this is the consequence of a lower involvement of the upper age groups in online communities, due to a lack of trust (Yoo et al., 2007; Burgess et al., 2011) and lesser time spent interacting with those communities. At the same time, the same influence of age is seen in the propensity to share photographs of the tourist trip: these mainly represent the content created by younger users, while older ones prefer text content. Tourists who are working full-time are also more likely to contribute with UGC than those in other occupational situations: this can be explained by the fact that full-time workers tend to live under a routine, so when faced with experiences that contradict this routine, they are more likely to feel the need to register and share those moments which characterize their escape from everyday life.

3. METODOLOGY

In order to find answers to the questions in this study, seeking to fulfill the initially stipulated research objectives, and also as a way to contribute to the scientific bibliography on the use of social media in the tourist trip, the collection of first-hand data was deemed necessary. Thus, a quantitative approach was chosen and a survey was carried out on the population residing in any European Union country that has undertaken at least one tourist trip in the years 2014 and/or 2015.

It should be noted that, initially, the research universe was intended to include tourists residing in any European country, in order to ascertain conclusions about the behavior of European tourists. However, after analyzing the collected data, it was verified that 92% of the respondents reside in Portugal, so a decision was made to switch the angle of the analysis, focusing on a more detailed understanding of the universe of Portuguese tourists, rather than a broad description of the vast universe of European tourists, thus achieving greater trustworthiness in regards to the results of the study (see Table 1).

Table 1. Technical data sample

Research Universe	Portuguese tourists who traveled in the years 2014 or 2015
Sample size	250 valid questionnaires
Method of obtaining data	Survey via online questionnaire
Sample procedure	Sample by convenience
Start of the survey	June 20, 2016
End of survey	July 23, 2016

Source: Own Elaboration

3.1 Survey

The questionnaire was built around three main topics: the characterization of the respondent's tourist profile, the study of their social media consumption habits and perceptions regarding social media, and the demographic characterization of the respondent.

3.2 Sample and procedures

With the original research universe in mind, which, as mentioned before, included all European citizens who have traveled at least once in the years 2014 and/or 2015, the survey was carried out in such a way as to allow the participation of individuals located in any country.

As such, and also taking the resources available for this research into account, personally collecting answers would not be an efficient solution.

Thus, the survey was applied on the Internet, and the questionnaire was disseminated online, mainly through Facebook, and the sample was collected by convenience. This route of dissemination may represent a limitation, since it is implied that the respondents who gained knowledge of the survey via Facebook will have a favorable interaction with this platform and, as such, may have, *a priori*, a positive predisposition towards the use of social networks and/or the Internet in general.

The survey was conducted in three languages (Portuguese, English and French) and ran between June 20, 2016 and July 23, 2016, with a total of 335 questionnaires collected. The data was then organized and analyzed using IBM SPSS Statistics 20.

Of the 335 respondents, 64 were excluded because they did not travel in 2014 or 2015 and/or because they were not residents in the European Union. Of the 271 remaining respondents, 21 were excluded because they did not reside in Portugal. Concluding, the sample under study comprises 250 Portuguese individuals who have made at least one tourist trip in 2014 or 2015.

After the construction of the database, a statistical study was carried out in order to characterize social media consumption habits, through descriptive statistical analyzes and, in certain cases, cross tabulations. In addition, multivariate analyzes were carried out, namely Principal Component Analysis (PCA), so as to further study the question regarding the use of social networks versus review websites as tools to support decision making during the trip, and also Cluster Analysis, so as to segment the study sample according to its behavior on social media during and after the trip, followed by the characterization of each of the segments.

3.3 Demographic characterization of the sample

Table 2 shows the demographic characteristics of the sample according to the data obtained from the survey.

Table 2. Demographic characterization of the sample

Gender	
Male	32%
Female	68%
Age	
15 to 25 years	28%
26 to 35 years	11%
36 to 45 years	26%
46 to 55 years	23%
56 to 71 years	12%
Minimum age observed	15 years
Average of sample ages	39 years
Maximum age observed	71 years
Professional situation	
Unemployed	3%
Employee on behalf of others	61%
Self-employed	10%
Student	22%
Retired	4%
Number of years of schooling successfully completed	
Up to 9 years (basic education)	4%
Up to 12 years (secondary education)	16%
Up to 15 years (licentiate post-Bologna)	18%
Up to 17 years (pre-Bologna degree / masters degree)	38%
18 or more years (doctorates, post-graduates, second degrees, etc.)	24%
Number of household elements.	
1	16%
2	18%
3	33%
4	28%

5	4%
6 or more	1%
Average monthly net income of the household	
Less than € 1500	31%
Between 1500 € and 3000 €	49%
Between 3001 € and 4500 €	16%
More than € 4500	4%

Source: Own Elaboration

About 68% of respondents are female, which may be a consequence of the strong presence of the survey on Facebook, where some women respondents seem to have contributed significantly to the dissemination of the questionnaire. The sample is aged between the 15 and 71 years old, with the average being 39 years old, 38% of the sample completed 17 years of education (which corresponds to the current master's degree in Portugal), 33% belong to a household with 3 elements and 49% of the sample has an average monthly net income of 1,500 € to 3,000 € in the respective household.

4. ANALYSIS OF EMPIRICAL DATA

4.1 Characterization of tourists who create online content

The answers given by the sample indicate that about 73% of tourists create content online, either in social networks or in review websites.

Based on the works of Yoo, Lee and Gretzel (2007), Yoo and Gretzel (2008a) and Yoo and Gretzel (2008b), it was possible to piece together a general characterization of tourists contributing with UGC on social media (see Table 3), as well as a characterization of those who share their travel pictures online (see Table 4).

Table 3. Characterization of tourists creating online content

Characteristics	Summary
Gender	Male
Age	Young adults
Yield	High
Internet domain	High
Travel frequency	High

Source: Own elaboration, based on Yoo, Lee and Gretzel (2007), Yoo and Gretzel (2008a) and Yoo and Gretzel (2008b).

Regarding the sociodemographic characterization of tourists that generate content on social media, the results obtained in the present study generally correspond to those indicated by Yoo, Lee and Gretzel (2007), Yoo and Gretzel (2008a) and Yoo and Gretzel (2008b); however, there are some discrepancies, namely:

1. Gender seems to have little or no influence on the propensity to generate content, contesting the hypothesis that men generate most of the content;
2. Although a large proportion of respondents between 15 and 25 years of age (93%) generate content on social media, this behavior also occurs (in a slightly larger number)

in the 26-35 age group (96%) and from 36 to 45 years old (97%), challenging the hypothesis that young adults are the ones who generate most of the content;

3. Respondents with monthly net household incomes between € 3,001 and € 4,500 show a greater tendency (97%) towards sharing content on social media than respondents with a household income greater than € 4,500 (77%). However, it should be noted that respondents with an income above € 4,500 are mainly people over 55, which would explain the lower predisposition towards social media sharing.

Table 4. Characterization of tourists creating content in social media

Characteristics	Share tourism content in social media (%)
Gender	
Male	92%
Female	91%
Age	
15 to 25 years	93%
26 to 35 years	96%
36 to 45 years	97%
46 to 55 years	89%
56 to 71 years	85%
Average monthly net income of the household	
Less than € 1500	94%
Between 1500 € and 3000 €	91%
Between 3001 € and 4500 €	97%
More than € 4500	77%
Familiarity with social media	
1 (not at all familiar)	90%
2	83%
3	93%
4	92%
5 (totally familiar)	100%
Number of travels made in 2014/2015	
1	84%
2	89%
3	96%
4	94%
5	96%
Between 6 and 10	94%
11 or more	100%

Source: Own Elaboration

As for the concordances, the results show that a greater degree of familiarity with social media leads to a greater propensity to generate content, confirming the hypothesis that a greater dominance of the Internet is a positive factor towards content sharing.

At the same time, people who travel more often also show a greater tendency to share content in social media, which also validates the results presented by Yoo, Lee and Gretzel (2007), Yoo and Gretzel (2008a) and Yoo and Gretzel (2008b).

4.2 Principal component analysis

As part of the data analysis, a more thorough study of the question on the use of social networks and review websites as tools to support decision making during the travel was conducted, using a Principal Component Analysis (PCA). This analysis assists in associating and aggregating items whose variables explain a common concept. The aim is to determine whether the first two items (about social networks) will be grouped in a single group and the remaining ones (about review websites) in a different group, thus confirming that the sample behaves in a distinctively different way regarding each type of platform.

To this end, a factorial analysis was applied using the main components method and a Varimax rotation. Before factor retention, the suitability of the analysis was tested based on Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Bartlett's Sphericity Test (see Table 5). In this regard, a KMO of 0.842 was obtained (a value which classifies the factor analysis as being of good quality), along with a significance of 0.000, thus rejecting the null hypothesis, which indicates that the correlation matrix is an identity matrix. In conclusion, enough conditions were met for the the PCA to be considered adequate.

Table 5. Bartlett's KMO and sphericity tests on applied PCA

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure		0.842
Bartlett's Sphericity Test	Approximate chi-square	1104.189
	Degree of freedom	15
	Significance	0.000

Source: Own Elaboration

As for the number of factors to be retained, all methods of selection suggest the retention of two factors. First of all, it is stated *a priori* that the six items of the question being studied can be segmented according to the type of platform: two of the items are about social networks and four are about review websites, forming two groups. Kaiser's criterion also suggests the retention of two factors, since these have an eigenvalue value which is greater than 1 (see Table 6); similarly, the Variance Percentage Criterion also points to the retention of two factors, since these together account for 85% of the variance - more than the 60% defined by the criterion.

Table 6. Total variance explained by the factors

Component	Initial eigenvalues	% of variance explained	% of cumulative explained variance
1	3,787	63 %	63%
2	1,284	21%	85%
3	0,413	7%	91%
4	0,254	4 %	96%
5	0,150	3%	98%
6	0,112	2%	100%

Source: Own Elaboration

The denomination of each of these factors is described in table 7, as well as the individual variables that compose them.

Table 7. Factors taken from the PCA and its component

Factor 1 - "Uses review websites as a tool to support decision making"
"I use review websites to read reviews from other users"
"I use review websites to see photos and descriptions of the space I'm looking for"
"I use review websites to look for additional information (timetables, location, prices, menus...)"
"I use reviews websites to find restaurants, lodgings, leisure spaces or others near me"
Factor 2 - "Uses social networks as a tool to support decision making"
"I use social networks to visit the spaces' institutional pages"
"I use social networks to ask for advice from my contacts"

Source: Own Elaboration

Table 8 shows the coefficients of reliability (Cronbach's Alpha) of the two factors, which vary between 0.95 and 0.73 for Factor 1 and Factor 2, respectively. These values, being higher than 0.7, suggest that there is internal consistency in each factor. In other words, one can say with relative certainty that each factor integrates questions that measure the same concept.

Still on the same table, Factor 1, about review websites, explains a greater part of the variance (63%), with only 21% of the variance explained by Factor 2. This circumstance may indicate that the respondents demonstrated a pattern of more easily identifiable behavior when responding to the items about review websites, which also justifies the higher degree of reliability in this factor, compared to that in Factor 2.

Table 8. Explanatory factorial analysis of the use of social media to search for information during the trip

Factors	Loadings	Eigenvalue	Variance explained	Reliability
Uses review websites as a tool to support decision making		3.787	63%	0.950
"(...) read reviews of other users"	0.925			
"(...) see the photographs and descriptions of the space I'm looking for"	0.931			
"(...) seek additional information"	0.930			
"(...) discover restaurants, lodging, leisure spaces or others near me"	0.886			
Uses social networks as a tool to support decision making		1.284	21%	0.732
"(...) visit the spaces' institutional pages"	0.854			
"(...) ask for advice from my contacts"	0.896			

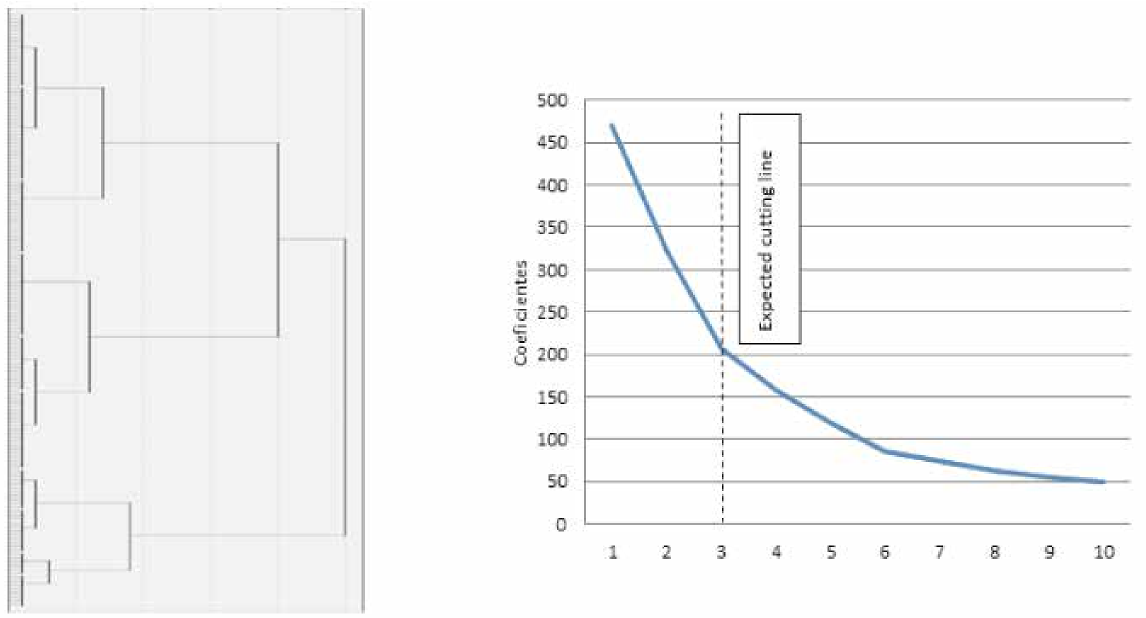
Source: Own Elaboration

4.3 Cluster Analysis

With the objectives of the present investigation in mind, it is pertinent to segment the study sample according to its social media behavior during and after the travel. For this purpose, a cluster analysis was applied, which facilitates the segmentation of respondents into relatively homogeneous groups. The data extracted from the PCA was used to conduct this Cluster Analysis.

Firstly, a hierarchical cluster analysis was implemented, using the Ward aggregation criterion and the squared Euclidean distance as a measure of dissimilarity, on the standardized data. The results of this phase helped determine the number of clusters to be extracted in the analysis, through the subjective cut of the dendrogram, the elbow procedure (see Figure 1) and analysis of the fusion coefficients (see Table 9).

Figure 1. Cluster Analysis – Dendrogram and Line graph (elbow procedure)



Source: Own Elaboration

Table 9. Cluster analysis – Table of fusion coefficients

Step	Cluster Grouped		Coefficients	Difference (coef. step N) – (coef. step N-1)
	Cluster 1	Cluster 2		
226	5	7	49.649	
227	4	21	55.623	12.0%
228	5	23	62.561	12.5%
229	1	3	73.685	17.8%
230	11	32	85.824	16.5%
231	5	12	120.592	40.5%
232	1	36	156.850	30.1%
233	4	11	206.731	31.8% 3 clusters
234	1	5	322.871	56.2%

Source: Own Elaboration

As all three methods suggested the same solution, three clusters were extracted: Cluster 1, with 95 individuals (40% of the 236 respondents who were considered for this analysis), Cluster 2, with 55 individuals (23%), and Cluster 3, with 86 individuals (37%).

It should be noted that all respondents who answered "No Answer" to any of the items in question 3.5 of the survey were not included in the cluster analysis, as they were initially excluded from the PCA. As such, the cluster analysis considered 236 respondents (94% of the total sample), while 14 respondents (6% of the sample) were not grouped into any of the clusters.

The most evident distinctions among the three clusters are based on their tendency to use certain types of social media as an alternative to others during the tourist trip, as well as on the propensity to use social media in general.

Essentially, Cluster 1 is composed of individuals who typically use review websites more frequently; on the other hand, Cluster 2 comprises individuals who preferentially use social networks; finally, Cluster 3 records the lowest use of any type of social media.

Additional analyzes allow for a characterization of each of the clusters. Table 10 shows the main sociodemographic distinctions between individuals in each cluster.

In terms of gender, all three clusters have a higher percentage of female respondents, but Cluster 2 stands out: while clusters 1 and 3 have nearly identical percentages on this regard, Cluster 2 shows an even greater predominance of female respondents (76%).

Table 10. Sociodemographic characterization by cluster

Variable	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
Gender			
Male	35%	24%	34%
Female	65%	76%	66%
Professional situation			
Self-employed	4%	16%	13%
Employee on behalf of others	68%	66%	51%
Unemployed	3%	4%	4%
Student	23%	13%	26%
Retired	1%	2%	7%
Average monthly net income of the household			
Less than € 1500	32%	29%	29%
Between 1500 € and 3000 €	49%	49%	49%
Between 3001 € and 4500 €	16%	16%	16%
More than € 4500	2%	6%	6%
Average age	37 years	41 years	40 years

Source: Own Elaboration

As for the professional situation, Cluster 2 is the one with the lowest percentage of students (13%), most of whom are employed (whether on their own account or on behalf of others). Curiously, Cluster 3 is the one which simultaneously contains the greatest percentage of students (26%) and retired respondents (7%). Because this is also the cluster of respondents who less often uses social media during the trip as a means to support decision making, it is theorized that the students included in this cluster are not those who rarely use social media in general, but the who rely the least on these platforms to support decision making, since this was the specific criterion used in the segmentation of the sample. Finally, Cluster 1 is composed almost exclusively of employees (68%) and students (23%).

In terms of performance, the three clusters present fairly similar data, especially Cluster 2 and Cluster 3, whose values only differ by a decimal level. Cluster 1 has fewer individuals earning over € 4,500 per month than the other clusters and more individuals with incomes of less than € 1,500, although the differences are only around 3%.

Similarly, the average number of completed years of education and the average number of household members are approximately identical among the three clusters, thus, along with the average monthly net household income, these indicators are not ideal to differentiate the clusters from one another.

On the other hand, the variable of age presents some differences, albeit slight. Cluster 1 is the youngest, with an average age of 37 years old. Cluster 2, which contains the smallest percentage of students, is the oldest cluster, with an average age of 41 years old. The third cluster has an average age of 40 years old, very close to the average of the sample (39 years - see Table 2), which coincides with the simultaneously strong presence of students, employees and retirees in this group, as these suggest a greater age dispersion.

For a better understanding, however, it is particularly important to characterize each cluster according to their respective tourism profile and their respective perceptions and habits of social media consumption.

4.3.1 Social media - Perspectives regarding Internet usage while traveling

Firstly, the perspectives of each cluster on the access and use of the Internet while traveling were tested. The results (see Table 11) correspond to the average opinions of the individuals in each cluster, measured on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 being "totally disagree" and 5 "totally agree" in relation to the statements presented in each paragraph.

Table 11. Perspectives of each cluster regarding Internet usage while traveling

Variable	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
1. Not having access to the Internet while travelling is a good thing	2.2	1.9	2.2
2. It is convenient to carry at least one device with me that can connect to the Internet	4.3	4.7	4.2
3. I prioritize lodging options with free Internet access	3.9	3.9	3.7
4. When the weather is unfavorable, I spend more time on the Internet	2.4	2.9	2.7

Source: Own Elaboration

4.3.2 Social media - Frequency of use of social media

The frequency of use of social media represents a factor of high importance for the objectives of this study, since it is a way of measuring its prominence in the tourist experience of the individual. As such, to characterize the clusters in question, it is pertinent to analyze how often each group uses social media, both in their daily lives (see Table 12) and while traveling (see Table 13).

In a first analysis, it is clear that Cluster 1 is, out of the three clusters, the one which most often uses review websites, both in their daily lives and while traveling; in parallel, Cluster 2 makes the most use of social networks instead. Lastly, and in contrast with the other two clusters, Cluster 3 typically tends to use social media in general the least.

It is also interesting to note that Cluster 2 is the one which shows the smallest difference in behavior regarding the frequency of social media use while traveling, with only a slight decrease in the average value in social networks (from 4.0 to 3.7) and review websites (from 2.2 to 2.1). This behavior is very characteristic of this cluster, whose individuals are more adept at integrating social media in life in general and while traveling in particular.

Table 12. Frequency of social media use during the daily life by cluster

Social media	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
Social Networks	**3.5**	**4.0**	**3.2**
Facebook	4.4	4.8	4.3
Instagram	2.6	3.2	2.0
Reviews Websites	**2.6**	**2.2**	**1.9**
TripAdvisor	3.0	2.4	2.0
Booking	3.2	2.8	2.4
Zomato	1.7	1.5	1.3

Source: Own Elaboration

Table 13. Frequency of social media use while traveling by cluster

Social media	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
Social Networks	**2.9**	**3.7**	**2.4**
Facebook	3.5	4.5	3.2
Instagram	2.2	2.8	1.6
Reviews Websites	**2.3**	**2.1**	**1.5**
TripAdvisor	2.7	2.3	1.6
Booking	2.7	2.6	1.9
Zomato	1.5	1.5	1.1

Source: Own Elaboration

In contrast, the respondents in Cluster 3 are the ones that decrease their social media use the most, as this group can be characterized as individuals who naturally distance themselves from these platforms and make no use of them as tools to enhance the tourism experience.

Cluster 1 stays close to the total sample's average values in this regard, but its respondents stand out as being the most frequent users of review websites. This preference suggests that individuals in this group have a pragmatic view of social media: from their perspective, review websites in particular are a convenient way to obtain and share useful information with a global community of tourists, which can contribute towards bettering the travel experience.

4.3.3 Social media - Using social media to search for information while traveling

As this is the question used for dividing the sample into clusters (after the application of the PCA), it is of particular interest to ascertain the answers given by each cluster to each of its items. In the following table, the average answers are presented in a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 meaning "Never" and 5 "Always" (see Table 14).

Table 14. Use of social media as a tool to support decision making by cluster

Social media	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
Social Networks	**2.2**	**4.2**	**2.0**
Consult official information	2.8	4.5	2.4
Ask contacts for advice	1.7	3.9	1.6
Reviews Websites	**4.2**	**3.5**	**2.2**
Read reviews from other travelers	4.2	3.5	2.2
View photos and descriptions of a space	4.3	3.5	2.3
See complementary information for a space	4.3	3.5	2.3
Discover new spaces in the surroundings	4.1	3.3	2.1

Source: Own Elaboration

Similar to the frequency of general use of social media, Cluster 2 continues to be the one that most uses these platforms, this time as tools to support decision making. However, confirming what was verified in the previous analysis, Cluster 1 shows a much more frequent use of review websites for information search than any other cluster (average of 4.2).

In social networks, Cluster 2 stands out as the one that most often uses these platforms to search for information during the trip, with an average of 4.2, compared to the average of 2.2 in Cluster 1 and 2.0 in Cluster 3.

4.3.4 Social media - Motivations that lead to self-expression on social networks

In order to understand what distinguishes the origin of the behaviors of each cluster on social media, the motivations that lead them to express themselves in social networks during the trip were analyzed (see Table 15).

As previously noted, Cluster 2 is the one which most favors the use of social network. Thus, it is unsurprising that this cluster shows the highest values regarding the various motivations presented in this topic. At the same time, Clusters 1 and 3, with lower social network usage rates, express very similar opinions to one another about their motivations for self-expression on social networks, suggesting that both clusters perceive these platforms in a similar way.

Table 15. Motivations that lead to self-expression in social networks per cluster

Variable	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
Convenience	3.5	4.0	3.5
Show off	2.2	2.8	2.5
Share unique experiences	3.0	3.6	3.1
Invite others to live the experience	2.7	3.4	2.7
Share happy moments	3.4	3.8	3.4
Express sociability	2.3	3.1	2.3

Source: Own Elaboration

Nevertheless, it is important to note that the motivations “Convenience” and “Sharing happy moments” continue to have a very positive score throughout all clusters, confirming that these are universal motivations for all tourists, regardless of their position on the use of social media while traveling.

In addition, Cluster 2 is the only one which agrees, albeit with an almost neutral classification, that the desire to express sociability motivates its expression on social networks (3.1), distancing itself from the global sample's average for this item (2.5). This helps to describe Cluster 2 as individuals who consider the sharing of travel experiences on social networks to be a societal norm, as suggested by Fotis (2015). In other words, part of the reason why Cluster 2 shares their travel experience on social networks is because this is expected of any tourist and represents an opportunity to express sociability.

4.3.5 Social media - Nature of reviews published on review websites

The nature of the reviews that each cluster publishes on review websites was also studied (see Table 16).

This question also includes an item which clearly allows one to ascertain which individuals do not write any reviews on review websites.

Table 16. Nature of reviews published on review websites by each cluster

Variable	Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Cluster 3
Very positive and / or very negative ratings	17%	10%	5%
Positive ratings	8%	17%	17%
Negative ratings	0%	0%	1%
Ratings, regardless of classification	55%	42%	31%
Does not write reviews	21%	31%	46%

Source: Own Elaboration

Starting with the last paragraph, it is confirmed that Cluster 1 is the one that most often publishes reviews (79%), followed by Cluster 2 (69%) and, finally, Cluster 3 (54%).

Regarding the nature of these reviews, the results are in line with the general analysis of the sample, with the highest percentage of individuals from all clusters indicating that, when writing reviews, these can be either positive or negative.

Cluster 2 and cluster 3 are more likely to write only positive reviews (17%), compared to Cluster 1 (8%), the latter being more unbiased regarding the quality of the experience, also strengthening the notion that this cluster has a more utilitarian and pragmatic view of the Internet.

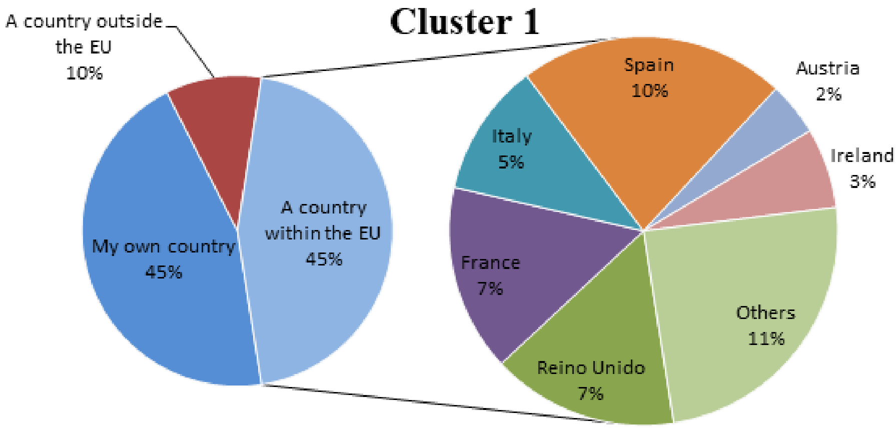
4.3.6 Tourist profile - Preferred holiday destinations

Based on the total number of tourist trips made by the sample in the years 2014 and/or 2015, this study analyzes the destinations visited by each cluster during their main vacations (see Figure 2, Figure 3 and Figure 4).

The results show that Cluster 2 is the one which most traveled in Portugal (55%) or in an EU country (43%), preferably Spain (15%). This may suggest that, preferring to travel short distances (and at a reduced cost), Cluster 2 is typically made up of domestic tourists or travelers who more often opt for lower investment trips. It can also be assumed that the respondents in Cluster 2 prefer to travel to a nearby destination so as to save money on transport and invest in superior accommodation.

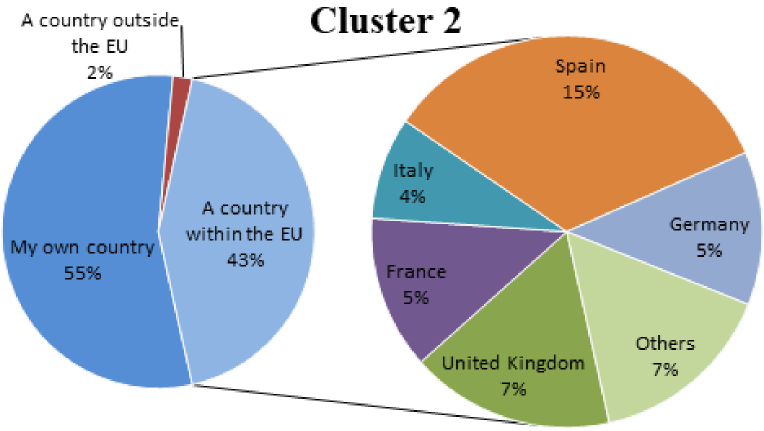
Cluster 1 and Cluster 3 show very similar results, both with a slight majority of individuals preferring to travel outside Portugal on their main holidays and to very similar countries (mainly Spain, the United Kingdom and France).

Figure 2. Destinations visited by each cluster on their main holidays (Cluster 1)



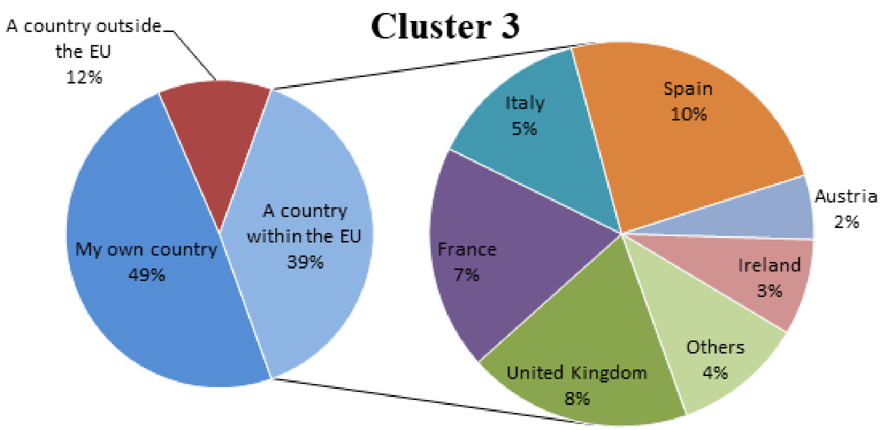
Source: Own Elaboration

Figure 3. Destinations visited by each cluster on their main holidays (Cluster 2)



Source: Own Elaboration

Figure 4. Destinations visited by each cluster on their main holidays (Cluster 3)



Source: Own Elaboration

5. CONCLUSION

In the case of social media, the presence of UGC is a basic element of these platforms. As such, given the steady growth in the number of social media users, the comments, opinions and experiences shared by tourists represent a substantial contribution to online tourist information. Additionally, the testimonies of other consumers are the source of information which tourists value the most when looking to make decisions during all stages of the trip, as confirmed by the literature review.

Through their study, Yoo, Lee and Gretzel (2007), Yoo and Gretzel (2008a) and Yoo and Gretzel (2008b) found that young males with high levels of income, education and internet ease-of-use and who travel more often are more likely to use social media to create content while traveling.

A questionnaire survey was implemented, allowing this study to work with primary data in two aspects: on the one hand, the validation of secondary data collected from other authors and, on the other, the identification of trends in the behavior of tourists on social media. This survey allowed for a better understanding of the behaviors and habits of social media use by Portuguese tourists who traveled in the years 2014 and/or 2015.

In the analysis of results, this study characterized the tourists that generate content on social media during the trip, noting that the results differ in part from those determined by Yoo, Lee and Gretzel (2007), Yoo and Gretzel (2008a), Yoo and Gretzel (2008b) and Yoo and Gretzel (2016). Gender and income level do not seem to have a significant influence on the propensity to generate content by Portuguese tourists, age seems to only partially influence this propensity, and the frequency of content generation only decreases after the age of 45. On the other hand, and validating the conclusions of these authors, age strongly influences the propensity to share photographs specifically, as young people are more predisposed to generate content in this format.

Through a Principal Components Analysis, the hypothesis was tested that, based only on the answers given by the respondents to the various items on the question about the use of social networks and review websites as tools to support decision-making during the trip, it would be possible to identify a distinct behavior in relation to the two items regarding social networks and the remaining four items regarding review websites. This hypothesis was confirmed, resulting in the extraction of two components: one which groups the variables on social networks and another which groups the variables on review websites. These components were used to segment the sample according to their response patterns, through a hierarchical cluster analysis.

The cluster analysis segmented the sample into three different clusters, which were thoroughly studied and characterized: Cluster 1, with about 40% of the 236 respondents admitted to this analysis, Cluster 2, with 23% of the respondents, and Cluster 3, with 37%. It was concluded that the main differences between the clusters are in the perception that they each have regarding social media and in the use that they make of them.

Cluster 1, which is also the most numerous, includes individuals who have a particularly utilitarian view of social media. In other words, for this group, social media (especially review websites) are a useful platform for obtaining and sharing information and keeping in touch with one's contacts.

For Cluster 2, social media (especially social networks) are also a source of entertainment and give the tourist the means to express sociability and communicate with their contacts through a more frequent sharing of travel contents. This preference for social networks is maintained even when searching for information, given that this segment favors social networks as a support for decision making while traveling.

Finally, Cluster 3, while not necessarily against the use of social media, is the least favorable towards these platforms, both in their daily lives and during the trip. In other words, this cluster is not particularly motivated to use either social networks or reviews websites, whether to generate content or to search for content generated by other users. However, results show extensively that this cluster does not necessarily have a negative opinion of social media.

At the sociodemographic level, although the three clusters do not differ substantially, Cluster 1 is the one that contains a greater percentage of male respondents, and is also the youngest group. Cluster 2, also the oldest group, is composed of the greatest percentage of female respondents and the smallest percentage of students. Cluster 3 contains both the highest percentage of students and retirees, reinforcing the notion that this is a very diverse group of individuals, not only demographically, but also in terms of tourism consumption habits. It is also added that the clusters present very similar results regarding "Average net monthly income of the household", "Number of household elements" and "Years of education completed successfully", so these indicators are not adequate to distinguish and characterize each segment.

The present study thus resulted in a comprehensive analysis of the behavior of Portuguese tourists on social media. This analysis was carried out in order to contribute to a better understanding of the motivations, process and implications regarding tourist generated content. In addition to the survey and analysis of empirical data, the literature review also represents a step towards the consolidation and aggregation of scientific literature in this area, which, given its relative youth, does not yet consist of an optimally robust body of publications.

In terms of future work the study will be continued to be developed, integrating Location Based Social Network Applications (LB-SNAs) that allows access to real-time tourist location information to investigate how this applications contribute and influence the touristic experiences and the usage behavior of tourists as also the problematics regarding privacy (Koohikamali, Gerhart & Mousavizadeh, 2015; Palos-Sanchez, Hernandez-Mogollon & Campon-Cerro, 2017).

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USERS ACCEPTANCE OF LOCATION-BASED MARKETING APPS IN TOURISM SECTOR: AN EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS

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ABSTRACT

Mobile devices are the most used technology tools to access the Internet since they allow access from anywhere. This possibility has prompted companies to focus, to a greater extent, strategies based on geolocation marketing. Geolocation is a tool through which people or places can be located and have very diverse functionalities and applications. Location-Based Services (LBS) allow businesses to incorporate these types of tools into their digital marketing strategies. Social networks based on location services (LBSNS or Location-Based Social Network System) allow businesses to access information on the location of customers in real time.

The present study provides more information on LBS and geolocation marketing, also known as geomarketing, analyzing the utility and benefits that this tool has to digital marketing and social networks and the importance of its technological adoption. To achieve this objective, a thorough review of technology adoption literature was carried out and a series of interviews were made with experts and professionals in its two aspects: digital marketing and information technologies. The results show the way in the tourism sector, these tools are managed, the means in which they are active, the LBS systems used, the utility and benefits they perceive from them, as well as the importance and efforts that they dedicate to them.

This study reaches relevant conclusions for tourism professionals interested in incorporating LBS and geomarketing strategies into their businesses, as well as researchers interested in the behavior in Location-Based Services.

Keywords: Location-Based Services (LBS), Geomarketing, Digital Marketing, Social Networks, Location, Technology Adoption.

JEL Classification: M15, M31

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the need for users to be connected at all times is being greatly enhanced. While we surf the Internet we are permanently located, whether we do it from a fixed IP address, which locates our access router, as if we do it from a mobile device (Saura, Palos-Sanchez & Cerda, 2018).

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This location represents an enormous source of benefits for companies since the location information of a user or consumer can increase their income. However, location information also plays a large role in the world of transport and logistics, for example: location-based information can present a solution to a growing range of problems.

Nowadays, smartphones are, by far, the most used devices to access the network. Technological advances such as the Internet, smartphone or geolocation have forced companies to develop specific marketing techniques for each device in order to commercialize them through different channels (Morales et al., 2014). Thus, the adaptation of online portals and web applications to mobile devices has increased the number of visits and makes their use more accessible and usable. This adaptation is known as App or Mobile Application (Palos-Sánchez, 2017). An App is a computer application designed to be executed on smartphones, tablets and other mobile devices and allows the user to perform a specific task of any kind, professional, leisure, educational, access to services, etc., facilitating the efforts or activities to develop into the device (Santiago et al., 2015; Clarke et al., 2015).

Mobile marketing is defined as any form of marketing that use a mobile device as channel for transmitting information (Ružić et al., 2012). Mobile devices combine functions previously specific to other tools such as computers, telephones, TV cameras, audios, video cameras, etc. (Nunes & Simões-Marques, 2015).

The main objective of this study is to clarify what are the influencing factors in the adoption of location-based applications services on geolocation marketing from the point of view of the tourism sector. To this end, a thorough review of the adoption literature was carried out and a series of interviews were made with experts and professionals in its double aspect: digital marketing and information technologies.

On the one hand, reviewing the literature of adoption of LBS (Location-Based Services) and geomarketing and, on the other, through a methodology of qualitative research, through interviews with experts, we can build a model that could be tested in subsequent quantitative research focused on a representative sample. Its results will be very useful for the scientific community that is researching the adoption of technologies, but also for technology experts, marketing directors and developers of mobile applications based on LBS. They can make decisions based on lower risks, if they know the main influencing factors and take them into account in their professional activities.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Web 2.0 technology and cloud computing

Web 2.0 technology stands out because the content is generated by the user, there is no longer any separation between consumers and information producers. With the help of standards and interoperability, any element of information is omnipresent. From its appearance, users are no longer isolated, they can create links among themselves to share information and interests (Fu et al., 2008).

To all this, we must add an important advantage, modularity, which allows to separate the container (interfaces) and the content (the information itself). Therefore, Web 2.0 allows users to create, classify, evaluate, update or comment the information and data through the Internet. This means that users can benefit from its social dimension by obtaining access to more relevant information due to the massive increase in online content.

The possibility that everyone can access and use the Internet to add content to an existing website, create their own, without being experts, or have knowledge about information technologies, is the most notorious feature of Web 2.0 (Saura et al. 2018).

If we transfer this concept to the geographical space, Web 2.0 is a direct and easy-to-use channel to create networks of “human sensors”, which will generate original data sets about their voluntary geographic information, with enormous potential for applications (Goodchild, 2007). Which represents another example, of content generated by the user, in this case related to the spatial reference. Thus, all the geolocated information, which comes from different sources of information, is represented in a geo-navigator (Wood et al., 2007).

The success of social networks, as well as the integration of social functions in e-commerce platforms, helps to integrate the user into web 2.0 technology. This fact has encouraged companies to be interested in social networks and all that information that contributes to a better understanding of consumer tastes, but geolocation adds a plus to all these features and makes the same information even more attractive. Thus, geospatial web services are contributing to the increased use of geographic information of clients and companies (Alameh, 2003).

This interest of companies through social networks and geolocation, together with the widespread use of the Internet through smartphone or tablet, have contributed to companies developing new marketing techniques specific to each of the devices, in order to market their products or services through different channels (Morales et al., 2014).

To all this we must add that the widespread use of mobile devices provides enormous benefits when combined with cloud computing (commonly translated as cloud), since it can offer virtually unlimited computing power and storage space, as well as access to updating of the data databases and new configurations, which are only available in the cloud. Cloud technology is usually confused with the Internet concept (Palos & Correia, 2016). We must highlight that cloud computing is a set of technologies that provide a series of advantages for both, the customer and the service provider, and that make possible real “economies of scale” in the provision of services through the Internet, reducing costs and increasing scalability. This technology is key to the development of geolocation services in detailed maps (Palos & Correia, 2016).

2.2 Mobile Marketing

According to Mike Wehrs, President of the AMA (American Marketing Association), mobile marketing is “a set of practices that allows organizations or individuals to communicate and engage with their audience (consumers) in an interactive and relevant way through any device or mobile phone network”(Ružić et al., 2012). Therefore, mobile marketing is defined as a set of practices (activities, processes, commercial entities, advertising and means of promotion, consumer services, loyalty, social marketing and all other entities and marketing tools) that assumes participation as fundamental part of digital marketing strategies and interactions with users (relationships, user attraction, encourage activities, encourage interaction with the organization and other members of the community). It must be considered that the smartphone or the Tablet combine functionalities with other tools such as computers, telephones, TV cameras, audios, video cameras, etc. (Nunes & Simões-Marques, 2015).

It is important to mention the phenomenon of virality defined as Mobile Viral Marketing or Viral Mobile Marketing “as marketing that, through communication techniques and mobile devices, relies on the consumer as a prime element to transmit viral content to other consumers of its social sphere and, in turn, encourages these contacts to transmit content to other users” (Wedemann, 2007). This variation of marketing can use transmission media such as electronic messaging, banners, apps, QR codes, Bluetooth or geolocation apps. Some authors even want to use the term mobile marketing as a synonym for location marketing, where their services are based on the location of the business or the user, which is changing in real time through the GPS signal that has incorporated by mobile devices (Ružić et al., 2012).

2.3 Geolocation or Geomarketing

In 2009, geolocation begins to be used by companies (Florez & Aguilar, 2012). The term is related to the knowledge of the geographical location of places, objects or people automatically and in real time, using tools and technological mechanisms such as Internet, browsers, mobile telephony satellites, PDAs, smartphones or tablets, among other devices (Florez & Aguilar, 2012). This location is combined with coupons, offers, or simply by advertising directed to people who use these devices in specific geographical areas. That is when geomarketing or localization marketing strategies are used. It is a marketing tool that analyzes the behavior of consumers according to their geographical situation and uses this information to promote themselves (Red, 2012). This type of marketing is usually included in mobile marketing.

Therefore, companies can motivate the user to reveal their location, even when they are aware of the risks involved, such as privacy (Koohikamali et al., 2015). Companies that are geo-located get, on the one hand, new customers who, due to their closeness, are encouraged to know it and, on the other hand, to increase the loyalty of current customers. Therefore, geolocation is applied to marketing under two antagonistic but interrelated procedures; companies and customers or consumers: (Red.es, 2012).

- Companies: When a company decides to include geolocation strategies, not only must it register its geographical location, but it must also add information and contents such as photographs, videos, documents, etc. and shares this information through existing geolocation tools, such as QR codes, Bluetooth or other technologies.
- Users: Geolocation is increasingly used in social networks to promote the socialization of them, which can become customers if companies share information, promotions or offers when consumers are close to it.

They stand out as the three most important advantages of the use of geolocation that companies can determine which products or promotions are better adapted to lifestyles and consumption patterns from a geographical perspective. Therefore, it is possible to delimit the consumption zones, through a spatial analysis of the competitors. Finally, geolocation analyzes and detects possible locations for different points of sale (Cardoso, 2011). Another use of geomarketing is the increase in sales or the resolution of logistics problems among suppliers, distribution centers and retail stores (Tsiros & Vikas, 2000).

2.4 Social networks and geolocation

The development of geolocation has been strongly driven by the improvement of mobile devices and the popularization of social networks (Beltrán, 2011). The disproportionate increase in the number of users of mobile devices, has caused that the exchange of information based on location has become a trend in social networks (Kim, 2016). The integration of location-based services (LBS) in social networks and mobile technologies has provided the appearance of a variety of new services (Varnali & Toker, 2010; Shim et al., 2011). Thus, a new variant emerges, the social geolocation, which began to be used as a result of the union of social networks and the GPS function of mobile devices, which allows the user to communicate and share the place where he/she is (Beltrán, 2011), as well as information related to the location, such as photographs or activities (Zhao et al., 2012).

This new type of social networks are known as location-based (LBSNS Location served social network systems), due to the importance of location in their functionalities. In recent years, the number of LBSNS has increased rapidly throughout the world (Zhao et al., 2012). Nowadays, it is very advisable for companies to get involved in this trend and make themselves visible to consumers, so in addition to having their space on the network it is necessary to interact with customers. To this end, many social networks and applications with maps emerge, which focus their functionalities on geolocation. Some examples are Facebook places (2010), through which users can post their current location, recommend places and events, as well as evaluate them (Florez & Aguilar, 2012) like Google Maps or Earth tools, that use content such as maps with data, images, company records, traffic, reviews and other data. Foursquare, users are rewarded if they register places where they meet other people or discover new ones and finally Swarm, for the search and meeting with friends (Beltrán, 2011).

These geolocated social networks or LBSNS represent examples of the business potential that sociability and geolocation can reach. The study of its growth and future sustainability is a new source of research, in the course of which research shows success factors such as dependence on the continuous contribution of users (Fang and Neufeld, 2009; Chiu et al., 2013; Saura et al., 2018; Palos-Sanchez & Saura, 2018).

Several studies highlight the benefits for LBS companies. These benefits are the application of new promotion techniques, such as discounts, reward opportunities when they enter their stores or physical stores or when scanning the barcodes of their products using their mobile cameras (Kang et al., 2015); the location of the nearest activity or service, such as banks, hotels, restaurants or pharmacies; the reception of alerts, such as the notification of offers in a shopping center or traffic jams in nearby streets; the search for friends or people with whom you have an appointment (Singhal & Shukla, 2012); and obtaining quantitative information about user behavior; the increase in customer loyalty and the improvement of the relationship with it; the achievement of constant feedback and presence and being able to carry out more localized viral marketing campaigns (Beltrán, 2011).

Table 1. Research articles on LBS and LBSNS

Author / s	**Research**
Jacobsen (2004)	*Middleware for LBS*
Singhal and Shukla, (2012)	*Implementation of LBS in Androids using GPS and web services*
Zhou (2012)	*Examining the use of LBS from the perspectives of the unifying theory of acceptance, use of technology and privacy risk*
Ružić et al. (2012)	*Development of mobile marketing in Croatian tourism using LBS*
Kang et al. (2015)	*Use of the mobile in stores: Download and intention to use commercial apps based on location (LB) through mobile*
Koohikamali et al. (2015)	*Disclosure of the location in LBSNS apps: The role of incentives in sharing behavior*
Sun et al. (2015)	*The disclosure of location information in the LBSNS: Calculation of privacy, structure of benefits and gender differences*
Kim (2016)	*What drives to do the check-in on Facebook? Motivations, privacy, concerns, and participation of the mobile phone for the exchange of information LB*
Ketelaar et al. (2018)	*"Opening" location-based mobile ads: How openness and location congruency of location-based ads weaken negative effects of intrusiveness on brand choice*
Lee et al. (2018)	What drives stickiness in location-based AR games? An examination of flow and satisfaction

Source: Own Elaboration

3. METHODOLOGY

Through a qualitative research methodology and through interviews with experts, we have found the main influencing factors in their intention to use. This technique is very appropriate in investigations of an exploratory nature (Trespalacios et al., 2005). These factors, subsequently, can help to build a model of causal relationships that can be contrasted in quantitative research, carried out through a survey of a representative sample of the population under study.

The interviews were carried out with experts and professionals in its double aspect: digital marketing and information technologies. In order to select the experts, a database of executives of advertising agencies, experts in digital marketing consultancy, hotel and restaurant establishments in the city of Seville and its Province was created. This province has several cities and municipalities that have an important heritage such as Carmona, Écija or Alcalá de Guadaira. In the case of the Capital, in its historic center you can locate, among the intricate of its well-known Barrio de Santa Cruz. The procedure for selecting the participants was one of convenience.

We contacted 35 experts and professionals and 25 of them agreed to participate in an interview of a minimum of 30 minutes and a maximum of 60 minutes. The development of the interviews was carried out by telephone in some cases, in others it was done personally, arriving to visit the establishments themselves in the case of professionals. In these cases, the websites were visited and their positioning in search engines, such as Google Place, and geolocalized social networks.

As for the script of the interview, mainly, the questions focused on knowing the reasons that had led them to use the LBS services in the organizations; how they were managed and why; what tools they knew and what they used; what intention of use they had over them; what results were expected from each one; what benefits they had observed through its use and why they believed it was so; how interaction with customers had improved; what importance they gave to the online image of the organization; What efforts do you dedicate or do you think you should dedicate to improve it? in what way and why; and finally the relationship between the way in which customers contract their services or products and the correct geolocation of them.

3.1 An option for the treatment of information from the social phenomenology approach

Some of the characteristics of a qualitative research are the registration and systematization of information. The difficulties of this type of research are those related to the type of research, as well as the codification of the information. The information must be coded by the researchers, considering the influence of actions related to feelings and perceptions or attitudes that the researchers may have on the subject of study.

For the process of developing a qualitative study to be corrected, authors must specify the topic of analysis. The investigator must transcribe the information specifically with respect to the facts participating in the study. Likewise, it is also important the adequacy of the time and how the data specifically fit the investigated act.

In addition, for the data collection process it may also be important that other researchers can code the information so that the process is more complete by following a manual or a guide. This fact means that the principal researcher can also review the information collected and compare it with the objectives or theoretical frameworks needed to correctly adjust and understand the qualitative information and the coding process. In order to better understand this codification information process, the following phases proposed by Boyatzys (1998) in Table 2.

Table 2. Thematic analysis process phases

Phase	Title
Phase 1	Familiarization with the data -information-
Phase 2	Generation of initial categories or codes
Phase 3	Search of themes
Phase 4	Review of topics
Phase 5	Definition and denomination of topics
Phase 6	Production of the final report

Source: Boyatzis (1998)

The different phases of the information processing can be superimposed with other stages of the study, and there is a round-trip movement between different phases as the analysis progresses. As a result of this flexibility offered by the method and which makes it possible to take advantage of the wealth of information. In order to achieve a process that has quality in the development of the investigation, that is clear and presents the arguments correctly, a series of phases must be followed in which each of the processes proposed below by Boyatzis (1998) is developed in Table 3:

Table 3. Development of analysis process phases

Phase	Description
Phase 1	Familiarization with the data -information-. It consists of the transcription, reading and rereading of the material and annotation of general ideas. It is about reading carefully and repeatedly the information looking for structures and meanings; it is about making the most of its potential.
Phase 2	Generation of initial codes. The coding process consists in organizing information in groups of the same meaning: “Code is understood to be the segment or most basic element of raw information that can be considered significant in relation to the subject under study” (Boyatzis, 1998). During the coding process, systematic work is carried out along all the information following the guidelines suggested by Boyatzis (1998) for this phase of the thematic analysis: a) the largest possible number of patterns in the information is codified; b) sufficient information is incorporated in each code so as not to lose perspective of the context; c) it is considered that the same data extract can be coded more than once. There are two forms of coding: inductive, which is done starting from the data, without previous coding; and theoretical, from the specific theoretical interests of the researcher.
Phase 3	Search of topics. It is considered a topic that “captures” some important information in relation to the research question, representing a level of structured response or meaning. Also, as a part found in information that at least describes and organizes information, and at most interprets aspects of a phenomenon (Boyatzys, 1998).
Phase 4	Review of topics. Re-coding and discovery of new topics is carried out, establishing a delimitation of the topics so as not to exceed.
Phase 5	Definition and denomination of topics. The themes are definitively identified, the “essentials” of the topic are established and the hierarchies (themes / sub-themes) are elaborated.
Phase 6	Writing a final report. A narrative based on argumentation that derives from the understanding and interpretation of the collected information is constructed. The thematic analysis fulfills some characteristics that are considered common to qualitative analysis -analysis as a cyclical process and reflective activity- the analytical process must be broad and systematic but not rigid; the data is fragmented and divided into significant units, but its connection with the whole is maintained; the data is organized in a system derived from them.

Source: Boyatzis (1998)

The results of the research have been adapted to the research process and are presented in the following section.

4. ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

4.1 Online identity

Digital technology acts as a mediator in the experience of identity, which is constructed by people and also conditioned by social factors (Castañeda & Camacho, 2012). Therefore, the digital identity of an organization is essential to ensure long-term viability. The image that a company projects on the network can be decisive for its success or for its failure, depending on how good it is (Mayer-Schoenberger, 2007).

To check this question, a series of open questions related to digital identity were raised: online reputation, average score, opinions and recommendations from clients and number of followers in social networks. The majority of the interviewees agreed that:

> "Currently, it is common for consumers not to hire a service or buy a product without first contrasting the opinions of other customers or the assessment given to them by the company."
>
> "There are hundreds of platforms, apps, websites, forums, etc. in which the clients give an assessment, they think and tell their experience of use. It is therefore difficult to be expectant to all of them."
>
> "Getting a good online image can take a while, which is why the time of existence of the digital identity conditions the importance that is given to the identity."

The global importance that professionals and experts give to the digital identity is 4.5 out of 5. There is an aspect that is mainly relevant to them, the opinion of the clients, which is the axis that conditions the rest of the actions. The recommendations among users is another factor to be considered, however, in this case the professionals from older and mature establishments attach less importance to this factor and a greater importance to customer loyalty. It is all these factors that has less importance is related to participation in social networks, where the number of followers or "I like" is the factor to pay less attention.

4.2 Platforms, media and apps

The interviewees were asked to comment on the most commonly used web platforms and the reasons why they used or recommended them (in the case of experts), based on the criteria that most benefit their business. Thus, they made an assessment that they were commenting on based on whether they had their own website, they were in a directory, agenda or web platform and if they combined both strategies.

> "The existence of an own company website is an important point to build the digital identity, as a previous step to the geolocation".
>
> "The own website derives clients to the physical business".
>
> "The website of the company is an important source of trust for the e-commerce store"

Then, the interviewees grant, in general, a greater importance to that companies are present in directories, agendas or platforms. The most important reasons that they exposed were the following:

> "The presence in platforms or apps of commercialization of products or services contributes more traffic to the website."
>
> "Appearing in directories or business agendas makes you gain more visibility on the Internet."
>
> "The user's confidence in online sales is proportional to your presence through search engines. The indexation in these portals brings credibility to the business".

4.3 Social Networks and LBS (Location Based Services)

In the assessment they made of social networks, Facebook was the social network best valued by professionals, especially by hotel managers and restaurant owners, where more than 70% of them chose it as a favorite. The social networks Twitter with more than 20%, and Instagram, that exceeded 15% were the second and the third most valued. The experts chose LinkedIn in most cases. It turned out to be striking that for many professionals at the front of businesses, social networks do not contribute in a client way, but they serve to generate trust or in some cases, like Facebook, they could receive a client.

Next, they were asked about the LBS platforms. The most valued was Google Places with more than 40% of use and 75% of knowledge. The rest of the LBS services were barely known, except for those interviewed in the hotel and restaurant sector who know much better the potential of these platforms. However, in these cases the results obtained are very different and give greater value to reservations platforms such as Booking or Tripadvisor, than to social networks with LBS or simply LBS.

The knowledge of the geolocalized social network Foursquare barely reached 12%. This result coincides with an investigation that states that the expectation generated has not corresponded to the interest collected (IAB, 2010), since only 4% of the participants in the study knew Foursquare. This same study publishes that once explained its function only 35% was interested in it. The most relevant data obtained from this study was that current and potential users of Foursquare, were especially interested in using the application to take advantage of promotions from establishments near their current location.

The interviewees were asked about the use of the app or mobile applications they used. Also, if they had planned to make a version of the website or some service through an app. The result obtained was very low in this regard. Some professionals affirmed:

> "I do not consider the app beneficial and its usefulness is more typical of day-to-day services".

The overall results showed that less than 10% of the interviewees considered them to be very beneficial, and the majority found that they were able to use it to improve the marketing of their business with little or no benefit. A similar result reaches the valuation of the use of own blogs, which is considered as little beneficial in most cases. Asked by some of the most popular apps on social networking geolocation. The lack of knowledge about social navigation networks, such as Waze or Moovit, that use real-time traffic information, suggest better routes and notify users of traffic congestion or accidents that help to save time and fuel (Heiskala et al., 2016).

4.4 Geolocation techniques and tools

The interviewees explained the reasons why they would use geolocation and help systems based on it. The systems they knew and, in some cases, have used in their business have been: Proximity marketing, in most cases they knew Bluetooth, but scarcely its application to geomarketing, QR codes, Marketing campaigns via electronic messaging, NFC Marketing and Coupons based in geolocation.

It is remarkable the negative result that geolocation techniques have obtained, most experts and professionals value negatively the benefit that these tools have for their business, even reaching a percentage of 80% that gives the worst score.

The technique best valued by users are QR codes around 34%, followed by proximity marketing strategies and marketing campaigns via electronic messaging with 28% and finally NFC marketing and the coupon with approximately 13%.

5. CONCLUSION

A correct strategy that maintains a good digital identity into an organization has been essential for the interviewees. The image that projects on the network and its own online reputation on social networks have proved to be very important. However, all this concern is not consistent with the importance that has been given to social networks, as the main source of reputational improvement and the professionals consulted give greater importance to other factors, which we could qualify as offline. These results lead us to conclude that the real dimension that the digital revolution supposes for trade or tourism has not yet been understood. The ignorance of some features and platforms consulted highlight the existing training deficit in this area.

The fact that social networks are not a direct source of profit for their businesses of the interviewees implies that they are not working in the correct direction and strategy of their presence on the Internet, since traffic and followers mark the success of the web strategy that is choose it has surprised the little importance granted to Google Maps, that is one of the most popular LBS tools and that is revealed as indispensable for many business with physical presence. Perhaps, it explains the enormous preponderance that Facebook has against other social networks like Google +.

The apps have not been valued in the interviews as excessively beneficial for the business, mainly because of the costs of designing and managing these tools and also because of the limited knowledge of their implementation. It is essential that in a country like Spain, true tourist power, institutional advisory and training campaigns could be launched so that professionals and businesses can modernize in this sense.

Today, there are professional community manager services that can externally help small and medium businesses to be in social networks in order to develop their own blogs. This fact seems to be not much valued by the interviewees, although the experts have emphasized not enough effort that these specialists still have.

From the point of view of geolocation systems and services, the benefit granted is medium-high, but the importance does not correspond with the opinions expressed. The majority acknowledged that it undoubtedly affects the increase in the number of clients, decrease in advertising expenses, more knowledge of the customer on the web, improvement in the promotion of the business or in gaining consumer confidence or even in customer loyalty. However, it has been the businesses with the least experience and seniority that have given greater importance to this system, as well as those with a physical store, but which were sold through the Internet.

Among the geolocation techniques and tools best valued by the hotels in the sample these are QR codes. QR codes are proximity marketing and digital marketing campaigns via electronic messaging. These techniques can be classified as the most traditional and known, perhaps this is the reason for their best assessment. However, for some experts interviewed, the incorporation of geolocation in other apps or websites turns out to be the best complement of a business with physical presence that tries to convert traffic in the Internet in physical client. Undoubtedly, the use of geolocalization-based systems is not being sufficiently adopted by many businesses, but their future viability makes great expectations in this regard. Everything will depend on the evolution of e-commerce itself, online reservations and consumer confidence in the Internet, from the point of view of privacy or security.

Therefore, this study concludes with the contribution of influencing factors in the adoption of services based on geolocation, establishing the degree of influence that may have the need for an adequate digital identity, social networks, the use of apps, geomarketing activities, the importance of the set of geolocation techniques selected and finally, the perceived benefits among which are the application of new promotion techniques; the location of the nearest activity or service; the reception of alerts by proximity; the search for friends or people; the reception of the location in case of theft or loss; obtaining quantitative information about user behavior; the increase in customer loyalty; the achievement of constant feedback and presence and finally the realization of more localized viral and digital marketing campaigns.

The limitations of this research are those related to the number of researches consulted, the methodological process carried out and the development of the location technology in Marketing industry. Researchers can use this study as a literature review of future studies based on the geolocation of marketing and its application to different industries and professional sectors.

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INTEGRATED HOTEL OR PRIVATE ACCOMMODATION? - TOURISTS' RESPONSES TO INNOVATIVE HOSPITALITY

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ABSTRACT

The main aim of this paper is to research the preferences of accommodation service users in regard to integration of private accommodation facilities often called private household accommodation into an integrated hotel. This innovative form of accommodation provides a higher level of service, which directly affects the competitiveness of a hospitality offer. A summarised literature review is presented in the paper and, as it concerns a modern problem area, it represents a new insight and contribution to new knowledge. In the paper, the results of the conducted empirical research are exposed and discussed.

The research reveals that users of accommodation in apartments do not clearly recognise the new form of the innovative accommodation offer, its concept, facilities or services.

The paper represents a valuable contribution to the research of tourists' preferences for integrated hotels in comparison with private accommodation and points to the aspects which should be implemented.

Keywords: Innovative Accommodation Offer, Private Accommodation Facilities, Integrated Hotels.

JEL Classification: Z32

1. INTRODUCTION

The demand for tourist services has rapidly changed in recent years, thus also for accommodation in selected tourism destinations. Accommodation is the biggest and the most important factor in the tourism supply chain. According to research of innovations that would certainly contribute to the development of Croatian tourism, an increase in the quality of the tourist offer by designing new types of accommodation facilities is recognised and presented as a development strategy (Croatian Ministry of Tourism, 2014). The development of new accommodation offer increasingly relies on innovative accommodation facilities, such as serviced apartments (Henderson & Smith, 2011), strata titled tourist accommodation (Cassidy & Guilding, 2010), integrated hotels and diffused hotels (Dall'Ara & Villani, 2015), as a new tourist offer dimension, not only in Croatia, but also in the world. Also, the innovative form of sharing economy of accommodation facilities gains importance as a competitive private accommodation product (Palgan, Zvolska & Mont, 2017). This type of accommodation brings numerous advantages for the destination where it is situated. As market research points to an increase in the demand for innovative hotel offer, innovative accommodation facilities emerge and encourage the creation of new tourism products in the destination.

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As an innovation, the integration of accommodation offer begins in the 80s in Italy by establishment of diffused hotels, with the aim to attract tourists who wish to have direct contact with the local population, with familiarisation with the tradition and autochthonous offer. This form of hotel includes the linking of several old, traditional and renovated facilities, distributed around historical town centres, where diffused hotel accommodation units and reception are situated in different buildings, located in the close vicinity. The recognisability of the accommodation form spreads beyond the boundaries of Italy, which adopts a leading role in the creation of a new type of accommodation, which respects the tradition, and which is the basis for the promotion of sustainable development. With the aim of creating new, innovative, tourism products, Croatia has also made efforts to improve the quality of accommodation offer and, in 2014, new innovative facilities in the form of diffused and integrated hotels were introduced in the legislation. Integrated hotels, originated in organised forms of diffused hotels, consist of three or several facilities in a resort and are not related to traditional heritage. The advantage of integrated hotels lies in the possibility of service provision by external subjects who can provide, at the disposal of integrated hotels, their facilities and services for consumption in tourism and hospitality and which are mutually linked by cooperation and partnerships.

The aim of the paper is directed towards the research on tourists' preferences for integration of accommodation facilities in private households into integrated hotels and to point to the aspects which, in further development, should be implemented. For the purposes of research result presentation, the paper is divided into the main parts where, after the first introductory part, in the second part a review of literature is presented of renowned authors who consider integrated hotels as innovative accommodation structures, evolved from the concept of private accommodation, representing a kind of regeneration of an outdated, non-competitive offer. The third section describes the methodology and research, while the fourth section represents the results of the conducted research, with the interpretation of numerical indicators. The fifth, concluding section, sublimates the research results and suggests recommendations for the future analytics of the presented topic area.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Innovative accommodation facilities – Integrated hotels

Monitoring of modern trends in tourism raises the service quality and affects offer competitiveness. Today, tourists are increasingly active and demanding; they are looking for experience, which also includes innovative accommodation facilities. According to Vallone and Veglio (2013), tourists seek a new type of accommodation which offers authentic tourist experiences. Accommodation facilities, as an integral part of tourist offer, are an important factor which affects tourist experience. On tourist travel, accommodation facilities form a basis from which tourists can take part in different activities, as well as use different services and products in the destination, discuss Walker (2017) and Heyes, Ninemeier and Miller, (2014). Accommodation or lodging is, by a long way, the largest and most ubiquitous sub-sector within the tourism economy, explains O'Halloran, (2014). With few exceptions, tourists require a location where they can rest and revive during their travel through, or stay within, a tourism destination (Cooper, Fletcher, Fyall, Gilbert & Wanhill, 2008). Apart from the primary accommodation services, in choosing an accommodation model, tourists also purchase an experience, which can be unique for each accommodation facility. According to Jimber Del Río, Pérez-Gálvez, Orgaz-Agüera, Navajas-Romero and López-Guzmán (2018), tourists experience can determine the ability to attract and retain tourists in a destination and accommodation facility. As Camilo, Presenza and Di Virgilio (2015) stress, tourists are not interested only in a visit to a tourism destination and purchase of souvenirs; by taking part in numerous activities, they wish to experience the local population's lifestyle. Sharing economy and peer-to-peer accommodation solutions take significant positions (Fuentes, 2018). A Key Note Market Report on hotels (Drewer, 2005) relates this growth to consumers searching for a more unique or special hotel, and reports "rather than simply viewing the hotel as accommodation, clients are looking to the hotel to provide an experience in itself." Accommodation facilities can design their offer in cooperation with the local community, offering various services and products, thus accordingly also thematising their offer related to different events, historical heritage, gastronomic offer, etc. in order to build their competitiveness. In that sense, it is important to emphasise that hotel themed offer must be compatible with the destination in which the hotel is situated, as the optimum can be achieved by the synergy of these two stakeholders (Pavia, Floričić & Cerović, 2016). Silvestrelli (2012) states that innovations are designed thanks either to the business ideas of the entrepreneurs or to the willingness of the local authorities to foster convincing ideas. In continuation, she discusses that hospitality innovations help cultural tourism development. According to Middleton and Clarke (2001), accommodation plays a functional role by providing the innovative facilities that make travel convenient and comfortable. Innovations in tourism constitute a special domain, as most of them are rather incremental improvements of existing offerings and not radical innovations (Brooker & Joppe, 2014). Otegbulu and Tenigbade (2011) discuss that accommodation facilities must provide the kind of services that will satisfy current customers and motivate new ones with innovative design and accommodation offer. As a dynamic sector, tourism needs innovations and integrated hotels are a new tourist offer dimension, not only in Croatia, but also in the world. Integrated hotels bring numerous advantages for the destination where they are situated, encouraging the professionalisation of the apartment market, creation of new tourism products in the destination and involving the local population in the overall offer. Innovative accommodation offer promotes the destination, which facilitates cooperation with the destination itself. As an accommodation facility, apartments prevail in Croatia, but their average quality is not at the level of tourists' expectations. A higher or even high-level service provision is facilitated by joining together of apartments into an integrated hotel.

2.2 Private accommodation facilities

Private accommodation facilities are one of the greatest challenges of the Republic of Croatia in the development of tourism, accounting for 52% of all accommodation capacities (Croatian Ministry of Tourism, 2017). The main issues are related to peak seasonality, large numbers and destinations' infrastructure challenges that impact the overall quality of tourism organisation (Javor & Kalčić, 2002). The Tourism Development Strategy of the Republic of Croatia up to 2020 (2013) points to the importance of private accommodation facilities for Croatian tourism, as well as to the need for converting, i.e., joining together of a part of those accommodation capacities by means of establishing new types, namely, integrated and diffused, hotels. As a new type of accommodation structure, integrated hotels facilitate linking together of the existing private accommodation offer as integrated hotels are made up of three or more buildings in a single resort, sharing common facilities. By joining together of private accommodation units into an integrated hotel, a rise in the quality of the offer and service is achieved, as well as the creation of new facilities and tourism products. Fukey (2012) emphasises that the innovative approach target accommodation facility market recognisability, joint market penetration and use of new technologies, develops entrepreneurship and all that for the purposes of achieving competitiveness in the tourism market. Kumar (2010) explains that serviced apartments and private accommodation growth present one of the most important trends of hospitality of the future.

An integrated hotel is a form of accommodation made up of three or more buildings, with joint lobby with a front desk, located in a single area. A special feature of the integrated hotel is that it also allows services to be provided by external providers – registered legal and physical persons and the local community – that make their facilities/services available for consumption in tourism and hospitality. This includes the reception and restaurant businesses, common marketing, maintenance and cleaning services. Also, the local community, as the second interested party, can put its facilities and services at the disposal of the integrated hotel for the purposes of tourist expenditure. Croatian Tourism Development Strategy envisages reorganisation of the accommodation offer structure in the sense of stimulation of development of small family hotels and integrated and diffused hotels (Vlahov & Vuletic, 2016). A need is emerging for a strategic and operational services providers' association of family accommodation into the said accommodation structures defined by the Rules on Classification, Categorisation and Specific Standards of Catering Facilities from the Group Hotel (2016).

Private accommodation facilities (household private accommodation), according to the Act on Hotel and Restaurant Activity (2003), provide a limited number of places which does not exceed a specified national minimum regarding its capacity (up to 8 rooms, that is, up to 16 beds in rooms, private accommodation apartments and holiday homes and up to 10 accommodation units). A private accommodation facility is a functional unit in which the renter provides hospitality services in the household in different types of units: a room; an apartment; a studio apartment; a holiday home. Mrnjavac, Pavia and Cerović (2016) highlight that tourism offer and its elements are developed in accordance with the wishes of the tourists who want to experience the tourist destination. These elements, however, remain insufficiently explained and insufficiently researched. There were too many (or inadequate) attempts to explain how those facilities' important features can be understood, instead of describing their characteristics or behaviours. The limited vitality of academic debate about small firms and their role in tourism has also resulted in some overly general conventional wisdoms being perpetuated. (Thomas, Shaw & Page, 2011). Although private accommodation facilities are not a motive for arriving in a destination, they provide a specific manner in which their approach to guests is treated, a family personalised approach in service provision, specific architectural, horticultural and designer characteristics of their facility, as well as a high level of informality and communication with hosts (Cañizares, Tabales & García, 2014). The characteristics of private accommodation are determined through heritage, traffic infrastructure, tourist culture and the structure of the local residents of a specific destination. (Mrnjavac et al., 2016). Private accommodation enables guests to get in touch with autochthonous values and domestic environment, provide original authenticity that tourists seek (Zhou, Zhang, Zhang & Li, 2018, Carneiro & Eugenio, 2015), but there are no common areas where guests can socialise and spend free leisure time.

In synergy with new forms of tourist offer, innovative accommodation offer provides the possibility of increased competitiveness. The qualitative and quantitative characteristics of the supply of accommodation have a direct influence on the overall success and development of tourist destinations (Sharpley, 2000). According to Reid and Sandler (1992), accommodation facilities are an ideal example of a market which could benefit from the implementation of service innovation, primarily from the tourists' perspective, given that the market is often saturated with many similar offers. Olsen and Connolly (2000) believe that the solution to this challenge essentially lies in the provision of new characteristics to the users of accommodation services; however, information technology equally affects the rapid changes in tourism and thus also in the domain of provision of accommodation services.

Integrated hotels are a new dimension of the tourist offer; they encourage the creation of new tourist services in the destination in which they are situated. Accommodation offer holders, in synergy with other stakeholders in tourism, must emphasise the recognisability of the innovative structures and, in an adequate way, present the integral hotel offer to potential users.

3. METHODOLOGY

For the purposes of the affirmation of knowledge and testing of the hypotheses, the problem area of organisation of integrated hotels in the sense of their appropriateness and market recognisability, as well as their competitiveness, is researched in the paper. Therefore, the authors have defined two basic hypotheses: H0 "Tourist demand accepts integrated hotels as a quality organisational form of apartment accommodation" and H1, which more deeply explores recognisability of the tourism product "Tourist demand is not familiar with integrated hotel as an innovative accommodation offer concept".

Innovative form of accommodation structure is named "integrated hotels" but does the nomenclature clearly describe the organisation concept and services that are provided? Therefore, the authors have designed research that could possibly provide new knowledge in perception of an innovative hospitality solution. The consulted literature (Brotherton, 2015) helped in key aspects identification. The problem questions are posed, and research was conducted in the course of the summer season 2017 in the destinations of South Istria (Pula, Premantura, Medulin), on 98 respondents of the target sample of tourists who were staying in private accommodation apartments. The research explores their lodging preferences and attributes that could meet the demand needs and social and economic variables. Given that they are consumers of that specific accommodation product, statements that point to the demand preferences were tested, and potentials for further development, innovations and modifications were identified. Initially, 130 questionnaires were prepared for the survey, out of which 98 were completed, representing a response rate of 75.4%. The minimal number of survey questionnaires were partly invalid, 3.1% of them, so, in the first group of replies, the research counted 98 participants and, in the second, 95 participants. The primary research was conducted using a structured, closed-ended questionnaire with two groups of answers, which were thereafter processed by means of a mathematical methodology of statistical means, shares and evaluation of Likert scale of personal attitudes (1-5), where, by the grade 5, the highest level of agreement was expressed with the statement and, with the grade 1, the lowest, and the average grade of the relevance of each hypothesis in tourists' perceptions and attitudes was calculated together with statistical ratios followed by establishment of the importance ranking. Finally, by chi-squared test, deviations were expressed of the obtained results in relation to the expected frequencies and which influence the hypotheses testing.

The primary research was preceded by the secondary research, of theoretical hypotheses in the papers published in relevant publications about hotel offer and other forms of accommodation, as well as integrated hotel offer which, with its competitiveness, can attract guests to tourism destinations. The special feature of integral hotels, as a new form of accommodation offer, is the possibility of service provision also by external subjects with their facilities and services for consumption in tourism and hospitality.

The researches on innovative organisational forms and technologies include the analysis of the placement success in the sense of adequate labelling and recognisability. Given the literature review, which, in the international practice and scientific papers, does not find the term integral or integrated hotel, the authors considered and researched the very aspect of recognisability, as it directly affects the competitiveness and business performance of integrated hotels as a hospitality facility. At the same time, this represents a research limitation and, in further consideration, a possibility of a new nomenclature is implied, which would bring this innovative accommodation model a clearer description, perception and recognisability. The results should be considered as indicative and a quality basis for the continuation of research in that direction.

4. RESULTS

The research of the attitudes of tourists who have stayed in the Croatian, Istrian cluster of South Istria during the summer holiday season points to results that show attitude and preferences of domestic (16.3%) and foreign tourists (83,7%) who are currently staying in private apartments and residence apartment accommodation facilities. Using the statistical methodology, a sample from the aspect of origin was included – emissive tourist market, their gender and age. As the key hypothesis of the research is related to preferences of guests who are staying in private apartments and residence type accommodation, the research group is chosen among this group of tourists.

According to the research, it is evident that the majority of guests from the sample come from the Italian emissive market (38.8%), followed by the domestic market with 16.3%, the German market with 10.2% and the Austrian and Great Britain markets, with a 7.1% share each. This points to the importance of the vicinity of the market and transport accessibility, given that both Northern Italy, Austria and South Germany are close destinations accessible by car and, for British tourists, South Istria is a flight destination benefiting from the vicinity of the Pula International Airport. Analysing the respondents' gender, the predominance of male population is evident with 52% as opposed to female, with 48%, pointing to approximately equal communicativeness of tourists when stating their attitudes. Within the respondents' age structure, the results indicate that the younger to middle age population (20 - 39 years of age) prefer apartment accommodation, representing a ratio of 65.3%. This could indicate that younger to middle aged tourists are more flexible and prefer self-catering facilities and this data corresponds to the participation ratio of 7.1% of the demographic segment of older respondents (60 – 79 years of age) who are more likely to prefer classic hotel accommodation. The demographic ratio of the middle-age population (40 - 49 years of age) is 13.3% and middle to older aged from 50 - 59 years (14.3%) structures are similar.

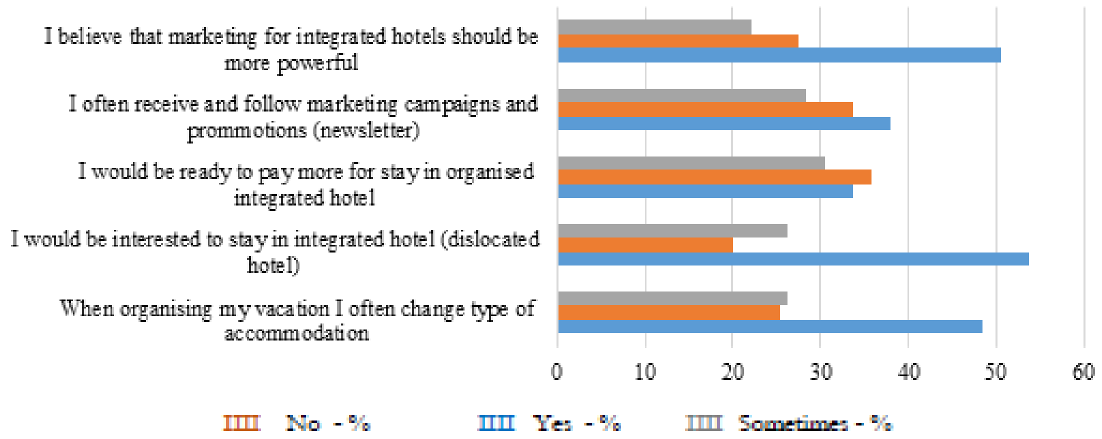
Furthermore, the attitude and preferences of tourists considering self-catering type of accommodation were researched. Results are presented in Table 1 and Figure 1.

Table 1. Attitude and preferences of tourists - Integrated hotels (1)

	Yes %	Yes N	No %	No N	Sometimes %	Sometimes N
When organising my vacation, I often change type of accommodation (hotels, apartments, camping sites)	48.4	46	25.3	24	26.3	25
I would be interested to stay in integrated hotel (dislocated hotel)	53.7	51	20.0	19	26.3	25
I would be ready to pay more for stay in organised integrated hotel	33.7	32	35.8	24	30.5	29
I often receive and follow marketing campaigns and promotions (newsletter)	37.9	36	33.7	32	28.4	27
I believe that marketing for integrated hotels should be more powerful	50.5	48	27.4	26	22.1	21

Source: Own Elaboration

Figure 1. Attitude and preferences of tourists - Integrated hotels (1)



Source: Own Elaboration

The conducted research examines guests' preferences and primarily their inclinations towards changes in the accommodation forms, given the accustomed perception that guests are not inclined towards changes in the organisational forms of accommodation. The data shown in Table 1 does not support this; 48.4% of respondents frequently change accommodation forms, while over 25% of them never change and the same number, sometimes. 52.7% of respondents are interested in lodging in integrated hotels, while 20% would not stay there. In respect of the aspect of payment, 33.7% of respondents claim that they are prepared to pay more, while 24.7% do not wish to do so. In consideration of marketing, promotional aspects of integrated hotels, the opinion dominates (50.5%) that it should be more powerful and more adequate. Namely, the respondents say that 37.9% of them regularly receive newsletters and special offers through internet and 28.4%, from time to time. This, at the same time, represents a consumer group which can be reached by means of a targeted and adequate promotional campaign.

Second part of research of tourists' preferences is presented in Table 2. It is related with attitudes statements exploring tourists' level of agreement with variables that evaluate accommodation model. Explanation of values of Likert 1-5 scale is: 1 strongly disagree, 2 not agree, 3, indifferent, 4 agree, 5 strongly agree. All answers were taken into statistical evaluation and average scores were calculated together with shares of each specific score.

Table 2 shows data in details and following explanations provides summed data of three categories: general agreement, indifference, and disagreement.

In relation to the reasons for preferring private accommodation, i.e. accommodation in apartments, the research results presented in Table 2 point out that 76.6% of respondents believe that apartments provide a higher level of comfort and informality, while a mere 4% of respondents do not share this opinion. Apart from greater comfort, a more favourable accommodation price is also important or very important for 67.4% of respondents, while 10,2% of respondents do not agree. When it comes to the points of view where 35.8% of respondents claim that they are not prepared to pay more for a more different, more innovative and possibly higher quality form of apartment accommodation (Table 1), the stated opinion points to the fact that the pricing element still has a key role in the choice of the type of accommodation, positioning apartments in family households and privately-owned residence buildings into the category of low budget tourist accommodation. For 69,3% of respondents, communication and socialising with the hosts is important and very important, given that it also enables contact with the local culture, lifestyle, tradition and customs, while 11.3% of respondents do not agree with the quoted statement, i.e. they do not consider it as important for them. Looking at the additional services in the accommodation facility, the question of the importance of provision of breakfast is considered, as integrated hotels, as a comparable organisational form, offer it within their service system. 64.2% of respondents consider the offer of breakfast in the accommodation facility as important and very important, while 17.4% of respondents express their disagreement, of which 3.1%, their complete disagreement with the organisation of the quoted service. The reason for this may be the price; namely if an organised breakfast service for guests would be provided, the accommodation prices would become subject to change and increase. In respect of the previous data which points to the importance of the price, the part of the claims which express disagreement is in accordance with the consideration of the pricing criterion.

Table 2. Attitude and preferences of tourists - Integrated hotels (2) – Statements valuation

	S1	S2	S3	S4	S5	S6	S7	S8	S9	S10	S11	S12
Grade 5 - N	39	33	34	32	36	40	31	45	13	52	12	15
%	39.8	33.7	34.7	32.7	36.6	40.8	31.6	45.9	13.3	53.1	12.2	15.3
Grade 4 - N	36	33	29	36	27	36	37	33	26	35	32	31
%	36.8	33.7	29.6	36.6	27.6	36.6	37.8	33.7	26.5	35.7	32.7	31.7
Grade 3 - N	19	22	24	19	18	15	26	15	33	10	34	30
%	19.4	22.4	24.5	19.4	18.4	15.3	26.5	15.3	33.7	10.2	34.7	30.6
Grade 2 - N	2	10	7	8	14	7	3	5	18	1	16	15
%	2.0	10.2	7.1	8.2	14.3	7.1	3.1	5.1	18.4	1.0	16.3	15.3
Grade 1 - N	2	0	4	3	3	0	1	0	8	0	4	7
%	2.0	0.0	4.1	3.1	3.1	0.0	1.0	0.0	8.2	0.0	4.1	7.1
Total - N	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98	98
%	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

S 1 – I choose private accommodation because it is more spacious and provides comfort.
S 2 – I choose private accommodation because of more convenient pricing.
S 3 – When I choose private accommodation, I have better connection with my hosts.
S 4 – Communication and socialisation with local host is important to me.
S 5 – When I choose my accommodation, the breakfast offer is important to me.
S 6 - It is important that reception and other services are located in the accommodation building.
S 7 – When I stay in private apartments the organisation of different services (i.e. gastronomy tasting) is important to me.
S 8 – When I stay in apartments, it is important that I receive all the information about the tourism destination.
S 9 – During my stay, I would like to meet other guests and socialise in one common room or area.
S10 – When I choose my apartment, innovation and quality are important to me.
S11 – The type of accommodation that is organised in integrated hotels is familiar to me
S12 – In my opinion, the name "integrated" hotel describes well the services and type of offered accommodation

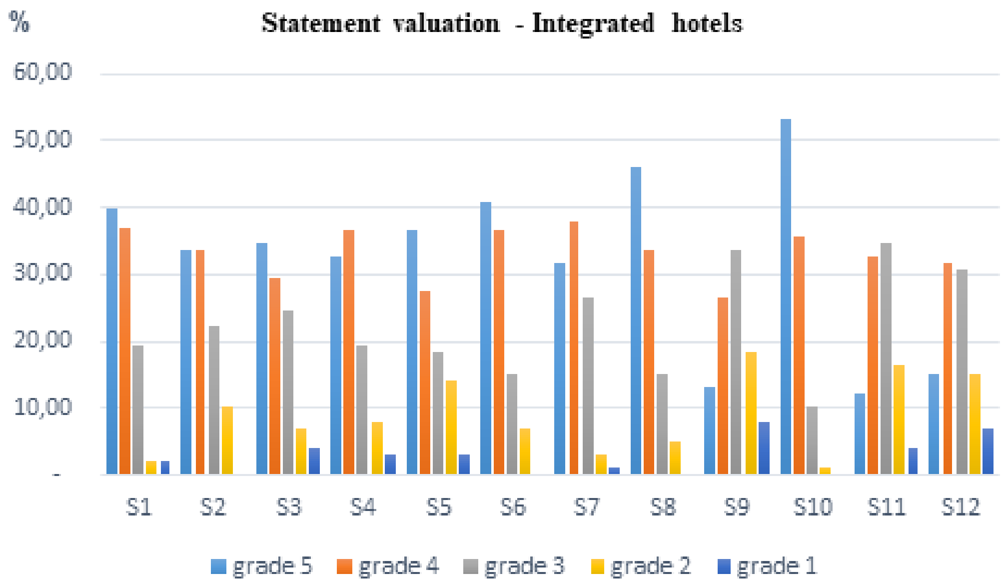
Source: Own Elaboration

The following claim examines the importance of the locations of reception and of other common facilities and the research indicator of 77.4% of agreement with how practical it is that they are situated in the accommodation facility itself, points to the attitude of demand for concentrated facilities provided the price is identical, while 7.1% of respondents do not agree. In accordance with the quoted claim, an adequate level of agreement (69.4%) is expressed, related to the interest in the consumption of additional services, such as gastronomic tasting and special experiences. In consideration of the importance of information provision in the tourist accommodation on services and activities in the destination, 79.6% of respondents confirm the importance of quality provision of information concerning destination products related to entertainment, education and recreation of guests, as well as gaining special experiences and experiences of a local character. On the other hand, the research indicates that guests do not wish to realise these experiences while socialising with other guests.

Socialising and spending leisure time in common areas is expressed as having the lowest level of agreement, 39.8%, and, accordingly, a high level of disagreement: 26.6%. The quality and innovation of accommodation facilities are of key importance for competitiveness and positioning; this is recognised by the largest number of respondents, 88.8% of them, out of which 53.1% completely agree with the stated claim. Continuous investment and innovation of both services and organisational models contribute to the perception of quality; however, their formation should be accompanied by adequate marketing activities for the purposes of realisation of the desired image and product placement. Namely, the research represents the data of a relatively low 44.9% of respondent agreement concerning their awareness of and familiarity with the innovative tourist product of integrated hotels. At the same time, 34.7% of indifferent respondents and 20.4% of those who responded negatively point to the fact that they are not familiar with organised integrated hotels as an accommodation category, although they have been promoted in the market for several years (since 2014). Finally, the respondents were asked to grade the typology and nomenclature, i.e. whether the term "integrated" hotel sufficiently clearly and precisely describes the organised form of offer. The level of agreement of 47,0% and indifference (30.6%) and disagreement (22.4%) indicate that there is a need to revise the terminology to obtain as clear as possible placement in the tourism market and to get closer to tourism consumers.

Aiming to present a better visual overview, the data is presented in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Attitude and preferences of tourists - Integrated hotels (1)



Source: Own Elaboration

Presentation of importance of observed statements rank follows in further analysis presented in Table 3. The rank position represents the average mean of the statements of all respondents, indicatively pointing to the values in the perception of demand and particular aspects of accommodation facilities of the apartment concepts of organisation (private accommodation apartments vs integrated hotel).

Table 3. Rank of importance of statements of apartment accommodation users

STATEMENT – N=98	Grade	Rank
When I choose my apartment, the innovation and quality are important to me.	4.17	1
When I stay in an apartment/residence, it is important that I receive all information about the tourism destination.	4.01	2
I choose private accommodation/tourist apartments because of comfort.	3.90	3
For me, it is important that reception and other hospitality services are located in the accommodation building.	3.87	4
When I stay in private apartments, the organisation of different services and gastronomy tasting is important to me.	3.76	5
I choose private accommodation because of more favourable pricing.	3.72	6
Communication and socialising with local hosts is important to me.	3.69	7
When I choose private accommodation, I have better connection with my local hosts.	3.65	8
When I choose my accommodation, the breakfast offer is important to me.	3.62	9
In my opinion, the name "Integrated hotel" describes well the services and type of offered accommodation.	3.17	10
The type of accommodation that is organised in Integrated hotels is well known and familiar to me.	3.17	11
During my stay, I would like to meet other guests and socialise in one common room or area.	2.99	12

Source: Own Elaboration

The research shows that respondents demonstrate their positive attitude towards the preference for staying in an integrated hotel and that the quality offer is important for an inspirational stay and special experience, which reflects the importance of the statements related to the quality of accommodation, namely innovativeness (rank 1, average grade 4.17 of max. 5) and positive response of consumers (53.7%), together with those who would, on occasions, prefer this type of accommodation (a total of 80%). The standard deviation equals STDEV 0.83, according to the answers of 95 respondents.

The result that guests assess communication and socialising with hosts in private accommodation as important, but not with other guests, is also significant. This points to their preparedness for authentic experiences, from gastronomy and customs, while superficial and short-term socialising with other guests are of very low importance for them and they are in the last place.

The pricing aspect is very important in choosing accommodation structure for specific demand segments. Given that accommodation in apartments is often characterised as a form of more favourable, i.e. less expensive accommodation, the research examines the coupling of the quality and offer innovativeness with the level of prices and evaluates the consumers' preparedness to pay higher prices for a higher level of quality. The testing was carried out using the chi-squared test, through the following variables:

- When I choose my apartment, the innovation and quality are important to me (Table 4.)
- I would be prepared to pay more for a stay in an organised integrated hotel (Table 5)
- I choose private accommodation - apartment because of more convenient pricing (Table 6.)

Table 4. Preference for stay in integrated – dislocated hotels – importance of quality and innovation

	Important to me -%	Indifferent -%	Not important to me -%	*Marginal Row Totals*
Obtained frequency	88.8	10.2	1	100
Expected frequency	60	20	20	100
Marginal Column Totals	148.8	22.2	21	200 (Grand Total)
Chi-squared test: 37.067			p-value: 1e-8	

Source: Own Elaboration

Table 5. Financial spending attitude - for stays in organised integrated hotels – ready to pay more

	Ready to pay more -%	Indifferent -%	Not ready to pay more -%	*Marginal Row Totals*
Obtained frequency	33.7	30.5	35.8	100
Expected frequency	60	20	20	100
Marginal Column Totals	93.7	50.5	55.8	200 (Grand Total)
Chi-squared test: 29.067			p-value: 4.9e-7	

Source: Own Elaboration

Table 6. Financial spending attitude - choose apartments because they are budget offer

	Important to me -%	Indifferent -%	Not important to me -%	*Marginal Row Totals*
Obtained frequency	77.4	10.2	22.4	100
Expected frequency	60	20	20	100
Marginal Column Totals	137.4	60.2	42.4	200 (Grand Total)
Chi-squared test: 10.267			p-value: 0.00589687	

Source: Own Elaboration

The chi-squared test result data proves that, in choosing accommodation, surveyed tourists attach predominant importance to the pricing aspect. The expected frequency which predicted tourists' behaviour in relation to increase in the quality and implementation of innovative contents realised an almost twice lower result (26.3%) and a large number of responses which negate the effect of the importance of a higher quality level on preparedness to pay a higher price; here, the chi-squared test result equals 29.067. Accordingly, the analysis of the importance of the price in choosing the accommodation structure, i.e., the effect of a lower price on the choice, points to an increased result in the realised frequency in relation to the expected one (17.7%) and the accorded value in the evaluation of the budget offer in the sense of perception of the obtained value in relation to the expected one. This is supported by the chi-squared test result of 10.267.

5. CONCLUSION

The conducted research of tourists' attitudes and responses follows up on the observations and knowledge affirmed by researching of integrated hotel and tourist agency owners, as fundamental stakeholders in the realisation of tourist arrivals and stays in the destination. What we learned from the research showed that there is a need for more efficient marketing, as well as for activities aimed at competitiveness and recognisability, which would point to the problem area of the nomenclature of the accommodation form itself. Based on the conducted research of attitudes towards integrated hotel and tourist agency management, Pavia and Floričić (2017) conclude that the term "integrated hotel" does not have an adequate correlation with foreign practice and recognisability, as opposed to the term of diffused hotel, which is comparable to Italian examples. Marketing has the key role in recognisability and realisation of the expectations of guests of these accommodation facilities. Namely, guests often expect a different type of accommodation. Marketing is of crucial importance for an adequate promotion of this type of accommodation facility, as well as for the realisation of the expectations of guests who often expect a different type of accommodation. The name "Integrated hotel" does not reflect clearly the characteristics of accommodation structures, their organisational forms or accompanying services and a recommendation is presented for a possible modification. In the concept of integrated hotel organisations, they are anticipated as facilities which provide a special added value; however, the results point to the fact that tourists do not appreciate or recognise it, which consequently does not result in justifiability or preparedness to pay higher prices. This does not support the statement that "organisation of classical common areas in integrated hotels contributes to guest satisfaction", which represents information directed towards investors who establish integrated hotels and who consider the creation of separate common areas for socialising as being a significant investment. On the other hand, for guests, the services of breakfast provision and provision of different destination facilities and activities are important. The comfort provided by their apartment accommodation and destination facilities available in the surrounding areas is significant as they enhance experience level. But first of all, for the purposes of realisation of the criterion of "value for money" and "value for time", which, in our modern and dynamic lives is increasingly lacking, the importance is recognised of service and quality innovation in accommodation facilities. This, however, does not form a basis for price increases. Tourists do not demonstrate their preparedness to pay higher prices due to the increase in the quality and innovative facilities and services in integrated hotels; on the contrary, a majority of respondents state that a more favourable accommodation price is actually a decisive factor in choosing their accommodation facility. The results confirm the need for further research and classification of apartment forms would point to the trends of user demand in each particular form and present new knowledge for the purposes of affirmation of integrated hotels as innovative accommodation organisational structures.

As over a half of respondents affirm that they would be interested in staying in an integrated hotel, the main paper hypothesis is confirmed: "Tourist demand accepts integrated hotels as a quality organisational form of apartment accommodation", as well as the ancillary hypothesis: "Tourist demand is not familiar with integrated hotel as innovative accommodation offer concept". The research results of responses and preferences of private accommodation product consumers match the attitudes of the integrated hotel and tourist agency owners. All the three tourism system stakeholders state that recognisability and new nomenclature should be suggested in a way that clearly and accurately describes the organisation and services that are confirmed as attractive, competitive and consumer oriented. The new promotional strategies should be designed and focused on innovative accommodation product, supporting its market recognisability and competitiveness.

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MEDIATING ROLE OF EMPOWERMENT BETWEEN TOTAL QUALITY MANAGEMENT (TQM) AND SERVICE RECOVERY PERFORMANCE IN THE HOTEL INDUSTRY

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this research was to examine the mediating effect of empowerment on the linkage between Total Quality Management (TQM) and service recovery performance in the hotel industry. Although much has been written about TQM, empowerment and service recovery performance, but the role of empowerment as a mediator in the relationship between TQM and service recovery performance has remained a relatively unexplored research area. A 93-item questionnaire is designed to measure TQM, empowerment and service recovery amongst employees in five-star hotels in Jordan, and 254 usable questionnaires were used in this study. Principal components analysis determined the factor structure and regression analysis determined the relationships between the study's variables. The results revealed that the TQM implementations have positive effects on empowerment and service recovery performance. Moreover, the study found the full mediating effect of empowerment in the relationship between TQM and service recovery performance. Implications, limitations and future research are discussed at the end. This study proposes model of influence of TQM in service recovery performance, whereby empowerment fully mediates this relationship.

Keywords: TQM, Empowerment, Service Recovery.

JEL Classification: M10

1. INTRODUCTION

Many scholars in the field of TQM have mainly focused on the relationship between TQM and service quality. The impact of TQM on service recovery in the hotel industry has been ignored in the literature. The concept of TQM appeared during 1980s (Pavlic, Vrdoljak Raguž, & Svilikos, 2004), and many organisations due to globalisation and competition started to adopt TQM as an essential management philosophy used for improving quality and productivity (Thiagaragan, Zairi, & Dale, 2001; Motwani, 2001; Kaynak, 2003; Karia & Asaari, 2006), improving organisational performance and efficiency (Yusof & Aspinwall, 2000; Joiner, 2007), solving organisational problems (Joiner, 2007), and achieving competitiveness (Samson & Terziovski, 1999; Pavlic et al., 2004). Thus, TQM rapidly

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became the preferred management philosophy among organisations (Samson & Terziovski, 1999).

Implementing successful TQM practices in an appropriate way provides several benefits for organisations in different contexts such as: improved quality, increased productivity, more efficient and effective use of resources, eliminated defects, reduced scrap and rework, reduced wage and costs of poor quality, fewer complaints, improved employee involvement and commitment, employee motivation and morale, improved communication, increased customer satisfaction and retention, and improved competitive advantage (Walsh, Hughes & Maddox, 2002; Antony, Leung, Knowles & Gosh, 2002; Kaynak, 2003; 2006).

Today, service organisations are under pressure to provide customers services with the best quality at the lowest cost and exceed their expectations (Irfan, Ijaz, Kee, & Awan, 2012). In the service context, employees can make mistakes, and service systems maybe breakdown at any time because there is not perfect service system and that may cause service failure and problems for customers. Thus, the service process may not achieve good results for customers and service quality may not meet customers' expectations (Bell & Zemke, 1987). However, service recovery can be an effective response to service failures when they do occur, it is an important method that is required as employees' actions in solving customer problems (Maxham, 2001). On the other hand, service organisations using empowerment as a tool for handling customers' demands by improving service quality (Ginnodo, 1997; Cho, Laschinger, & Wong, 2006). Empowerment can be seen as a way to improve operations and increase profit (Lashley, 1995). It could be used in organisations as a way to improve workplace environments, reduce employee turnover, and achieve more effective functions (Erstad, 1997). Even though, the concept of empowerment has received much attention in previous research, but the role that empowerment plays in particular contexts is still under-researched. How empowerment mediates the relationship between TQM and service recovery remains a relatively unexplored research area. There is therefore a need to examine, from the employees' perspective, the levels of empowerment that are evident in the hotel industry and the mediating role between TQM and service recovery in five-star hotels in Jordan.

The objectives of research are to: (1) study the relationship between TQM and service recovery; (2) examine the relationship between empowerment and service recovery; and (3) determine the mediating effect of empowerment on the relationship between TQM and service recovery.

2. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Total Quality Management (TQM)

The philosophy of TQM was initially developed in Japan by quality gurus (Vouzas & Psychogios, 2007). It consists of three main principles customer focus, continuous improvement, and teamwork (Ho, Duffy & Shih, 1999). While, Hellsten and Klefsjo (2000) viewed that TQM consists of a set of three components, namely: the core values, techniques, and tools. TQM can be defined in different ways, it means different things to different people, and therefore many definitions of TQM have been given by quality scholars based on their perceptions (Eriksson & Hansson, 2003; Boon, Arumugam, Safa, & Abu Bakar, 2007). For example, Antony and colleagues (2002: 551) defined TQM as "*an integrative management philosophy aimed at continuously improving the performance of products, processes and services to achieve and exceed customer expectations*". Whereas, Oakland (2003: 41), who regarded TQM as "*a comprehensive approach to improving competitiveness, effectiveness, and flexibility through planning, organizing, and understanding each activity, and involving each individual at each level. It* *is useful in all types of organisation*". A comprehensive definition was presented by Al-Ababneh (2011: 34), who defined TQM as "*a management philosophy which involves a set of principles, techniques, and tools that are used for continuously improving the quality of processes, products, services and people by involving all employees to achieve superior customer satisfaction*". Recently, Dubey (2015) defined TQM as an approach used to improve the effectiveness of firm and fulfill expectations for both internal and external customer.

TQM has been evolving in the hotel industry since quality assurance was introduced in the 1980s (Hall, 1990). The American hospitality industry implemented quality assurance systems in 1982 to achieved excellence outcomes (Walker & Salameh, 1990). More specifically, Ritz-Carlton Hotel was the first hotel in the world awarded a quality award from the Malcolm Baldrige National Quality Awards (MBNQA) in 1992 and in 1999 (Camison, Flor, Cruz, & Kuster, 1996). The best TQM implementation are known as the Critical Success Factors (CSFs) of TQM (Thiagarajan & Zairi, 1998; Sila, 2005), and these factors are defined as a quality factors that are critical and absolutely essential to the success of TQM implementation (Thiagarajan & Zairi, 1998). It is important to understand that the CSFs are responsible for achieving business excellence (Talib & Rahman, 2010). Although there is some agreement about which critical factors constitute TQM, many studies still provided various sets of TQM factors. Each researcher emphasises a selection of quality factors based on their judgement and experience in working with various organisations (Thiagaragan et al., 2001; Tari, 2005).

Saraph and colleagues (1989) conducted the first study on CSFs of TQM in service and manufacturing sectors, they introduced eight CSFs of TQM practices, namely, the role of top management leadership, the role of quality department, training, product/service design, supplier quality management, process management, quality data and reporting, and employee relations. Few studies have been conducted to indicate the CSFs of TQM in the hotel industry. For instance, Breiter and Kline (1995) identified a set of the CSFs of TQM for hotels, and they are: leadership, customer focus, and vision and values, training, communications, empowerment, alignment of organisational systems, and implementation. While, Cheung (2006) measured TQM by four CSFs, namely: top management commitment and leadership, customer focus, employee involvement and continuous improvement. Shahbazipour (2007) investigated the CSFs of successful TQM implementation in the hotel industry, these factors were: leadership, policy and strategy, information and analysis, customer focus, human resource management, supplier and partnership management, and process management. Claver-Cortes and colleagues (2008) confirmed the common CSFs of TQM practices in hotels, namely: people management, quality planning, leadership, customer focus, supplier management, process management and continuous improvement. Mohsen (2009) identified the CSFs of TQM culture in five-star hotels, and they are: staff empowerment, teams, staff suggestion and reward schemes, training, leadership, communication and customer focus. Similarly, Wang and colleagues (2012) confirmed that TQM-adopting hotels focus on seven CSFs of TQM, namely: leadership, employee fulfilment, internal/external cooperation, customer focus, process management, learning and continuous improvement. However, the researchers selected eight CSFs of TQM implementation based on a huge number of literature on CSFs of TQM, namely: top management commitment, leadership support, the role of quality department, supplier quality management, quality data and reporting, education and training, customer focus, and quality planning.

1. Top management commitment to quality is essential to implement TQM successfully in an organisation, and therefore top managers must be committed to TQM implementation that including quality planning, quality policy, quality schedule, evaluation quality and quality improvement (Saraph, Benson, & Schroeder, 1989; Goh & Ridgway, 1994; Ahire, Golhar, & Waller,1996; Tsang & Antony, 2001). Those

managers who are committed to TQM, they will be involved in TQM implementation as well as encouraging employee involvement in it too (Zhang, Waszink, & Wijngaard, 2000).

2. Leadership support creates quality goals, values and systems for quality management implementation, and therefore leadership support for TQM implementation is a key factor in quality improvement (Zhang et al., 2000). It maintaining and practicing an organisation's vision with respect to customer requirements (Sadikoglu & Zehir, 2010).
3. The role of the quality department in an organisation supports the effectiveness of quality that fosters coordination and collaboration between the quality department and other departments by participating in cross-functional quality improvement teams regarding quality (Saraph et al., 1989; Ho et al., 1999). It plays an important role in facilitating quality management practices through set up a quality control system, a quality information system, a supplier-rating scheme and a quality information system (Ho et al., 1999).
4. Supplier quality management includes supplier quality control, suppliers participating in product development, and purchasing policy emphasising quality (Saraph et al., 1989). Supplier quality management is considered an essential factor of TQM implementation through focusing on good supplier quality management that allows organisations to establish long-term cooperative relations with their suppliers, to be concerned with supplier performance, conduct supplier quality audits, and participate in suppliers' quality activities (Zhang et al., 2000).
5. Quality data can improves the level of quality, and help employees and managers to solve problems through feedback of quality data. Quality reporting provides timely quality measurement, and evaluates managers and employees based on quality performance (Saraph et al., 1989; Motwani, Mahmoud, & Rice, 1994). More specifically an efficient quality reporting system enables organisations to maintain data on error rates, vendors, warranty reports, customer complaints, scrap, defect or failures, cost of appraisal and cost of prevention (Motwani et al., 1994). Most organisations realised that education and training are an important part of TQM implementation, and therefore all employees should receive quality education and training (Zhang et al., 2000).
6. Quality training can help to improve the level of quality (Motwani et al., 1994), it includes statistical training, quality-related training for all employees, and trade training (Saraph et al., 1989). Training in a TQM setting involves technical skills; statistical process/quality control methods, and design tools; communication; supervision skills; new work procedures; and customer relations (Flynn, Schroeder, & Sakakibara, 1994; Goetsch & Davis, 2006).
7. Customer focus maintains a close relationship with customers in order to determine their needs, taking customers' feedback on the current perceived product/service and how their needs are being met (Flynn et al., 1994). Customer focus includes different tools such as customer satisfaction surveys and trials, customer complaints and compliments, competitor analysis, trade surveys and trials, working closely with key customers and market investigations (Goh & Ridgway, 1994; Zhang et al., 2000).
8. Quality planning focuses on setting goals, identifying customer and their needs, and developing products/services and processes (Juran, 1989). It uses in the TQM methods to make improvements and support quality programmes though quality mission/vision, quality policy, quality goals, business plan, communication strategies, strategy development and deployment, control and improve of plans (Claver, Tari & Molina, 2003; Tari, 2005; Sila, 2007).

2.2 Service Recovery

One of the main challenges and difficult issues in the service industry is achieving zero defects in the service encounter, and therefore mistakes are an unavoidable challenge in service. In service organisations, it is difficult for those organisations to eliminate all service failures, but service recovery is an effective response to service failures when they do occur. Thus, service recovery is one of the main methods for recovering mistakes that happen in the service encounter, and therefore implementing service recovery in appropriate methods that can help organisations in changing a customer's negative attitude toward services to a positive one (Maxham, 2001). Service failures still occur in the service industry despite the best of intentions, policies, training and procedure that have been taken in service organisations (Cranage, Sujan, & Godbey, 2005), and therefore it may reduce the perceived value by customers for service providers and that lead to a damaged relationship between service providers and their customers (Albus & Ro, 2017). Service recovery refers to the corrective actions by service providers to reduce the damage to customers and that can be taken after service failures (Wong, Newton, & Newton, 2016).However, once a service failure occurs, service recovery is needed to make it up for the customer and avoid potential short long lasting damage to the business.

Service recovery has been addressed in previous research from different perceptions by using several research methodologies (Lewis & McCann, 2004). It can be defined as attempts by an organisation to rectify some customers' perceived service failure (Maxham, 2001). Tax and Brown (1998) clarified that service recovery can be seen as a process of indentifying service failure, effectively resolving customer problems, classifying their root causes and yielding data that can be integrated with the other measures of performance to assess and improve the service system. While, Lewis and McCann (2004) presented a more specific definition; they defined service recovery as the actions of the employees in solving customer problems and changing the negative attitude of dissatisfied customers and retaining these customers. A comprehensive definition was presented by Al-Sabi (2011: 45), who defined service recovery as "*an organisationally owned process that is performed by all the employees in the organisation with the aim of identifying service failures, resolving customer problems, changing the negative attitude of dissatisfied customer to a state of satisfaction and retaining these customers*". Consequently, service recovery is considered as a subsystem operating under an overall organisational system, and the joints and bolts of this system are the service employees themselves, the doctrine that governs it is the organisational values and policies, and the hoped for final product is a happy customer.

Previous literature identified a multitude of different methods of service recovery, these methods can be divided into two types, namely: psychological service recovery that includes, acknowledgement, apology, empathy, managerial intervention, customer input, explanation, provide assurance, and own the problem; and tangible service recovery that includes, compensation, free gratis, up-grade, refund, discount, coupon, free ancillary, symbol atonement (value added atonement), correcting, replacement, and urgent reinstatement (Bell & Zemke, 1987; Bitner, Booms, & Tetreault, 1990; Kelley, Hoffman, & Davis, 1993; Boshoff, 1997; Bowen & Johnston, 1999; Sparks, 2001; Dutta, Venkatesh, & Parsa, 2007; Johnston & Michel, 2008).

Psychological service recovery refers to the attempts of employees to resolve service failure by expressing concern for customers and their needs. The service failure can be solved by acknowledging that a problem had occurred; apologising; showing empathy by listening to the customer; and/or providing assurance that the problem had been/will be solved and should not occur again. In addition, expressing concern by apologising and showing empathy for the customer's needs as psychological techniques are critical and recommended in the service recovery process, and therefore one of the fundamental parts of service recovery procedures is expressing empathy that is usually associated with delivering an apology to customers (Bell & Zemke, 1987; Johnston & Fern, 1999; Miller, Craighead, & Karwan, 2000). Expressing empathy for customers means that the service providers show their care about the problem, about fixing the problem, and diminishing customer inconvenience (Boshoff, 1999). Seawright and colleagues (2008) confirmed that psychological elements are enough in some circumstance in the service failure with the minor –errors in general, but customers usually expect other efforts besides an empathetic apology to rectify service failure situations, and therefore if nothing is offered from the service provider, customers seem to be dissatisfied and believe that the apology was not sincere. On the other side, tangible service recovery defined as the attempt to resolve service failure by completing the primary service, re- performing the service and exchanging the product or refunding the cost (Miller et al., 2000; Lewis & McCann, 2004; Al-Sabi, 2011). Tangible elements are considered to be more supported and important in resolving most service failures. It also include compensation of dissatisfied customers, including free gratis, coupon, refund, discount, upgrade, free ancillary and symbol atonement (Lewis & McCann, 2004). Hence, tangible elements can illustrate either the commitment of the service provider to carrying out their initial obligation to customers or to provide fair restitution for the failure.

2.3 Empowerment

Empowerment means employee participation that requires less direct supervision by eliminating the multiple levels of hierarchy (Randolph, 1995), it can be effective in improving productivity and performance when it is applied properly (Sashkin, 1984). Early use of empowerment refers to power and control where empowerment was considered a management technique by delegating power with employees (Kanter, 1983). Empowerment is considered as a set of procedures that may empower employees (Conger & Kanungo, 1988), it was focus on empowering management practices (Bowen & Lawler, 1992). There are many definitions for empowerment. Some scholars (e.g., Randolph, 1995, 2000; Blanchard, Carlos, & Randolph, 1999) defined empowerment in a general definition as a collection of practices that combine information sharing, delegation of authority, and increased employee autonomy (Randolph, 1995, 2000; Blanchard, Carlos, & Randolph, 1999) with an increased reliance on teams (Randolph, 1995; Hon & Chan, 2012). Other scholars (e.g, Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Thomas & Velthouse, 1990; Zimmerman, 1990) have defined empowerment as intrinsic task motivation, or motivation reflecting the person-environment fit. However, most scholars agree that the core element of empowerment involves giving employee discretion over certain task related activities without neglecting the responsibilities that come along with it (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Schlessinger & Heskett, 1991; Bowen & Lawler, 1992).

Empowerment has two distinct types, namely: psychological empowerment and structural empowerment (Eylon & Bamberger, 2000; Greasley, Bryman, Dainty, Price, Naismith, & Soetanto, 2008). The first type of empowerment, psychological empowerment, , is defined as a motivational concept of self-efficacy and that considered as a unidimensional construct (Conger & Kanungo, 1988). While, an inclusive definition presented by Lee and Koh (2001: 686), they defined psychological empowerment as “the psychological state of a subordinate perceiving four dimensions of meaningfulness, competence, self-determination and impact, which is affected by the empowering behaviours of the supervisor”. Psychological empowerment consists of four dimensions were developed by (Spreitzer, 1995), namely: meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Each dimension is necessary for a complete empowerment for an employee and that if one or more dimension is missing, this will reduce the overall feeling of empowerment (Thomas & Velthouse, 1990). The second type of empowerment, structural empowerment, is defined as a management technique which entails the sharing and delegation of power and control between managers and their employees (Kanter, 1983). Structural empowerment can be seen as an organisational practice that devolves power through knowledge and skills development, access to information, support, resources and responsibility (Eylon & Bamberger, 2000). In the service sector, empowerment can provide employees with different experiences and benefits (Lashley, 2001), and therefore empowerment cab be seen as a way to improve operations and increase profit (Lashley, 1995). For example, empowered employees in the hospitality industry are more committed to improving service quality due to empowerment provides employees with the necessary discretion and autonomy that achieve successful service and customer satisfaction (Lashley, 1995). Thus, empowerment has developed increasing influence in the hospitality industry (Kruja, Ha, Drishti, & Oelfke, 2016). Empowerment can enhance employees to be able to deal and correct with job-related issues without referring to senior-level management (Klidas, 2001).

2.4 TQM and Service Recovery

Implementing service recovery methods effectively is critical and depends to a large extent on the implementations of TQM of customer contact employees who are forefront of the service recovery process. Despite this, this study has identified a number of gaps that previous studies have not investigated. First, while some studies have measured the implementations of TQM and its effect on service quality from the managerial and customer perspectives, this study is one of few studies have conceptualised and measured the implementations of TQM and its effect on service recovery and from employees' perspectives. Second, most studies have been conducted in western context with limited evidence from the hotel industry and there is evidence to suggest that other context both geographic and industrial can provide different interpretations of both TQM and service recovery constructs, this study was conducted in one of developing countries and more specifically in the hotel industry. Finally, past studies have tended to use the implementations of TQM as a method in improving customer contact employees' performance, while this study aims to explore the role of TQM as a strategy for supporting employees in the whole process of service recovery. However, TQM and service recovery have received considerable research attention especially in the developed countries in general, no studies could be found that consider the potential impact of TQM implementations on service recovery in the hotel industry and the developing countries in particular (Prajogo & McDermott, 2005). The hotel industry was chosen for this study, as this industry is perfectly convenient to measuring the implementations of TQM and its effect on service recovery for a number of reasons such as the nature of service and it is hard to be well achieved without the required attention from employees, many scholars agreed that this industry involves a high level of contact with customers, which allows for the occurrence of service failure (Lewis & McCann, 2004; Yoo, Shin, & Yang, 2006).

Most managers recognized that in the service systems employees can make mistakes and these systems may breakdown, and therefore many problems may occur in the service process for customers and that may not achieve good results for customers and service quality may not meet customers' expectations (Bell & Zemke, 1987). Consequently, once service failures occur, service recovery is needed to make it up to customers and avoid potential long lasting damage to the business. Furthermore, Cheung (2006) confirmed that the implementation of TQM improved service quality in hotels, who argued that TQM hotels achieved better organisational performance, customer satisfaction, employee relations, and operational and business performance than non TQM hotels, and he also found that TQM explained 63 per cent of variance of service quality, and therefore TQM had a significant positive relationship with service quality. Claver-Cortes and colleagues (2008) supported the positive effects of TQM on performance in the hotel industry; they revealed that hotels with a high level of TQM commitment had higher performance levels such as managerial factors, gross operative profit, competitive performance and stakeholder satisfaction. Few studies were conducted on the relationship between TQM and service recovery performance. For example, Bagozzi (1992) explored the relationship between Management Commitment to Service Quality (MCSQ) factors, namely (training, empowerment, employee rewards, supportive management, servant leadership, and service technology) and service recovery performance in public sector service organization. The results showed that there is a significant relationship between MCSQ practices and service recovery performance. Another study was conducted by Rod and Ashill (2010), they measured the impacts of (MCSQ) practices, namely (employee rewards, customer service training, empowerment, and customer service orientation) and service recovery performance in public and private hospitals. The results of the study found a significant impact of (MCSQ) practices on the service recovery performance. Recently, Beirami (2012) investigated the impacts of TQM factors, namely (top management leadership, teamwork, empowerment, reward, and training) on service recovery performance in the hotel industry. The findings revealed that TQM factors have positive and statistically significant impact on service recovery performance. Similarly, Suk, Chung and Choi (2013) found that TQM factors, namely (top management leadership, employee involvement, education and training, information and analysis system, and process management) have positive influence on service recovery justice in restaurants. They accordingly, this study is considered as one of the first studies that measures the potential impact of TQM implementation on service recovery performance at the hotel industry in Jordan. In light of the preceding discussion and findings, it is proposed that:

Hypothesis 1: *TQM has a positive and significant effect on service recovery.*

2.5 Empowerment and Service Recovery

Empowerment plays an important role in service recovery by identifying and solving the problem through certain methods (Hart, Heskett, & Sasser, 1990), it is also the way that enables employees to reduce service failure (Tehrani, 1995). Thus, customers perceived fewer service failures when employees were fully empowered (Sparks, Bradley, & Callan, 1997). Empowered service providers have the flexibility and necessary resources to satisfy customers' needs, and they are obliged to ensure the high quality of service provision (Randolph, 1995; Spreitzer, 1996; Kashyap, 2001). Bowne and Lawler (1992) found that empowered employees responded to customer needs more quickly during service delivery and recovery and displayed more warmth and enthusiasm in their interactions with customers. Similarly, Carson and colleagues (1998) revealed that service providers who recognised a high level of empowerment tended to be more effective in service failure recovery. The important thing in service recovery efforts is not "who" responds, but "how immediate" is the response to service failure (Duffy, Miller, & Bexley, 2006), and therefore service recovery is a process-related procedure (Grönroos, 1988).

The more organised the service encounter the less likelihood of service failure, and controllable variables such as employees' explanation, offers to compensate, and the appearance of the physical environment can influence the customers' perceptions toward to the cause of service failure (Bitner, 1990). A similar study was conducted by Employees who have the power to deliver service quality, who are outgoing, agreeable and responsive to the customer's needs and requests, are able to recover and prevent service failures (Cranage, 2004), and therefore when employees faced service failures, they would be more likely to adopt active and tangible recovery methods (Lin, 2009).

Several studies have been conducted on the relationship between empowerment and service recovery. The previous studies introduced evidence that confirmed the effective role of empowerment on service recovery performance by indicating empowerment as an effective strategy in supporting service recovery performance (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Hart et al., 1990; Bowen & Lawler, 1992, 1995; Carson, Carson, Eden, & Roe, 1998; Enz & Siguaw, 2000). This is a strategy that can contribute towards the speedy solving of customer problems (Magnini & Ford, 2004). Other studies (Babakus, Yavas, Karatepe, & Avci, 2003; Yavas, Karatepe, Avci, & Tekinkus, 2003) reported a strong relationship between empowerment and service recovery performance.

Recently, some studies were conducted in the hotel industry (i.e., Yavas, Karatepe, & Babakus, 2010; Crawford & Riscinto-Kozub, 2010; Schumacher & Komppula, 2016) found that empowerment has a positive relationship with service recovery performance.

Therefore, the following hypothesis is advanced:

Hypothesis 2: *Empowerment has a positive and significant effect on service recovery.*

2.6 TQM and Empowerment

The literature indicated that TQM can help to promote empowerment amongst employees in two different ways, namely: TQM as unequivocally good and that leading to empowered employees (Grant, Shani & Krishnan, 1994), and empowerment meaning essentially intensification of work, tighter managerial control, and increased surveillance (Delbridge, Turnbull, & Wilkinson, 1992; Parker & Slaughter, 1993). Furthermore, the environment of TQM develops empowerment through social atmosphere, working conditions, recognition, safety and other elements (Howard & Foster, 1999), and therefore the TQM system based on employee involvement by increasing training on quality and problem-solving, top-down communication, and bottom-up communication of suggestions for improvements; and creating task-based work teams; and setting up of cross-functional teams to handle particular problems (Wilkinson, Godfrey, & Marchington, 1997).

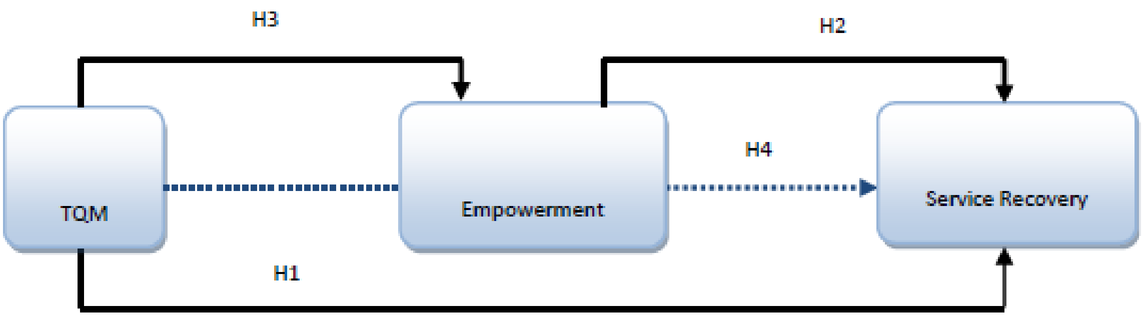
The implementation of TQM requires systemic changes in management practice that including the reorientation of organisational objectives, the learning of new skills by employees at all levels, the redefinition of managerial roles, and the redesign of work and its organisational structure, thus TQM is empowering employees in organisations in a democratic way (Grant et al., 1994). Furthermore, TQM can empower employees in a way that they can control their daily decisions and affecting that on their own work by assuming more responsibility, which resulting in enhanced skills, and improved work environment. The TQM system including a deep involvement of cultural changes that characterised by involving employees in the decision-making process, monitoring and taking responsibility for the quality of their own tasks, and involving in continuous improvement (Mendes, 2012). However, empowerment can be used for maintaining the support of top management commitment to quality by encouraging the participation of employees in quality activities. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3: *TQM has a positive and significant effect on empowerment.*

Hypothesis 4: *Empowerment mediates the relationship between TQM and service recovery.*

Figure 1 illustrates the theoretical framework for this study. The independent variable was TQM, empowerment as the mediator variable, while the dependent variable was service recovery.

Figure 1. Proposed Model



Source: Own Elaboration

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1 Sampling Procedure

The target population of the survey was employees in five-star hotels in Jordan during the summer of 2016. A total of 400 questionnaires were distributed in 12 five-star hotels were selected from Jordan Hotels Association, after hotel managers agreed to participate in the study. Human Resources (HR) managers were asked to administer the questionnaires to their employees, and to collect them after completion. Number of questionnaires was different form one hotel to another and that based on how many those hotels can take questionnaires. The study using the convenience sampling method for selecting subjects in hotels because of their convenient accessibility and proximity by the researchers, and therefore questionnaires were distributed to the employees in each hotel. Of 268 returned questionnaires, 14 were not included in the analysis because of incompleteness. Thus, data analysis is based on a sample of 254 valid questionnaires. The response rate was 63.5 per cent. Data analysis included descriptive analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and multiple regression analysis. All tests were performed using SPSS.

3.2 Measures

The questionnaire of this study was designed on the basis of multi-dimension measurement to measure TQM, empowerment and service recovery from employees' perspectives. The questionnaire consisted of four parts. The first part measured employees' perceptions of TQM including eight dimensions: the role of quality department (5 items), and quality data and reporting (8 items) selected from Saraph et al.'s (1989) scale; supplier quality management (4 items) selected from Flynn et al.'s (1994) scale; top management commitment (6 items), and customer focus (4 items) selected from Ahire et al.'s (1996) scale; education and training (6 items) selected from Zhang et al.'s (2000) scale; leadership support (4 items), and quality planning (5 items) selected from Claver et al.'s (2003) scale. The second part measured employees' empowerment including two dimensions: psychological empowerment (12 items) selected from Spreitzer's (1995) scale; and structural empowerment (14 items) selected from Hayes' (1994) scale. The third part measured service recovery including two dimensions: tangible service recovery (5 items) selected from Boshoff and Allen's (2000) scale; and psychological service recovery (20 items) selected from Al-Sabi's (2011) scale. The four part was designed to capture respondents' demographic characteristics, which included age, gender, education, working department and work experience. Two different likert scales were used for this study because of the nature of variables were different. More specifically, TQM items were measured on a six-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 'not at all' to 6 'very large extent', while empowerment and service recovery items were measured on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 'strongly disagree' to 5 'strongly agree'.

4. RESEARCH RESULTS

4.1 Profile of Hotel Employees

Data were analysed by using descriptive analysis in order to describe the study's sample. Table 1 presents the demographic profile of the sample.

Table 1. Profile of Hotel Employees

Variables	Sample (N=254)	Percentage (%)	Variables	Sample (N=254)	Percentage (%)
Gender:			Age:		
Male	200	79%	25 or under	68	27%
Female	54	21%	26-35	86	34%
Education:			36-45	84	33%
Secondary School or less	160	63%	46-55	13	5%
Undergraduate	89	35%	56 and more	3	1%
Postgraduate	5	2%	Experience:		
Working department:			Less than one year	18	7%
Front of the house	147	58%	2-4 years	79	31%
Back of the house	107	42%	5-7 years	76	30%
			8 year and more	81	32%

Source: Own Elaboration

Table 1 shows that 79% of respondents were male and only 21% were female. A 27 % of respondents were 25 years of age and under, 34 % were between 26 and 35, 33% were between 36 and 45, and only 6 % were 46 or over. The education reported by respondents showed that 63 % had secondary school or less, 35 % had undergraduate degree and only 2% had a postgraduate degree. For working department, the majority of employees 58% were working in the front of the house and the other 42 % were working in the back of the house. Finally, 7% percent of the respondents reported working in five-star hotels in Jordan for less than 1 year, 31% between 2 and 4 years, 30 % between 5 and 7 years, 32 % reported working longer than 8 years. All aspects of this demographic profile reflect the known composition of the workforce in the Jordanian hospitality industry.

4.2 Validity and Reliability of the Scales

All the scales used in this study were originally developed in a western culture and successfully showed good validity and reliability results through different working contexts. However, as this study was conducted in a non-western culture, it was important to purify these scales and examine their validity and reliability. To do so, an exploratory factor analysis was conducted to establish the construct validity and Cronbach's alpha was used to assess the construct reliability. A principal component analysis with Varimax rotation was used to show the significant factor loadings for this study. The following Tables present the final outcomes of the factor analysis after rotation.

Table 2. Output of Factor Analysis for TQM

Items	Factor loading			
	quality policy (QP) α = .939	quality commitment (QC) α = .917	quality education & training (QET) α = .910	*Communality*
TQM4: A quality department is visible in our hotel.	.783			.764
TQM5: Cost of quality data is available in our hotel.	.751			.748
TQM12: Quality department in our hotel has access to departmental management.	.812			.749
TQM20: Quality department in our hotel is independent.	.758			.746
TQM21: Quality data in our hotel are always up to date.	.555			.553
TQM28: This hotel supports coordination between the quality department and other departments.	.751			.801
TQM35: Quality department in our hotel is effective in improving quality.	.612			.723
TQM41: This hotel measures and recognises employees' performance in order to support quality programmes.	.569			.656
TQM17: This hotel considers quality as the number one criterion in selecting suppliers.		.593		.727
TQM18: Top-level management in our hotel evaluates hotel performance heavily dependent on quality.		.591		.708
TQM23: Managers and supervisors in our hotel allow employees to make their own decisions.		.687		.530
TQM25: This hotel relies on a small number of high quality suppliers.		.698		.580
TQM26: Top-level managers in our hotel allocate adequate resources for improving quality.		.666		.759
TQM33: This hotel has clear quality goals identified by top-level managers.		.651		.775
TQM37: Top-level managers in our hotel often discuss the importance of quality at hotel-wide meetings.		.657		.707
TQM3: This hotel encourages employees to participate in education and training.			.737	.749
TQM6: Managers in our hotel are aware of the results of customer satisfaction surveys.			.743	.754
TQM11: Resources are available for employee education and training in our hotel.			.587	.696
TQM14: Customer complaints in our hotel are given to managers regularly.			.834	.729
TQM22: This hotel actively seeks ways to improve our primary product/service in order to achieve greater customer satisfaction.			.750	.737
TQM30: This hotel has been customer focused for the past two years.			.598	.655
Eigen-value	12.432	1.409	1.005	
Percentage of variance explained	59.202	6.710	4.788	
Cumulative (Total explained)	59.202	6.710	4.788	70.699

Source: Own Elaboration

As shown in Table 2, the factor analysis presented three dimensions structure for TQM. The extracted dimensions are however not consistent with other studies that measured TQM scale in the hospitality industry. The reason is that many studies still provided various sets of TQM factors and each researcher emphasises a selection of quality factors based on their judgement and experience in working with various organisations (Thiagaragan et al., 2001; Tari, 2005). The first dimension is named, '*quality policy*' and made up of three dimensions. These include: quality planning, role of quality department and quality data reporting. Item loadings on this dimension ranged from 0.57 to 0.81. The study found that the top management commitment, leadership support and supplier relationship dimensions also emerged to a single factor. The combined factor was named '*quality commitment*'. Item loadings were all above 0.59. The last dimension is named, '*quality education and training*' resulted of education and training as well as customer focus. Item loadings on this dimension ranged from 0.59 to 0.83. The obtained Cronbach alpha show that '*quality policy*', '*quality commitment*', and '*quality education and training*' and "quality education and training dimensions have clearly exceeded the minimum recommended value (α = 0.70). Following from this, these three dimensions are maintained.

Table 3. Output of Factor Analysis for Service Recovery Performance

Items	Factor loading		
	psychological service recovery (PSR) α = .931	tangible service recovery (TSR) α = .871	*Communality*
PSR1: I apologised for the inconvenience that the problem had brought to the customer	.849		.730
PSR2: I listened to the customer and I got the point of the complaint	.894		.827
PSR3: I admitted responsibility for the mistake	.777		.656
PSR4: I expressed regret for the mistake that the hotel had made	.861		.753
PSR5: I listened to the customer and I repeated what they wanted	.769		.613
PSR6: Once the customer had the problem, I provided him or her with individual attention	.795		.652
PSR8: I asked my managers to contribute to solving the customer problem	.673		.509
PSR9: I told the customer what I had done to solve the problem	.524		.336
PS17: Considering all the things I do, I handled this dissatisfied customers quite well	.750		.692
PSR18: I do not mind dealing with complaining customers	.681		.604
TSR2: I gave compensation for a future stay in the hotel		.839	.704
TSR3: I offered an upgrade to a higher room category		.769	.707
TSR4: I gave compensation for the current stay in the hotel (e.g. discount, upgrade, F&B, ect)		.793	.716
TSR5: I offered a discount for a higher room category		.873	.800
Eigen-value	7.291	2.008	
Percentage of variance explained	52.079	14.340	
Cumulative (Total explained)	*52.079*	*14.340*	66.418

Source: Own Elaboration

As shown in Table 3, the result of the factor analysis reveals dual-dimensional structure for service recovery performance with an Eigenvalue exceeding 1. The two dimension solution is consistent with previous studies which considered service recovery performance as dual-dimensional variable (Miller et al., 2000; Al-Sabi, 2011). The only difference between this study and the previous studies was based on the number of the items that have been used to measure service recovery performance. The first dimension is named in the previous studies '*psychological service recovery*'. Item loadings on this component ranged from 0.52 to 0.89. The second dimension is also named in the previous studies '*tangible service recovery*'. Item loadings on this component were 0.76. The obtained Cronbach alpha shows that the extracted dimensions have clearly exceeded the minimum recommended value (α = 0.70). Following from this, these three dimensions are maintained.

Table 4. Output of Factor Analysis for Empowerment

Items	Factor loading		
	psychological empowerment (PE) α = 892	structural empowerment (SE) α = 861	*Communality*
PE24: My impact on what happens in my department is large	.818		.687
PE23: I have considerable opportunity for independence in how I do my job	.774		.605
PE22: I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work	.771		.615
PE04: I am self-assured about my capability to perform my work activities	.692		.630
PE05: I have mastered the skills necessary for my job	.687		.555
PE25: I am confident about my ability to do my job	.685		.581
PE09: My job activities are personally meaningful to me	.658		.524
PE08: I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department	.636		.531
SE01: I am allowed to do almost anything to do a high quality job		.776	.639
SE16: I am encouraged to use initiative when dealing with job-related problems		.752	.606
SE13(r): I have to follow rules and regulations closely in my job		-.705	.510
SE03: I have authority to correct problems when they occur		.682	.595
SE15: I have a lot of responsibility in my job		.646	.539
SE20(r): I wish management would give me more authority in my job		-.590	.378
SE19: I am encouraged to handle job-related problems		.545	.425
SE12: I have complete freedom to perform job-related tasks		.527	.452
SE18(r): I do not need management approval before I handle job-related problems		-.518	.275
Eigen-value	7.402	1.746	
Percentage of variance explained	43.541	10.269	
Cumulative (Total explained)	*43.541*	*10.269*	53.810

Source: Own Elaboration

As shown in Table 4, the result of the factor analysis reveals dual-dimensional structure for empowerment with an Eigenvalue exceeding 1. The two dimension solution, '*psychological*' and '*structural*', is consistent with previous studies which considered empowerment as dual-dimensional variable (Eylon & Bamberger, 2000; Greasley et al., 2008). Item loadings on this component ranged from 0.518 to 0.818. The obtained Cronbach alpha shows that the extracted dimensions have clearly exceeded the minimum recommended value (α = 0.70). Following from this, these two dimensions are maintained.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics of the Study's Variables

Having established the validity and the reliability of the scales, descriptive analysis is another statistical test that was performed for the extracted dimensions and overall scales.

Table 5. Output of the Descriptive Analysis

Scale	Extracted dimensions	Midpoint scale	Mean	S.D
TQM	quality policy	3.5	4.28	0.768
	quality commitment	3.5	4.43	0.853
	quality training and education	3.5	4.84	0.827
	Overall	3.5	*4.48*	*0.768*
Service recovery	psychological service recovery	3	3.79	0.826
	tangible service recovery	3	3.37	0.931
	Overall	3	*3.67*	*0.757*
Empowerment	psychological empowerment	3	3.86	.814
	structural empowerment	3	3.21	.461
	Overall	3	*3.51*	*.554*

Source: Own Elaboration

From Table 5, it is necessary to note that all the scales of this research were computed by the means' scores of its sub-scales. Therefore, TQM scale as three-dimensional was computed by summing up its 21 items. The mean score for an overall scale is 4.48 with standard deviation (S.D) at 0.768. This means employees perceived that their hotels have implemented TQM moderately. Thus, employees were moderately convinced of the implementations of TQM in hotels. At the dimensional level the findings indicated that employees believe moderately that their hotels have implemented quality policy and quality commitment, and therefore the level of quality policy and commitment (mean= 4.28, 4.43) was moderate in hotels. While, employees believe highly that they had quality training and education mean=4.84) effectively in hotels. Thus, employees perceived that their hotels focus more on quality training and education for employees rather than quality policy and commitment, and this means employees were not involved in quality policy and commitment. Service recovery scale as two-dimensional was computed by summing up its 14 items, the results revealed that the mean score for an overall is 3.67 with S.D at 0.757. At the dimensional level the findings indicated that employees perceived that they are performing psychological service recovery with mean 3.79 (S.D=0.826) more than tangible service recovery with mean score 3.37 (S.D=0.931). This means employees perceived that recovering service failure start by psychological service recovery and then followed by tangible service recovery. This illustrates that employees were able to perform the process of service recovery, to identify the problems, to resolve customer problems and to change customer dissatisfaction to a state of satisfaction and to retain these customers. While, empowerment scale as two-dimensional was computed by summing up its 17 items. The mean score for an overall scale is 3.551 with standard deviation (S.D) at 0.554. This means that employees perceived that they are empowered at work, at the dimensional level the findings indicated that employees perceived that they are more psychological empowered with mean 3.86 (S.D=0.814) than structural empowerment with mean score 3.21 (S.D=0.461). This means employees believe highly that they were given the autonomy and the authority to act independently which illustrates in other words that employees were highly psychologically empowered. This shows that employees hold all the cognitions of psychological empowerment effectively. In other words, employees perceived that they are empowered psychologically more than officially.

4.4 Correlation Analysis among Variables

For further analysis of the relationships among the variables of the study, correlation analysis is performed. All the variables were subjected for this analysis. Correlation at this stage of the research gives an initial indicator of the relationships among the variables of the study. Table 6, shows the correlation output among the variables of the study.

Table 6. Output of the Correlations Between Variables

		TQM	service recovery	empowerment
TQM	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	1	.480** .000	.598** .000
service recovery	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.480** .000	1	.697** .000
empowerment	Pearson Correlation Sig. (2-tailed)	.598** .000	.697** .000	1

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: Own Elaboration

As shown in Table 6, medium correlations appears between TQM and service recovery (r = 0.480), as well as between TQM and empowerment (r = 0.598). The strongest correlation was between empowerment and service recovery (r = 0.697). These findings mean that TQM was implemented effectively, which in return means that incidents of service failure followed by service recovery is effectively reduced. Empowerment is strongly related to service recovery and this means that empowerment is a necessary issue in recovering service failure. The correlation coefficients for the relationship between the independent variable (i.e., TQM), the mediating variable (i.e., empowerment), and the dependent variable (i.e., service recovery) were less than 0.90, indicating that the data were not affected by serious collinearity problem (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2010).

4.5 Testing Hypotheses

To test the hypotheses of this research, a multiple regression technique is performed. Multiple regression analysis is a statistical technique that can be used to analyse and measure the relationship between a single dependent variable and several independent variables (Hair, et al., 2010). In other words, this measure provides an idea about how well the independent variable will contribute to the overall prediction. In this research, all the variables are metric and therefore divided into dependent, mediator, and independent. TQM worked as the independent variable, empowerment worked as the mediating variable, and service recovery worked as the dependent variable. Testing hypotheses is presented as follows:

H1: *TQM has a positive and significant effect on service recovery.*

In this study, TQM is proposed to have a positive influence on service recovery. Table 7 shows the statistical results of the regression analysis.

Table 7. Regression Model Statistics Dependent Variable: Service Recovery

Independent	*Dependent*				
	service recovery				
TQM	R	t	p Value	R^2	*F Ratio*
	.480	8.032	.000	.230	64.513

Source: Own Elaboration

As shown in Table 7, the result of the regression analysis reveals that TQM is a significant predictor of service recovery. Statistically, it can be seen from the above Table that the value between TQM and service recovery is (β = 0.480 and P value <0.01). Finally, the overall model statistic in Table 7, ($R^2 = 0.230$, $p = 0.000$), supported the view that TQM has a weak positive influence on service recovery, and therefore TQM leads to low level of service recovery and that means those employees who are working in hotels with TQM implementation had less number of service recovery in their work. Hence, the hypothesis one (H1) is supported.

H2: *Empowerment has a positive and significant effect on service recovery.*

Empowerment is proposed to have a positive influence on service recovery. Table 8 shows the statistical results of the regression analysis.

Table 8. Regression Model Statistics Dependent Variable: Service Recovery

Independent	*Dependent*				
	service recovery				
empowerment	R	*t*	*p* Value	R^2	*F Ratio*
	.697	15.425	.000	.486	237.937

Source: Own Elaboration

As shown in Table 8, the result of the regression analysis reveals that empowerment is a significant predictor of service recovery. Statistically, it can be seen from the above Table that empowerment is highly significant to service recovery. However, the strong influence between empowerment and service recovery (β = 0.697 and p <0.01). Finally, the overall model statistic in Table 8 ($R^2 = 0.486$, $p = 0.000$) supported the view that empowerment has a strong positive influence on service recovery, and that means employees who are full empowered had high level of service recovery performance in their work. Hence, the hypothesis two (H2) is supported.

H3: *TQM has a positive and significant effect on empowerment.*

TQM is proposed to have a positive influence on empowerment. Table 9 shows the statistical results of the regression analysis.

Table 9. Regression Model Statistics Dependent Variable: Empowerment

Independent	*Dependent*				
	empowerment				
TQM	R	*t*	*p* Value	R^2	*F Ratio*
	0.598	11.780	0.000	.358	138.768

Source: Own Elaboration

As shown in Table 9, the result of the regression analysis reveals that TQM is a significant predictor of empowerment. Statistically, it can be seen from the above Table that the value between TQM and empowerment is (β = 0.598 and p value <0.01). Finally, the overall model statistic in Table 9, ($R^2 = 0.358$, $p = 0.000$), supported the view that TQM has a moderate positive influence on empowerment, and that means employees perceived more empowerment when TQM was implemented at the work. Hence, the hypothesis three (H3) is supported.

H4: *Empowerment mediates the relationship between TQM and service recovery.*

In order to test this mediating hypothesis, stepwise regression analysis was conducted to assess the magnitude of each independent variable, and to vary the relationship of the mediating variable between independent variables and one dependent variable (Baron & Kenny, 1986; Foster, Stine, & Waterman, 1998). According to Baron and Kenny (1986: 1176), the mediating variable can be considered when it meets three conditions: the independent variable must be correlated with the mediator variable in the first equation, the independent variable must be correlated with the dependent variable in the second equation, and the mediator variable must be correlated with the dependent variable in third equation. If all these conditions have not been violated, then the next step is to put the independent, the mediator and the dependent variables in one regression equation. The perfect mediation effect appears, if the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable disappeared but if the relationship between the independent and the dependent is reduced, then this means that this relationship is partially mediated when the mediator variable is added in the model.

According to the previous results, TQM is proposed to have a significant impact on service recovery through the mediating variable (empowerment). This relationship was tested by a multiple regression analysis, and the results are presented in Table 10.

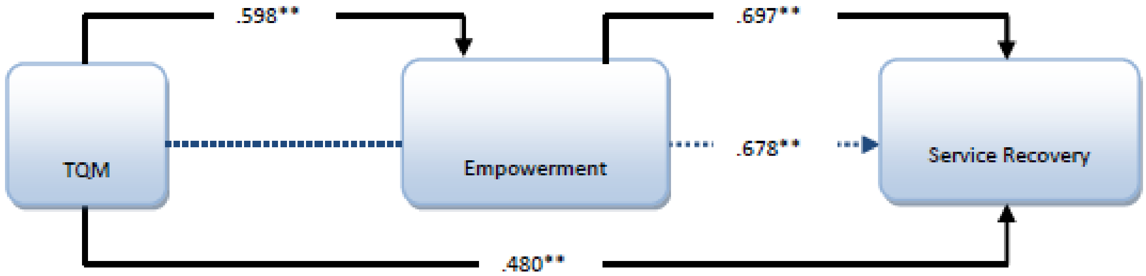
Table 10. Mediating Test Of Empowerment Between TQM And Service Recovery

Independent variable	Mediating variable	*Dependent variable service recovery*					
		R	R^2	F	B	*t*	*Sig.*
TQM					.048	.987	*.325*
	empowerment				.697	15.425**	*.000*
Predictors: (Constant), TQM, empowerment		.698	.488	119.443	.678	13.822**	.000

Source: Own Elaboration

Table 10 shows the inclusion of empowerment in the process revealing that the relationship between empowerment and TQM is significantly correlated with service recovery (β =.678, p=0.000). The results also indicated that TQM became non-significant with service recovery (β =.048, p=0.325). The mediating variable (empowerment) had significant impacts on dependent variable (service recovery) when independent variable (TQM) is included in the model. This implies that the inclusion of empowerment in process had explained 48.8 percent of the variance in the dependent variable (i.e., service recovery). Therefore, this result meets the requirements of Baron and Kenny (1986) mediating model testing which states that a previously significant effect of predictor variables (i.e., TQM) is reduced to non-significance or reduced in terms of effect size after the inclusion of mediator variables (i.e., empowerment) into the analysis. Hence, the hypothesis (H4) was fully supported. The result of this study confirms that empowerment does act as a full mediating variable in the relationship between TQM and service recovery in five-star hotels. That means the indirect effects of TQM on service recovery are more higher when empowerment is a full mediator in that relationship, TQM becomes more efficient as a significant predictor of service recovery through the full mediating variable (empowerment). Figure 2 presents the standardized path coefficients resulting from testing the proposed model.

Figure 2. Hypothesized Model



**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

Source: Own Elaboration

5. DISCUSSION

This study developed an instrument based on an extensive literature review for measuring TQM, empowerment and service recovery performance for the hotel industry. It was empirically tested and validated using data from five-star hotels in Jordan. The TQM instrument consisting of three scales (21 items), service recovery instrument consisting of two scales (14), and empowerment instrument consisting of two scales (17 items) are reliable and valid. This study was the first one that measured the mediating role of empowerment in the relationship between TQM and service recovery in general, and in the hotel industry in particular. The findings provide a support for the effect of empowerment as a full mediator in the relationship between TQM and service recovery. Statistically, the results indicated that empowerment is consider a strong and full mediator in the relationship between TQM and service recovery since TQM had a weak direct effect on service recovery. These results revealed that TQM is significantly and positively correlated with empowerment and service recovery. Hence, successful TQM implementation increases the level of empowerment and service recovery at the end. Moreover, the results showed that empowerment has a significant and positive effect on service recovery. In other words, empowering employees within TQM environment in hotels improves service recovery performance.

Furthermore, this study also revealed that the TQM improves service recovery performance indirectly through empowerment. These results supported the positive arguments that claim TQM can create an appropriate environment for empowerment, which in turns improves the service recovery performance at work. The explanation of the previous findings that service failure was effectively recovering by empowerment in TQM environment. Implementing TQM needs to consider empowerment as a crucial aspect of TQM implementations where increasing employees' empowerment in their jobs may strongly induce positive subsequent personal outcomes (e.g., performance, trust, commitment, satisfaction, competency, and positive moral values). These findings confirmed the results of previous studies that empowerment should be considered as one of the main aspects of TQM when measuring the impacts of TQM on service recovery performance (i.e., Bagozzi, 1992; Rod & Ashill, 2010; Beirami, 2012). This study confirmed that TQM can develop empowerment as found by Howard and Foster (1999). Therefore, these positive outcomes may motivate employees to improve service recovery performance. Also, empowerment is indeed for increasing the performance of service recovery. Increasing empowerment will lead to a high effectiveness in service recovery performance.

The current findings revealed that TQM had positive effects on service recovery were consistent with previous studies on TQM and service recovery performance (Bagozzi, 1992; Rod & Ashill, 2010; Beirami, 2012, Suk et al., 2013). The study's results were also supported by other previous studies on TQM and service quality. For example, Cheung (2006) found that the implementation of TQM improved service quality in hotels, and TQM had a significant positive relationship with service quality. Claver-Cortes and colleagues (2008) revealed that hotels with a high TQM commitment level had higher levels of performance, and they supported the positive effects of TQM on performance in hotels. Irfan and Kee (2013) confirmed that TQM improves service quality in service organisations. The implementation of TQM can help to reduce the incidents of service failures, and then followed by service recovery. The current study revealed that some aspects of TQM practices as quality training and education, and top management commitment to quality were more related to service recovery than other aspects, and these findings were consistent with previous results (Bagozzi, 1992; Rod & Ashill, 2010; Beirami, 2012; Suk et al., 2013).

It was also found that empowerment improves service recovery performance, these results confirmed the previous studies. For example, Bowne and Lawler (1992) found that empowered employees responded to customer needs more quickly during service recovery. The previous studies introduced evidence that confirmed the effective role of empowerment on service recovery, which indicated a strong positive relationship between empowerment and service recovery (Conger & Kanungo, 1988; Hart et al., 1990; Bowen & Lawler, 1992, 1995; Carson et al., 1998; Enz & Siguaw, 2000; Babakus et al., 2003; Yavas et al., 2003; Yavas et al., 2010; Crawford & Riscinto-Kozub, 2010; Schumacher & Komppula, 2016). Other studies (Tehrani, 1995; Sparks et al., 1997; Carson et al., 1998; Cranage, 2004) revealed that empowered employees tended to be more effective in service recovery than those who are not empowered, and empowered employees have the power to deliver service quality. As a result, this study supported the four hypotheses, and accepted all of them.

5.1 Implications

This study provided the theoretical contributions to knowledge of TQM, empowerment and service recovery in the developing countries. The results indicated that the TQM scale with three dimensions, empowerment with two dimensions, and service recovery scale with two dimensions are valid and reliable among employees working in five-star hotels in Jordan. The study's instrument can be used directly in other studies for different populations. Managers will be able to use this instrument to evaluate the levels of TQM practices and empowerment, and identify service recovery performance in their hotels, as well as researchers will be able to use the study's instrument to develop the theories of TQM, empowerment and service recovery. The positive relationships between TQM, empowerment and service recovery, it could encourage practitioners to measure the impacts of TQM on various service performance measures.

Several practical implications for practitioners in the hotel industry have been presented in this study. Managers can use the current strong evidence that the TQM implementation could improve service recovery performance among hotels when they encourage empowered employees. Implementing TQM is very important for service recovery performance and especially when employees fell they are full empowered. Therefore, in order to achieve more effective impacts of TQM on service recovery performance, which requires empowerment as a crucial mediator. Logically, TQM had strong positive impacts on service quality due to TQM focused on quality as the main matter, but it is the opposite in the case of service recovery performance that is needed to make up service failure when occurs. Thus, managers need to take in their considerations that TQM can't work well on service recovery performance without empowerment as main mediator.

5.2 Limitations and Future Research

This study has several limitations, for example, data were collected about the level of TQM, empowerment and service recovery based on employees' perspectives, but employees may not able to assess the current levels of TQM implementation correctly as the managers can do. Also, some respondents from the same hotel might have different perspectives of TQM, empowerment and service recovery. A future study can be conducted in the relationships between the CSFs of TQM and service recovery, and the relationships between each construct of TQM and various performance measures. Moreover, future research could include empowerment approach and its two dimensions; structural and psychological empowerment as a mediating variables between TQM and service recovery.

6. CONCLUSION

In conclusion, to date, there is no a study investigating the mediating role of empowerment on the relationship between TQM and service recovery in the hotel industry. A small number of studies has focused on the relationship between TQM and service quality rather than service recovery. The current study revealed that TQM has positive relationships with empowerment and service recovery, it was also found the full mediating effect of empowerment in the relationship between TQM and service recovery performance. The majority of the relevant literature supports the view that TQM has a positive relationship with service recovery. However, the results of this study highlights the importance of implementing TQM in the hotel industry by revealing the positive impacts of TQM practices on empowerment and service recovery. This study also confirms that empowerment does act as a full mediator in the relationship between TQM and service recovery. These findings bridged the gaps in the literature about the mediating role of empowerment in the relationship between the TQM and service recovery. Consequently, this study confirmed the positive arguments that a positive relationship between TQM and service recovery is based on TQM implementation that providing a suitable environment for service recovery through empowerment. Additionally, the current study was the first study that explored the mediating role of empowerment in the relationship between TQM and service recovery in hotels in general, in Jordanian five-star hotels in particular. Finally, the study's objectives have been achieved by finding a moderate relationship between TQM and service recovery, and a strong relationship between empowerment and service recovery. It was also found that empowerment plays as a full mediator in the relationship between TQM and service recovery, and that means empowered employees in the TQM environment tended to be more effective in service recovery performance than those who are not empowered.

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JOB SATISFACTION IN A TOURIST RESORT IN PORTUGAL

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ABSTRACT

Job satisfaction is one of the most widely studied variables in the field of organizational behavior. The touristic sector has been an increasingly economically relevant sector in Portugal. An empirical study was developed in a tourist Resort in Algarve, in order to analyse the level of the employees' job satisfaction. A specifically questionnaire developed to this sector was applied to 221 employees. The employees who have been in the organization for more years feel less job satisfaction and are overall less satisfied with the organization; employees who have completed a higher education have higher job motivation levels. Future studies should apply this holistic job satisfaction questionnaire, in order to could compare results in this activity sector.

Keywords: Job Satisfaction, Job Motivation, Tourist Resort, Hotel.

JEL Classification: J28

1. INTRODUCTION

The human resources of an organization are important to create competitive advantages and value organizations in the world market, being essential for the evolution and development of them. In this way, the organization should provide good working conditions, support and allow employees to develop their potential and motivate them to stay in the organization, creating an emotional commitment to it. Ensuring employee satisfaction is not only a strong determinant of increasing the individual performance of each employee, as it favors and enhances the performance of the entire organization (Coomber & Barribal, 2007; Tansel & Gazioglu, 2014; Dalluay, Jalagat, Zadjali, & Al-Abdullah, 2017).

Job satisfaction is one of the most widely studied variables in the field of organizational behavior (Cruz, Lópes-Guzmán, & Cañizares, 2013). In the hospitality industry, has in other sectors, employees' decision about their labor force participation, such has their intention to stay depends on job satisfaction (Kara, Uysal, & Magnini, 2012).

In Portugal, tourism has been an increasingly economically relevant sector (Ferreira, Martinez, Lamelas, & Rodrigues, 2017). According to World Travel & Tourism Council (2015) travel and tourism contributed directly to the creation of 337,000 jobs, which represents 7,4 per cent of the total employment in Portugal. In the south of the country, Algarve has been the region with the highest number of nights spent in hotels, representing a total of 4 million stays in 2014 (Turismo de Portugal, 2015). In this study, it will be analyzed the employees' professional satisfaction of a in a Tourist Resort in the Algarve region.

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2. JOB SATISFACTION

Job Satisfaction, despite extensively studied, haven´t a universally accepted definition because it is a multifaceted concept, complex and can be perceived differently by individuals. One of the most cited definition of job satisfaction can be viewed as "the pleasurable emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job as achieving or facilitating the achievement of one's job values" (Locke, 1969: 316).

Some theorists (e.g., Seashore, 1974) argue that the concept of job satisfaction is lacking in theory and that there is not a comprehensive doctrine regarding job satisfaction. Most of the definitions proposed that job satisfaction paint a complex and multidimensional picture (Volkwein & Parmley, 2000). Ivancevich and Donnelly (1968) identified a common denominator that allows a categorizing in two approaches. One defines job satisfaction as an emotional state, a feeling, an attitude or an affective response to a job situation (e.g., Breckler, 1984). Another point of view defines job satisfaction as the result of balancing the expectations, needs or actual outcomes of the position and the benefits of the job (Mason & Griffin, 2002).

The two views of the concept could be seen in nowadays investigations. For example, according to Jalagat (2016) professional satisfaction can be interpreted as the positive and negative feelings that a person develops towards their work and to what extent they feel they like (or do not) the same. McKenna (2000, cited by Coomber & Barriball, 2007) describes job satisfaction as the individual's attitude to the degree to which their expectations about their role match the reality lived in the workplace. When work matches the individual's, values can lead to an emotional state of satisfaction or, when it does not match, can lead to dissatisfaction. In this sense, professional satisfaction is henceforth regarded as the positive feelings that the employee associates with his work, his role and his professional development. Thus, an employee with professional satisfaction is an employee who feels satisfied with his job, with the tasks he does, feels professionally motivated and is satisfied with his working conditions, the leadership style of his superiors, work environment and career development.

Regarding to this construct, it is commonly discussed the relation with motivation and performance. According to Jalagat (2016), these three concepts are interrelated and interdependent in a circular way (rather than linear). It means that professional satisfaction creates conditions for a good performance and a high motivation, but a high motivation provides the conditions for professional satisfaction and high performance, as well as a high-performance power satisfaction and motivation of the employee. Satisfaction, performance and motivation therefore influence one another in creating a positive work environment.

The relation between motivation and satisfaction consists of the set of biological and psychological mechanisms that allow action to be triggered and the orientation (towards a specific goal or distance from it), intensity and persistence with that this action is carried out (Lieury & Fenouillet, 1997). Thus, it can be said that motivation consists in a "force that energizes and directs behavior" (Lemos, 2005: 194), facilitating learning and improving the performance level of individuals. Work motivation can be defined as the predisposition and willingness of employees to exert high levels of effort to achieve company goals, conditioned by the possibility of meeting individual needs (Gunkel, 2006).

2.1 Antecedents and consequences of job satisfaction

Employees in an organization spend less time thinking about changing their jobs when they feel respected and valued in the workplace, when they have opportunities to evolve in their career, and consider that they have a fair and adequate treatment to the functions they perform. In short, when they are satisfied with their work. In this sense, maintaining and increasing job satisfaction is a powerful tool to ensure the organization's success and competitiveness in the job market. So, what are the factors that affect, influence, or increase job satisfaction?

Kong, Jiang and Zhou (2018) grouped the determinants of job satisfaction into four factors: individual, organizational, social and family factors. Individual factors refer to personal characteristics and feelings, such as demographic, personal values, role clarity, and skills. Organizational factors indicate employees' perceptions of their firm and work, such as working conditions, pay, security, leadership, and coworkers. Social and family factors include elements related to social and family, such as social status, family support, and family conflict.

The individual psychological factors include: skills (Ko, 2012), demographic factors (Lam, Zhan, & Baum, 2001) or individual values (Tepeci & Bartlett, 2002). When the employees fit into the organization, they can use their abilities achieve a high level of job satisfaction (Kara, Usyal, & Magnini, 2012). Emotive dissonance, emotive effort, emotional intelligence, surface acting, and deep acting were also related to job satisfaction. Emotional intelligence is a positive predictor of job satisfaction (Lee & Ok, 2012).

Among the organizational factors, the organizational climate, the benefits received, the autonomy on the tasks and functions, recognition, job stability, the nature and conditions of work and the workplace, internal organizational communication, interpersonal relationships and support systems among colleagues and managers, and the leadership style predominant in the organization, training, salary, and work environment are frequently mentioned in the studies (Kula & Guler, Tnay, Othman, Siong & Lim, 2013; Jain & Verman, 2014; Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015; Sharma et al., 2015; Jalagat, 2016; Dalluay et al., 2017; Kong, Jiang & Zhou, 2018). Results has been showing that when employees believe that the organization promotes a climate of caring and concern for the other, they are more satisfied with their supervisors and that influences significantly professional satisfaction (Deshpande, 1996). Other factors include management style, such as supervision, recognition, and feedback (Ozturk et al., 2014). Job characteristics, job demand variability, and job pride are also important factors that influence job satisfaction (Chiang, Birtch, & Cai, 2014). When employees perceive corporate social responsibility, they tend to be committed to their organizations and achieve high job satisfaction (Song et al., 2015). Recent studies of the hotel industry in Taiwan (e.g., Yang, 2008) demonstrated that organizational socialization contributed to job satisfaction and commitment and minimized newcomer turnover intention. Graaf-Zijl (2012) associated professional satisfaction with the type of contract held by individuals and found that employees with temporary contracts are associated with lower values of satisfaction. The same was observed in the study by Aronsshon and Groerannson (1999, cited by Jain & Verma, 2014) that show that employees with a fixed-term contract tend to have lower levels of satisfaction because of the less control they have over their situation professional.

In terms of social factors, social atmosphere and respect, guest affect, and even food and living quarters may influence the job satisfaction of employees working in the hospitality industry (Larsen, Marnburg, & Ogaard, 2012). According to the study developed by Tansel and Ganzioglu (2014), improving the relationship between managers and employees in larger organizations increases, in many aspects, job satisfaction as well as employee productivity and less turnover. In this relationship between managers and employees there must be a balance between the hierarchical control and the autonomy provided to employees, since this relationship can have effects on the productivity and loyalty of the organization's employees.

With regard to family factors, most studies analyzed the relationship between family–work conflict, work–life balance, and job satisfaction. A high quality of work–life balance was found to be a positive predictor of job satisfaction (Lee et al., 2015).

Professional satisfaction is positively correlated with increased productivity and organizational commitment of employees and is negatively correlated with turnover. It is equally positive and directly related to customer satisfaction (Ellikson & Logsdon, 2001; Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006). The study by Dalluay et al. (2017) showed a positive correlation between job satisfaction and financial compensation and promotions received, working relationships among colleagues and the use of employees' skills and competences. It means that when one of these factors increases, the professional satisfaction of employees also increases and, similarly, when one of the factors decreases, satisfaction also decreases. Already Tnay et al. (2013) associate satisfaction with earnings negatively with turnover in an organization, demonstrating that when employees are satisfied with their salary they are less motivated to leave the organization. When the renumbering is low, people consider that the commitment they have in the performance of their tasks does not correspond to what they receive back from the organization and, consequently, reduces professional satisfaction. Razid and Maulabakhsh (2015) investigated the relationship between working conditions and job satisfaction, verifying that there is a positive relationship between them. It should be noted that as working conditions were considered the number of work performed hours, safety conditions at work, peer relations and needs recognition. These factors play a substantial role in achieving job satisfaction.

In terms of consequences, Bos, Donders, Bouwman-Broudwe and Vander Gulden (2009) defended the importance of job satisfaction in retaining employees, Europe is predominantly composed of an aging population, meaning that the number of active population is decreasing and there is a need to keep existing employees in the company. It is necessary to retain older employees, avoiding premature retirement, and younger employees, who are increasingly prone to emigrate outside Portugal to seek better living conditions. According to Dalluay et al. (2017) professional satisfaction is a determining factor for employee retention. The authors argue that acquiring and retaining highly satisfied people contributes to increased employee loyalty as well as contributes to a pleasant work environment that can lead to better employee performance motivated to work independently. Jalagat (2016) also showed that employees who are satisfied with their work have a lower tendency to miss or leave the company and found that in organizations with satisfied employee's turnover is lower.

For organizations, the satisfaction of their employees must be a constant concern, since it has important consequences for their motivation, performance and success. Increasing professional satisfaction could be provided by a good working conditions, organizations are creating conditions to increase efficiency, effectiveness, productivity and commitment of their employees (Raziq & Maulabakhsh, 2015).

Increased levels of job satisfaction have been shown to be directly related to increased worker productivity and organizational commitment, while at the same time decreasing the intention / willingness to change roles (Ellickson & Logsdon, 2001, quoted by Shami et al., 2015; Van Scotter, 2000, quoted by Appaw-Agbola, Agbotse & Ayimah, 2013). Ultimately, it influences the increased effectiveness of the organization.

Jain and Verma (2014) showed that professional satisfaction can be considered one of the main factors for the efficiency and effectiveness of an organization, when finding a direct relationship between job satisfaction and worker performance. They found that a higher level of satisfaction leads to an increase in professional performance, while a low level of satisfaction tends to lead to higher rates of employee absenteeism. Satisfied workers have more creative ideas, are more involved wiht the organization and have more suggestions for improving it. They are more involved in decision processes and make the organization more dynamic (Kivimaki & Kalimo, 1994, cited by Shami et al., 2015).

Mazerolle, Eason, Monsma and Mensch (2015) found that job satisfaction is the main predictor if a person intends to leave their profession or organization. Job satisfaction helps predict the strength and stability of the organization, reducing the turnover of workers in the organization (Alam, 2005, cited by Appaw-Agbola et al., 2013). On the other hand, when job satisfaction is low, there are negative consequences, such as increased worker's intention to leave the organization, increased costs, reduced customer satisfaction, and reduced profits (Zeffane et al., 2008, cited by Shami et al., 2015).

High levels of job satisfaction are fundamental to contribute to the success of an organization, for "a satisfied worker is a happy worker and a happy worker is a successful worker" (Jain & Verma, 2014: 6). Happy people tend to perform better, are well-disposed, and, as a rule, relate better to others. It is important for organizations to have a job satisfaction climate, as it only has positive consequences for the organization.

According to tourism research findings, the majority of hospitality and tourism employees leave the industry as a result of low job satisfaction, poor working conditions and absence of motivating factors (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000). High turnover rate is a very important component in the tourism industry that ultimately produces higher overhead costs and lower quality customer service (Kuruuzum, Çetin, & Irmak, 2009).

2.2 Objectives

The present descriptive-correlational empirical study intends to analyze the level of general job satisfaction experienced by the employees of a Tourist Resort in the Algarve region, through the analysis of a holistic perception of job satisfaction by an instrument specifically developed to this sector. It also intends to analyze differences in relation to different indicators of characterization of the sample. The main objective is to analyze the level of job satisfaction of employees.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Sample

The total sample is composed by 221 employees, selected for convenience. The sample is comprised predominantly of employees at the operational / staff hierarchical level, corresponding to 79.6% of the sample (n = 176), followed by 11.8% supervisors (n = 26), 5% managers (n = 11) and 3.6% did not respond to the question (n = 8).

Regarding the level of academic qualifications, 32.6% (n = 72) of the sample completed secondary education (that is, did the 12th grade) and 26.7% (n = 59) completed basic education (until the 9th grade). 19.5% (n = 43) of the sample had higher education (undergraduate, masters and / or doctorate), 18.1% (n = 40) completed a professional course and the remaining 3.2% (n = 7) sample did not indicate their level of academic qualifications.

Lastly, in terms of the number of years that the participants are associated with the organization, it was found that 37.6% worked between one and four years in the organization (n = 83), 25.3% had worked for more than ten years in the organization.

3.2 Instrument

The data collection instrument used in the present empirical study was a satisfaction questionnaire developed by the organization, adapted from the original created by the Directorate General of Justice Policy, Portugal.

The questionnaire is composed by a total of 69 items evaluated on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 1 - Very Unsatisfied, 2 - Unsatisfied, 3 – Non-unsatisfied or satisfied, 4 - Satisfied and 5 - Very Satisfied.

The questionnaire is subdivided into nine dimensions: 1. Overall satisfaction of employees with the organization (composed of nine items); 2. Satisfaction with management and management systems (composed of eight items); 3. Satisfaction with working conditions (composed of five items); 4. Satisfaction with career development (composed of seven items); 5. Levels of motivation (composed of five items); 6. Satisfaction with the leadership style of top management / Director (eleven items); 7. Satisfaction with the leadership style of intermediate level / Manager (eleven items); 8. Satisfaction with the conditions of hygiene, safety, equipment and services (composed of seven items); 9. Satisfaction with the work environment (composed of six items).

Confirmatory factorial analysis of the instrument structure was performed. We attempted to confirm it, using the maximum likelihood estimation method. This method assumes a multivariate normal distribution and is considered robust when the permission is not confirmed (Schermelleh-Engel, Moosbrugger, & Müller, 2003). Thus $\chi 2$ / gl was equal to 2.783, and therefore, it was between the desired values. The IFC corresponds to 0.821, and it can be concluded that the instrument has an adequate adjustment. Regarding the error measures, a RMSEA of 0.090 and an SRMR of 0.054 was obtained, with the values in the maximum linear of adjustment acceptable. In this way, it is concluded that the structure of the questionnaire of professional satisfaction must be met and used.

The reliability level of the instrument was also analyzed using the Cronbach's alpha coefficient. It is verified that the internal consistency, when analyzing all the items of the instrument, is very good (α = 0.988). The same happens when the internal consistency by dimension is analyzed: global satisfaction of employees with the organization (SGO) α = 0.952; satisfaction with management and management systems (SGSG) α = 0.961; satisfaction with working conditions (SCT) α = 0.899; satisfaction with career development (SDC) α = 0.952; levels of motivation (NM) α = 0.95; satisfaction with leadership style of top management (SLT) α = 0.977; satisfaction with the leadership style of intermediate level management (SLTI) α = 0.981; satisfaction with the conditions of hygiene, safety, equipment and services (SHSS) α = 0.922; satisfaction with the work environment (SWE) α = 0.932

3.3 Procedure

The data collection was carried out between July 31 and August 14, 2017. The distribution of the questionnaires was done personally to the employees of the office and to the smaller or intermediate departments of the managers and / or supervisors of the various departments and business areas organization. All questionnaires were printed on paper, with one version in Portuguese and one in English, and stored in an envelope. Until August 14, a box was opened in the kitchen of the office building, locked, with a slot for employees to fill in the completed questionnaires.

Subsequently, the collected data were organized, transferred to a statistical analysis software and analyzed according to the objectives of the study. Statistical analysis was performed using the Microsoft Office Excel tool and Statistical Package for Social Sciences Software (SPSS), version 24.0.

4. RESULTS

The study showed that most employees are satisfied with their jobs. The observed means of Job Satisfaction are always higher than the value 3 and are therefore always above the center point (2,5) of satisfaction levels. Similarly, modal value is always equal to or higher than value 4, which expresses that values are in the positive satisfaction levels (see table 1).

Table 1. Descriptives Statistics

		Mean (M)	Standard Deviation (DP)	Modal
1.	**SP_Mean**	3.31	0.975	4 e 5
2.	**SGO**	3.32	1.012	4
3.	**SGSG**	3.12	1.142	4
4.	**SCT**	3.27	1.056	4
5.	**SDC**	3.09	1.126	4
6.	**NM**	3.62	1.225	5
7.	**SLT**	3.29	1.216	4
8.	**SLTI**	3.37	1.267	4
9.	**SHSS**	3.22	1.087	4
10.	**SWE**	3.64	1.127	4

Notes: 1. SP_Mean – Mean Job Satisfaction; 2. SGO – Global Satisfaction with Organization; 3. SGSG – Satisfaction with management and management systems; 4. SCT - Satisfaction with working conditions; 5. SDC - Satisfaction with career development; 6. NM – Levels of motivation; 7. SLT Satisfying leadership style of top management; 8. SLTI - Satisfaction with leadership style of intermediate level management; 9. SHSS - Satisfaction with the conditions of hygiene, safety, equipment and services; 10. SWE - Satisfaction with the work environment.

There were also differences between statistically significant means for a 95% confidence interval between the levels of job satisfaction and the academic qualifications of the employees, the number of years in the organization and the hierarchical level of the job function.

At the hierarchical level, employees who perform supervisor functions feel higher levels of professional motivation than those who perform operational / staff functions (p = 0.016) and there are higher levels of satisfaction with intermediate leadership style than employees with operational / staff (p = 0.009).

Regarding the number of years in the organization, it was found that the employees who have been in the organization for more years feel less overall job satisfaction (p = 0.006) and less overall satisfaction with the organization (p = 0.010). On the other hand, employees who have been in the organization for less than a year have a higher level of satisfaction with management and management systems than employees who have been in the organization for more than ten years (p = 0.005) and has higher levels of professional motivation (p = 0.005), and are more satisfied with the work environment (p = 0.023) when compared to employees who ten years in the organization.

Regarding to academic qualifications, it was found that employees who completed a professional course had higher general level of job satisfaction (p = 0.015) and a higher level of overall satisfaction with the organization (p = 0.014) than employees with secondary education. They are also more satisfied with the top management leadership, when comparators with employees who have completed secondary education (p = 0.033).

It was also observed that employees who completed higher education are more satisfied with working conditions than employees who only have secondary education (p = 0.019) and present higher levels of professional motivation than employees with basic education or secondary (p = 0.002). Employees with secondary education, on the other hand, have a lower degree of satisfaction with intermediate management leadership than those who have completed a professional course or higher education (p = 0.007).

5. CONCLUSION

This study aimed to analyze the job satisfaction in a very specific sector, the tourism and hospitality. The analyzed questionnaire was developed in the hotel, inspired from the original created by the Directorate General of Justice Policy, Portugal. Therefore, it was developed by the need to know various aspects and valences of the job satisfaction of the organization employees'. So, the analyzed instrument views this concept in a very holistic way and showed a very good quality psychometric parameter.

It is possible to verify that most of the collaborators who participated in the study show positive levels of professional satisfaction. By the collected information isn´t possible to guarantee that this represents only intrinsic needs satisfied. Although, is possible to assume, by the Self-Determination Theory, that intrinsic needs are positively associated with higher levels of job satisfaction because they satisfy the basic psychological needs of autonomy, competence and relatedness (Vansteenkiste, Neyrinck, Niemiec, Soenens, De Witte, & Van den Broeck, 2007).

It was also observed that those who have supervisor functions are more satisfied than the operational employees. Those professionals, regarding their supervisor functions, could have self-actualization and recognition needs more satisfied. Previous studies showed that positive recognition significantly affect overall job satisfaction (Richardson, 2003, cit in Lee, Back, & Chan, 2015). In addition, supervisors receive considerably higher salaries, rewards, work-related opportunities and benefits, that these factors directly contribute to greater satisfaction than that of line-level employees (Carbery et al., 2003). In other level of analysis, the engagement, specifically the dedication dimension, influences job satisfaction (Alarcon & Edwards, 2011) Dedication represents the involvement and is conceptualized as a psychological identification with his/her job (Schaufeli et al., 2002). This dimension of engagement, as well as vigour, are the core dimensions engagement (Schaufeli & Bakker, 2004). So, it could be an interest topic to analyse in the future, because it could an important issue to better understand those differences.

The employees who are in the hotel at less than one year are more satisfied, compared with the others that are at more than ten years. This may be to do with the fact that in the begging of their careers employees may have more positive expectations regarding their future. Human resources managers need to better explore the specific reasons for this negative change and develop and implement strategies to prevent it.

Thus, the organization must reinforce the implementation of human resources strategies that contributes to the job satisfaction of its employees and maintain high levels of motivation. In an organizational level it could be important to develop activities that strengthen the organizational culture, as well as develop strategies that allow greater participation of employees in decision-making processes and guarantee an organizational support of the employees. In a social level it could be implement a better internal communication strategy, when people feel part of the organization, the affective commitment could be higher, a first step is feeling listened and informed. In an individual and more personal level it could be also implemented strategies that allow the employees to balance their family-life in a more positive way, implementing kindergarten for the employees' children or providing scholarships for education are examples of that.

The literature shows that the tourism is one of the sectors with highest levels of turnover (Ferreira et al., 2017). In the case of Portuguese hotel employees, a study developed by Guzmán, Cañizares and Jesus (2009) showed that this sector is characterized by young workers, low qualification and low wages. We believe that human resources managers should develop and implement a total quality management practices based on training and promotions. In the employees' point of view, it is important to consider that the monetary gains should come from greater investments in their careers. So, in future, it might be interesting to develop more studies consider this instrument, but not only with a convenience sample from five stars hotel but comparing different types of hotels existing in this touristic region.

Due to the importance of human capital in the success of organizations, it is essential to optimize human resource management. Following in this line, this analysis focuses on the close relationship between job satisfaction, quality of service, and customer satisfaction. A hotel whose employees are dissatisfied will be unable to offer a competitive and quality service, as job satisfaction is an important factor in the success of businesses (Cruz et al., 2013). The tourism sector is highly labour intensive with the performance of its human resources being a significant and determining factor in its sustainability (Zopiatis, Constanti, & Theocharous, 2014).

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EVENTS BRAND PERSONALITY: INSIGHTS FROM MUSIC FESTIVALS IN PORTUGAL

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ABSTRACT

The changing trends in the marketplace and the proliferation of events, have become a reality in which those responsible for managing them seek adequate differentiation strategies through brand management approaches. Although brand personality has been studied in the case of different products, the theory has not been analysed in music festivals contexts. This study aims to analyse what extent is the scale of brand personality developed by Aaker et al. (2001) useful to characterize the brand personality of musical festivals?

This research focuses on the study of four of the most iconic music festivals in Portugal: Rock in Rio, MEO Sudoeste, Optimus/NOS Alive and Super Bock Super Rock. Empirical data was collected from university students whose profile matches the profile of the target segments of these four events. This study contributes to the theory as it elaborates on the BP scale in the special case of musical events. It will be also particularly useful to musical events' organisers as it will enrich their knowledge about the most relevant personality traits that best characterizes this kind of events brands.

Keywords: Brand Personality, Music Events, Exploratory Factor Analysis.

JEL Classification: M31

1. INTRODUCTION

With the growing importance of the "symbolic" (Lash & Urry, 1994; Zukin, 2004) and experiences (Pine & Gilmore, 1999), public events in general have been growing in popularity over the last 50 years (Tafesse, 2016). They have become an important instrument to politicians and policy makers to whom events are seen as contributing to create a festive atmosphere in the city (Richards & Palmer, 2010). Especially mega-events and Hallmark events (Getz, 2008), by attracting large numbers of visitors, contribute to the adoption of measures conducive to urban revitalization and generate economic impacts, thus contributing to the quality of life of cities' residents.

Regions, particularly cities, become stages where events contribute to creating a festive atmosphere (Hughes, 1999; Deffner & Labrianidis, 2005; Richards & Palmer, 2010). On the one hand, residents and visitors are receptive to entertainment consumption and, on the other hand, policy makers use events as a mechanism through which they seek to revitalize the urban and social environment of their regions, with impacts on economic development.

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In a marketplace where competition is intense and where brand positioning, based only on tangible attributes, is recognizably insufficient (Aaker, 1997; Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003; Austin et al., 2003), managers struggle to identify brand attributes that stand out. As Aaker (1997) states, any brand has emotional and symbolic meaning beyond utilitarian or functional attributes that influence consumers' behaviour.

In the American Marketing Association's definition of brands, personality becomes a crucial dimension of brand management (AMA, 2015). To say that a brand has personality is to argue that there are human characteristics associated with it (Aaker, 1997). Actually, the management of brand strategies is mainly directed towards the establishment and strengthening of affective and emotional connections between consumers and products.

Brand personality (BP) is recognized by marketing scholars and practitioners as a key element of a successful brand, as it is related to product preference and usage and it is a basis for a long-term relationship with a brand (Sheena, 2012; Eisend & Stokburger-Sauer, 2013; Mathews, 2015). It can be used by marketing professionals to successfully differentiate brands from competitors (Aaker, 1997; Buresti & Rosenberger, 2006; Keller, 2008).

Brand personality emerges as an approach for identifying intangible attributes through which the personification of brands take place. Kang et al. (2016: 2) concluded that "through marketing efforts, consumers could easily attribute human personality traits to inanimate subjects such as brands." Consumers tend to choose or remain loyal to brands with personality traits relevant to and consistent with their own self-concept (Levy, 1959; Aaker, 1997; Keller, 2003; Shena, 2012). Once brand personality can be seen as a marketing tool used by companies with the purpose of differentiating brands from competitors in their search for sustainable competitive advantage (Buresti & Rosenberger, 2006; Keller, 2008; Kang et al., 2016), the identification of the brand personality profile in music festivals in order to better select the target publics of each event as well as to communicate with them is of the utmost relevance.

Although brand personality has been studied in the case of different products, including sport events (Lee & Cho, 2012; Čáslavová & Petráčková, 2011; Kang et al., 2016; Alexandris, 2016), the theory has not been analysed in music festivals contexts.

The changing trends in the marketplace, as well as the proliferation of the supply of events (Mair & Whitford, 2013), have become a reality in which those responsible for managing them seek adequate differentiation strategies that guarantee competitive advantage in a global and strongly competitive scenario.

This research focuses on the study of four of the most iconic music festivals in Portugal: Rock in Rio (RR), MEO Sudoeste (MS), Optimus/NOS Alive (OA) and Super Bock Super Rock (SBSR). The selection of these four festivals is for three reasons: they are the oldest festivals in Portugal, they are the ones that attract the largest audiences, and they enjoy great notoriety, with the population in general and the young people in particular.

Based on the literature review, the following research question was posed: to what extent is the scale of brand personality developed by Aaker et al. (2001) useful to characterize the brand personality of musical festivals? Empirical data were collected from university students whose profile matches the profile of the target segments of these four events.

Addressing critiques according to which the development of a BP scale is relevant for specific categories (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003; Avis, 2012; Batra et al., 2012), this study contributes to the theory as it proposes a new scale to evaluate BP in the particular case of musical events. It will be also particularly useful to musical events' organisers as it will enrich their knowledge about the most relevant personality traits that best characterizes this kind of events brands.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Theoretical background regarding brand personality

Fournier (1998) recognized that, in their search for fulfilling self-definitional needs, individuals tend to perceive brands as partners with whom they will start some kind of relationship. This means that they attribute human characteristics to objects (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003; Aggrawal & McGill, 2007; Sheena, 2012; Kang et al., 2016) and any product "can be perceived by consumers as having personality-like traits, in the same way that individuals have" (Alexandris, 2016: 3). Just like individuals, brands also have their own personalities which are pointed out in relation to the consumers' perception (Carr, 1996; Lee & Cho, 2009).

Brand personality, which has been studied since the '50s, is seen as affecting the level of symbolic consumption and the basic premise of this construct is that consumers attribute human characteristics to brands (Aaker, 1997). It is a "set of human characteristics associated with a brand" (Aaker, 1997: 347).

Some researchers found that there is a relevant congruity between the personality traits of a brand and the personality of the consumer (Levy, 1959; Aaker, 1997; Keller, 2003). As a consequence, one important managerial implication is that managers should target the segments whose personalities are congruent with their brands' personality (Eisend & Stokburger-Sauer, 2013).

Brand personality as a metaphor was first introduced by Gardner and Levy in 1955 based on their research about projective methods (Gardner & Levy, 1955). In the marketing field, this subject was, in a pioneering way, explored by Martineau (1958) who investigated the personality and the store image. The author takes as a premise that the success of some retailers studied goes beyond price, location or the variety of products they offer. "This force is the store personality or image — the way in which the store is defined in the shopper's mind, partly by its functional qualities and partly by an aura of psychological attributes" (Martineau, 1958: 47). The author was referring to the image and personality of the shop as the same construct (Guerreiro et al., 2015). In fact, as Wang, Byon and Zhanh (2016) noted, brand personality and brand image are related but different constructs. Image is a concept that encompasses both the cognitive and affective realms (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999), while brand personality is more affective in nature (Hosany et al., 2006). Anyway, as Aaker (1997: 348) suggested, "personality traits come to be associated with a brand in a direct way by the people associated with the brand – such as the brand's user imagery ...". Brand personality refers to "the set of human characteristics associated with the typical user of a brand ..." Aaker (1997: 348) which, in many situations, refers to the people who endorse the product.

Later, Alt and Griggs (1988) and Batra et al. (1993) analysed the link between human and brand personality. However, the measurement of brand personality became prominent with the seminal research of Aaker, published in 1997. Aaker (1997) rescued the Big Five dimensions of human personality (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003) from the area of human psychology and adapted them to business with the aim of identifying the dimensions of brand personality. Since then, and in spite of the critiques (Phau & Lau, 2000; Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003; Austin et al., 2003; Bosnjak et al., 2007; Milas & Mlacic, 2007; Avis, 2012), the great majority of investigation around the theme in different areas was dominated by Aaker's methodology, using her measurement scale and factor analytic research methods (Avis, 2012).

In fact, Aaker (1997: 353) herself found that in a principal components factor analytic study of American consumers that, just as many studies have found five dimensions of personality, her participants perceived five personality dimensions of brands: Sincerity, Excitement, Competence, Sophistication, and Ruggedness. Eisend and Stokburger-Sauer (2013), in their brand personality meta-analysis, found many studies utilizing Aaker's five-facet brand personality measurement scale.

Aaker (1997) highlights the idea that the main function of brand personality is adding a symbolic meaning to the products. A brand with a clearly defined personality will have greater success in ensuring its differentiation, becoming more easily memorable and effective in trying to develop a positive and lasting relationship with its target audiences (Guerreiro et al., 2015).

Aaker (1997) recognized and Batra et al. (2010) confirmed that the category of the product can influence the perceptions that consumer have about related brands. Avis (2012: 90) noted the surprising amount of variability amongst the models given that each model was developed using similar methods. Additionally, he observed that "The purpose of factor measures is to provide 'generalized' measures for brands across different categories. However, as the meanings of words change in relation to categories, it is not clear that it is possible to develop a generalized scale…" (Avis, 2012: 92). The author argues that "…each scale is not a generalized BP scale, but a scale that is skewed to the associations with the categories that are the subject of the scale development" (Avis, 2012: 93). Anyway, "despite the later BP models being developed in response to critiques … it has continued to be used in research on brand personality". To Avis (2012: 94) the category or domain adjustment problem can be solved with the development of "BP models for specific categories, rather than general models". Regarding these limitations, several brand personality scales have been developed in specific professional fields such as tourism destinations (e.g., Ekinci & Hosany, 2006; Sahin & Baloglu, 2011; Usakli & Baloglu, 2012) and sports (Braunstein & Ross, 2010; Lee & Cho, 2012; Vila-López & Rodríguez-Molina, 2013; Wang et al., 2016; Alexandris, 2016).

In the same way, some dimensions that make up the personality of the brands on the scale proposed by Aaker (1997) are recognized as deeply related to the American cultural context. In order to address this gap, Aaker et al. (2001) carried out a cross-cultural study applied to Spanish and Japanese populations in order to test the adaptation of the scale to different cultural contexts for purposes of personality attribute selection. Results demonstrated that there are specific cultural elements as well as generic meaning elements, both visible in the development of the respective scales (Aaker et al., 2001). "Therefore, the selection of Japan and Spain provides a context that allows for potential replication, as both cultures share an endorsement of allocentric values, but also an extension whereby the values unique to Mediterranean cultures such as Spain may be identified" (Aaker et al., 2001: 495). The brand personality scale for the Spanish context includes the following dimensions: Excitement, Sincerity, Sophistication, Peacefulness and Passion (Aaker et al., 2001). Each dimension consists of two facets, except Excitement, which is made up of three. The facets are in turn composed of three personality traits - 33 in total. According to Bernaud (1998), each trait refers to a component or facet of personality, with each component being independent and characterizing a very precise dimension of the individual.

As Vila-López and Rodríguez-Molina (2013: 718) pointed out, "as the number of brands has proliferated, leading to increased competition in all industries, differentiation and positioning are increasingly based on symbolic and emotional meanings previously associated with the brand". According to Kang et al. (2016: 442) "Aakers' study is an important work assisting researchers and practitioners not only in understanding the symbolic meaning of brands, but also with measuring the symbolic human personality aspects of brands". Indeed, this is very relevant information, as BP has to be built up by managers (Eisend & Stokburger-Sauer, 2013). Companies must attract segments whose personalities are congruent with their own brands' personality (Azoulay & kapferer, 2003; Eisend & Stokburger-Sauer, 2013).

From a management perspective, brand personality is a construct that is recognized as relevant due to its capacity to influence consumer's preferences and choices (Phau & Lau, 2000; Alexandris, 2016) as well as a grounded basis for differentiation (Aaker, 1996; Phau & Lau, 2000; Vila-López & Rodríguez-Molina, 2013; Wang et al., 2016). It is associated with several positive behavioural and attitudinal outcomes (brand trust, brand relationships, brand involvement, trust and loyalty, and brand image) (Aaker, 1996; Fournier, 1998; Eisend & Stokburger-Sauer, 2013; Vila-López & Rodríguez-Molina, 2013; Wang et al., 2016).

As Avis (2012) and Azoulay and Kapfere (2003) argue, in addition to the cultural context that characterizes the behaviour of consumption, the dimensions of a brand's personality are influenced by the type of product and by the marketing strategy implemented by each organization. This argument can justify the relevance of studying the brand personality in the specific case of big musical events. From a marketing perspective, this information can contribute to a "better understanding with fans, spectators and public, for creating a communication strategy, and for creating the brand value with the public" (Čáslavová & Petráčková, 2011: 92).

In this study the authors used the same scale as that used in research conducted in Spain, given the socio-cultural proximity between Spain and Portugal (Aaker et al., 2001).

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Events and Music Festivals

Since the second half of the 20th century, professionals and politicians recognized the potential of events to "generate positive impacts … [playing] a significant role in the development of culture, arts, urban regeneration, education and tourism" (Mair & Whitford, 2013: 6). There are two main reasons for the rapid growth of events in the marketplace, especially over the last three decades. From a demand perspective, publics became more segmented as individuals have developed increasingly specific interests; from the supply side, there has been a growth of not-for-profit organizations and small or medium size companies staging events (Hassanien & Dale, 2011).

One of the most relevant reasons why events are so attractive to people in our societies is because "they are never the same, and you have to 'be there' to enjoy the unique experience fully; if you miss it, it's a lost opportunity'' (Getz, 2008: 404). Events are spatio-temporally planned phenomena (Getz, 1991, 2008) that have "a beginning and an end. They are temporal phenomena" (Getz, 2009: 18).

Concerts or music festivals are events whose primary goal is to provide entertainment (Getz, 2008; Čech, 2010). Residents and visitors are receptive to entertainment consumption and policymakers use events as mechanisms through which they seek to revitalize the social environment, with impacts on their economic development (Richards & Wilson, 2004; Getz, 2008, 1991; Guerreiro, 2013; Guerreiro et al., 2015). To Richards and Wilson (2006) the most interesting characteristic of any festival is its ability to offer a temporary distinctive environment. However, in addition to the physical setting, it also develops affect and meaning (Johnstone, 2012).

In this scenario, the intense offer of events, especially music festivals (Leenders et al., 2005), results in difficulty in creating a differentiated and relevant value proposition to the public. Event managers are seeking innovative strategies aiming to differentiate the offer in order to attract and retain audiences. A strong and appealing image requires that the event's brand personality has been correctly defined whereby this should be seen as a crucial issue in modern event management (Ferrand & Pagès, 1996; Leenders, 2010; Čáslavová & Petráčková, 2011).

As recognized in the literature, brands are represented by emotional meanings and messages (Murray, 2013) delivered to the target publics through relevant communication strategies. The aim of these activities is to build distinct personality profiles in order to attach symbolic and emotional meanings to brands that must be relevant to targets (Murray, 2013). As the brand personality scale allows you to measure the symbolic and emotional meaning that brands have to customers, this is relevant information to better develop useful messages to communicate with target markets (Vila-López & Rodríguez-Molina, 2013). According to Vila-López and Rodríguez-Molina (2013: 713) "for some years, musical festivals have been very popular events attended by young consumers en masse. Many brands have started to organize or sponsor this type of festival (FIB-Heineken, Heineken Greenspace, MTV Day, MTV Winter, Rock in Rio, …)".

2.2 The selection of the music festivals for the purposes of the study

For this research, we selected four of the most iconic music festivals that take place in Portugal: Rock in Rio (RR), MEO Sudoeste (MS), Optimus/NOS Alive (OA) and Super Bock Super Rock (SBSR). There were four criteria for the choice of these festivals: 1) Differentiation - based on its location, frequency, duration and music style; 2) Popularity – based on the number of participants (BLITZ, 2014) and media visibility (Cision, 2014), the number of fans on Facebook (E.Life, 2014), and won awards and distinctions; and 3) Longevity - history and festival editions. Except for the Optimus Alive festival that until the date of this research had eight editions, all others had taken place on more than 10 occasions. 4) In addition, these festivals were chosen because all young adults in Portugal know their brands due to strong and long lasting promotional campaigns on television, radio, newspapers and on the internet.

Rock in Rio Festival, held in Lisbon over five days, is a biannual festival and it includes various musical styles. With an average of 355,000 participants and more than 450,000 followers on facebook, it is considered one of the biggest music festivals in the world and it was first staged in Rio de Janeiro, in 1985 (Hombach, 2012). The goal of this event is to promote music as a universal language, and has a worldwide image as a vehicle for communication of emotions.

Otimus Alive festival is held annually on the outskirts of Lisbon and lasts for three days. The musical styles on display are rock, alternative rock, heavy metal and electronic. It has an average of 150,000 participants in each edition and over 400,000 followers on facebook (E.Life, 2014).

Meo Sudoeste festival takes place in the Alentejo region, has had 18 editions and is held annually over five days. Musical styles on display include reggae, pop, rock and electronic music. It has, on average, about 154,000 participants and over 30,000 followers on facebook (E.Life, 2014).

Super Bock Super Rock is one of the oldest music festivals in Portugal (20^{th} edition) and lasts for three days. Music styles on display includes rock, alternative rock, and heavy metal. It has an average of 85,000 participants and more than 200,000 followers on Facebook (E.Life, 2014).

2.3 Study population and sample

Experiences may arise in a wide variety of settings, including when a product or a service is presented in an advertisement (Kempf & Smith, 1998). In line with Kempf and Smith (1998), we assume in this study that respondents have an indirect experience, since they have been exposed to a wide range of advertising and marketing communication campaigns about the festivals being studied. This makes the selected university students a suitable population for this study, as these four festivals are specifically marketed to young people in Portugal (Cision, 2014).

Furthermore, in general university students are well-informed about the selected four music festivals, because they have been exposed to a wide range of advertising and marketing communication campaigns about the festivals, which makes it possible for them to respond to surveys with well-formed judgments, attitudes and preferences. In addition, young people with an above-average education constitute most potential festival consumers and are more likely to participate in surveys than older people, making university students a suitable population for this study (Cision, 2014). The target population of this research included all undergraduate and graduate students at a public university with about 7,500 students.

It was defined to survey a sample with a size large enough to assure a maximum sampling error of 5% for a 95% confidence level. The sample elements were selected from the student population through systematic sampling, according to a random starting point at the campus (e.g. library, building 1, building 2, building 3, restaurant, bus stop), and on each day of the fieldwork students' participation was solicited at the chosen location until 15 students had been surveyed.

2.4 The design of the questionnaire

A questionnaire was developed in order to survey the respondents regarding the attributes associated with the brand personality of music festivals. This questionnaire included three sections: the first section was intended to assess the awareness and level of participation of respondents in music festivals in Portugal; in the second section of the questionnaire the 33 items of brands' personality were presented, and participants responded on a 5-point Likert scale (1=strongly disagree and 5=strongly agree), as in Aaker et al. (2001); the last section of the questionnaire contained questions about socio-demographic characteristics of respondents. A pilot test was conducted to evaluate the appropriateness of the measuring instrument. It was applied to a small convenience sample of university students, but no need to improve the questionnaire was identified.

The questionnaire was self-administered, with an interviewer present who presented the study objectives, distributed and collected the questionnaires and clarified any doubts raised by respondents. Data collection took place during November of 2014. A total of 432 questionnaires, each of which took approximately 5-8 minutes to fill in, were distributed to the selected sample of students. A total of 405 questionnaires were validated for data analysis after discarding 27 incomplete questionnaires.

2.5 Data analysis

Data analysis was performed using univariate and multivariate techniques. We performed an exploratory factor analysis in order to identify the latent dimensions of brand personality of music events. This analysis were performed using the principal components method with orthogonal varimax rotation. Brand personality items with a loading greater than 0.40 were used to represent the factors (Hair et al., 1998). First, the 33 items were grouped into a few factors and, further, a separate factor analysis of the attributes within each factor was performed to identify facets (Aaker et al., 2001). A reliability analysis (Cronbach's alpha) was also done for the entire scale and for each factor, to estimate the internal consistency of the dimensions (Hair et al., 1998). Mann-Whitney tests were then used to identify differences in the brand personality dimensions between events' "participants" and "non-participants". All data analysis were run using SPSS statistical software.

4. RESULTS

4.1 Sample characterization and characterization of participation in events

A descriptive analysis has shown that 38% of respondents were male and 62.2 % female. The minimum age of the respondents was 17 years old and their maximum age was 60 years old; the average age was approximately 22 years. About 89% of respondents were attending the 1st cycle (bachelor's degree), 10% were attending the 2nd Cycle (Master's degree) and 0.5 % were attending the 3rd cycle (PhD degree).

The results shown in Table 1 attest a strong awareness of the events studied (> 90%). However, few respondents had participated in previous editions of the festivals. However, it was found that most of those who never participated intends to do it in the future. Most of the respondents who participated in music festivals were accompanied by their friends or colleagues.

Table 1. Events awareness, participation level, intention to participate and companion

	Awareness (%)	Participation (%)	Intention to participate in the future: Yes (%)	Companion Friends/Colleagues (%)
Rock in Rio	99,5	17,6	66,4	64,3
MEO Sudoeste	97,5	22,9	57,4	82,2
SBSR	96,8	7,9	40,3	79,3
Otimus Alive	97,5	14,4	52,1	76,8

Source: Own Elaboration

4.2 Events' Brand personality attributes

To identify the underlying dimensions of the festivals' brand personality, an exploratory factor analysis was used. The Kaiser-Meier-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO=0.906) and results of the Bartlett's test of sphericity (χ^2=7441.5; df=528; p-value<0.001) indicated that the use of a factor analysis was deemed appropriate. A summary of the results is shown in Table 2. An assessment of the scree plot, the component matrix, the eigenvalues (>1.0) and the total variance explained (>60%) lead to generation of five factors. All these brand personality dimensions, which had eigenvalues greater than one and explained 61.92% of the total variance, had the ability to reduce to one meaningful dimension at least two attributes. All items had factor loadings of 0.4 or above, with a majority of them above 0.6. Factor loadings were then used to assign a name to each factor. The reliability coefficient of the whole scale was 0.928 and all factors got alpha coefficients exceeding 0.6 and 80% of them even 0.8, showing a good level of internal consistency among items.

The first factor was labelled "Sweet" because it included items such as "Sweet", "Affectionate", "Affable" and "Glamourous". This factor explained 32.35% of the total variance with a reliability coefficient of 0.904. Items related to reputation (e.g. "sincere", "correct", "realistic" and "real") were strongly correlated with the second factor, which was labelled as "Sincere". This factor accounted for 15.06% of the variance with a reliability alpha of 0.886. The third factor, "Fun", included five items: "fun", "happy", "outgoing", "lively" and "young". This factor explained only 5.96% of the total variance but had a reliability coefficient of 0.895. The fourth factor, labelled as "Intense", included eight items such as "intense", "fervent", "bohemian", "passionate" and "modern". It accounted for 4.88% of the variance with a reliability coefficient of 0.842. The last factor, labelled as "Daring", explained 3.68% of the variance and revealed the lowest reliability, with a Cronbach's alpha value of 0.609. This factor consisted of only two items: "daring" and "creative".

Table 2. Results of factor analysis of the brand personality attributes and mean differences of attributes between participants and non-participants on music festivals

Brand personality factors	Factor loadings	Mean			p-value[#]
		Overall	Participants	Non-participants	
Factor 1 sweet (32.35%; α=0.904)[§]		**2.92**	**2.98**	**2.89**	**0.136**
sweet	0.893	2.83	2.91	2.79	0.347
affectionate	0.853	2.96	3.04	2.92	0.268
kind	0.831	2.93	2.99	2.90	0.537
affable	0.771	2.98	3.01	2.97	0.426
naive	0.708	2.61	2.60	2.62	0.892
glamourous	0.674	2.79	2.79	2.78	0.829
spiritual	0.640	2.93	3.09	2.83	0.019
elegant	0.615	2.98	2.98	2.98	0.910
mystical	0.593	3.17	3.28	3.11	0.075
peaceful	0.461	3.02	3.14	2.95	0.098
Factor 2 sincere (15.06%; α=0.886)[§]		**3.54**	**3.60**	**3.51**	**0.135**
sincere	0.743	3.48	3.48	3.48	0.823
correct	0.713	3.48	3.57	3.42	0.067
realistic	0.681	3.62	3.59	3.63	0.851
real	0.680	3.79	3.83	3.77	0.510
weighted	0.674	3.32	3.39	3.28	0.062
watchful	0.652	3.44	3.49	3.41	0.220
independent	0.523	3.52	3.62	3.46	0.043
unique	0.492	3.67	3.81	3.59	0.029
Factor 3 fun (5.96%; α=0.895)[§]		**4.15**	**4.17**	**4.14**	**0.854**
fun	0.826	4.22	4.27	4.19	0.353
happy	0.808	4.16	4.21	4.14	0.388
outgoing	0.808	4.12	4.11	4.13	0.714
liveliness	0.790	4.21	4.24	4.19	0.868
young	0.680	4.06	4.03	4.07	0.477
Factor 4 intense (4.88%; α=0.842)[§]		**3.70**	**3.80**	**3.65**	**0.016**
intense	0.716	3.90	3.98	3.86	0.170
fervent	0.711	3.66	3.72	3.63	0.246
persistent	0.633	3.72	3.80	3.68	0.130
leader	0.590	3.59	3.75	3.51	0.002
confident	0.573	3.70	3.85	3.62	0.003
passionate	0.556	3.40	3.55	3.32	0.009
modern	0.531	3.89	3.89	3.89	0.954
bohemian	0.528	3.76	3.84	3.72	0.267
Factor 5 daring (3.68%; α=0.609)[§]		**3.70**	**3.80**	**3.65**	**0.038**
daring	0.650	3.68	3.77	3.63	0.116
creative	0.492	3.72	3.84	3.66	0.016

Note: [§] For all factors: (% of variance; Cronbach's alpha); [#] Mann-Whitney test

Source: Own Elaboration

The results based on the mean scores (table 3) indicated that the attributes most linked with music festivals were related to "Sweet" (factor 3). This finding is valid for both participants and non-participants, since there are not statistically significant differences between those groups of respondents on that factor.

Following Aaker et al. (2001), further exploratory factor analysis of the attributes within each brand personality dimension was carried out. Results of these new factor analyses, using the same criteria as explained above, yielded both two facets for factors 1 and 4. Other factors revealed only one facet. Table 8 displays factor loadings, variance explained and Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficients for each facet and dimension. This table also shows the results for the KMO measure as well as Bartlett's sphericity test for each of the factor analysis. These results show that both the factorial analysis are appropriate.

Table 3. Results of factor analysis of the brand personality dimensions 1 and 4

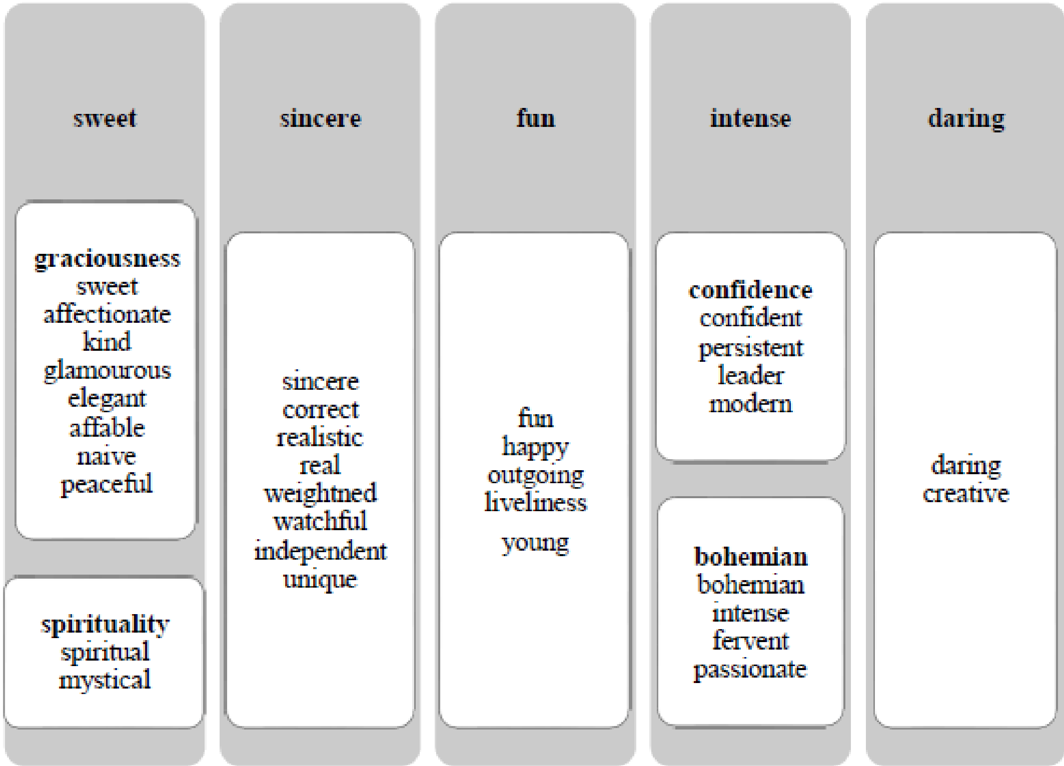
Facets of factor 1	Factor loadings	Mean	Facets of factor 4	Factor loadings	Mean
KMO= 0.874; Bartlett: p-value<0.001			KMO=0.850; Bartlett: p-value<0.001		
Facet 1 – Graciousness (55.12%; α=0.903)§		**2.89**	**Facet 1 Confidence (47.56%; α=0.812)§**		**3.73**
sweet	0.883	2.83	confident	0.838	3.70
affectionate	0.881	2.96	persistent	0.831	3.72
kind	0.851	2.93	leader	0.751	3.59
glamourous	0.721	2.79	modern	0.601	3.89
elegant	0.694	2.98	**Facet 2 Bohemian (13.38%; α=0.904)§**		**3.68**
affable	0.691	2.98	bohemian	0.786	3.76
naive	0.685	2.61	intense	0.745	3.90
peaceful	0.508	3.02	fervent	0.675	3.66
Facet 2 Spirituality (10.82%; α=0.810)§		**3.05**	passionate	0.584	3.40
spiritual	0.884	2.93			
mystical	0.871	3.17			

Note: § For all facets: (% of variance; Cronbach's alpha)

Source: Own Elaboration

As shown in Table 3, factor 1 (Sweet) comprises two facets that together explain approximately 66% of the total variance. The first facet includes the following attributes: "sweet", "affectionate", "kind", "glamourous", "elegant", "affable", "naive" and "peaceful"; the second one includes two other attributes: "spiritual" and "mystical". Factor 4 (Intense) also comprises two facets: "confidence," with four personality traits ("confiant", "persistent", "leader" and "modern"), and "bohemian," which also includes four personality traits ("bohemian", "intense", "fervent" and "passionate"). The total variance of factor 4 explained by its two facets is around 61%. The results demonstrate that all facets are "highly reliable" since its Cronbach's alpha is between 0.8 and 0.9. Finally, the facets were labelled based on the attribute with the highest loading representing a higher correlation with the factor. Figure 1 shows the dimensions of brand personality of music festivals in Portugal, which are explained by a scale of five dimensions (*Sweet*, *Sincere*, *Fun*, *Intense* and *Daring*) and 33 personality traits. *Sweet* and *Intense* are explained by two facets each (Graciousness and Spirituality; Confidence and Bohemian, respectively) (Figure 1).

Figure 1. Music festivals brand personality dimensions



Source: Own Elaboration

5. DISCUSSION

The importance of the symbolic meaning of brands to the consumer's decisions is seen as one of the main arguments that justify the increasing interest in brand personality studies across a wide range of product categories. Batra et al. (2010) and Aaker (1997) recognized that product category impacts brand perceptions and Avis' (2012) proposal is that specific models addressed to specific product categories should be developed, as they will reflect the particular associations that consumers have with each category. Looking at events management, this construct has been studied in the context of sport events (Čáslavová & Petráčková, 2011; Lee & Cho, 2012; Kang, Bennett & Peachey, 2016; Alexandris, 2016) but, in the specific case of musical events, this is a theme where the research is scarce (Vila-López & Rodríguez-Molina, 2013).

Since the original BP scale was developed by Aaker (1997) in the American socio-cultural context, research has been done in different cultural contexts (Aaker et al., 2001), as it was recognized that this variable influences the way consumers are related themselves to brands. For this reason, the present research utilized the BP scale designed for the Spanish cultural context (Aaker et al., 2001).

The Aaker's scale has been used in several studies and by several authors concerned with studying and deepening the knowledge about the problematic of the personality of the brands. The results they have reached are far from being consensual with regard to the application of this method in different sectors and different products. According to Mark Avis (2012; 89) "to date, Aaker's (1997) brand personality five factor model has been the subject of several critiques, including concerns regarding the exclusion of negative factors in the scale development (Bosnjak et al., 2007), the inclusion of items that are not properly personality traits (Azoulay & Kapferer, 2003), as well as questions about whether the scale might be used as a general scale (Austin et al., 2003; also see Milas & Mlacic, 2007)". Kumar and Kayak (2004) recognized two important limitations of the BP Scale when tested in the context of tourist destinations: on the one hand, the non-inclusion of negative traits and, on the other hand, the need to incorporate specific attributes to each tourism destination. Subsequently, in the same context, in 2007, Murphy, Moscardo and Benckendorff recognized that the personality dimensions of the two destination brands were not consistent, suggesting the need to incorporate "more common personality descriptors" into the model (Murphy, Moscardo & Benckendorff, 2007: 12). However, for example, Vila-Lopez and Rodríguez-Molina's (2013) concluded that this scale is useful to characterize the personality in event settings.

The results obtained in the present study show the emergence of new dimensions of the brand personality in the specific case of four music festivals with strong notoriety that are intended to differentiate themselves among young audiences.

The overly generic features of the scale contribute to respondents who have already participated in at least one edition of these festivals and those who have never participated in any of them, have a very similar global picture.

This, therefore, limits the practical implications of the study for marketing managers of this type of event.

The different studies carried out allow us to draw a line of thinking that converges to the idea that Aaker's traditional product brand personality model does not meet the sufficient conditions to translate the most relevant personality traits the brands. This conclusion is particularly evident in the case of products with intangible characteristics, where the experience may lead to a better alignment between the personality traits of consumers and the personality traits of the experiences.

The results of this investigation showed different factors as well as different facets and items (see, for example, Aaker et al., 2001; Supphellen & Gronhaug, 2003; Rojas-Mendez et al., 2004; Sung & Tinkham, 2005). We identified some new guidelines both in terms of dimensions or facets and personality traits when compared with the original brand personality scale developed by Aaker et al. (2001). For example, Aaker et al. (2001) found, for each dimension, at least two facets. In this study, the dimensions Sweet and Intense are explained by two facets—Graciousness and Spirituality, and Confidence and Bohemian, respectively. Noteworthy is the significantly reduced number of brand personality facets in the case of the music festivals whose brand personalities were assessed in this study. Aaker et al. (2001) identified 11 facets, as opposed to only four in this study. However, the total number of personality traits do not differ significantly (34 and 33, respectively). In line with Azoulay and Kapferer (2003) and Avis (2012), the results obtained in this study reinforce the idea that not only the socio-cultural context, but also the product type could give rise to the design of specific personality scales. On table 4 we compare both results.

Overall, it can be said that Rock in Rio, MEO Sudoeste, SBSR and Optimus Alive festivals are seen as *fun* and *lively* events, features that are compatible with someone who is sociable. This idea is reinforced by Čech (2010) who states that the primary purpose of music festivals is entertainment, as well as to offer opportunities for positive feelings about the event, offering the stage for pleasant, memorable and unique experiences to consumers.

Table 4. Comparison of results

			Portuguese music festivals		
Excitement	Happiness	happy	**Sweet**	**Graciousness**	sweet
		outgoing			affectionate
		fun			kind
	Youth	daring			glamourous
		young			elegant
		spirited			affable
	Independence	unique			naive
		imaginative			peaceful
		independent		**Spirituality**	spiritual
Sincerity	Thoughtfulness	considerate			mystical
		thoughtful	**Sincere**	sincere	
		well-mannered		correct	
	Realness	real		realistic	
		sincere		real	
		down-to-earth		weighted	
Sophistication	Style	good looking		watchful	
		glamorous		independent	
		stylish		unique	
	Confidence	confident	**Fun**	fun	
		persistent		happy	
		leader		outgoing	
Peacefulness	Affection	affectionate		liveliness	
		sweet		young	
		gentle	**Intense**	**Confidence**	confident
	Naivety	naive			persistent
		mild			leader
		mannered			modern
		peaceful		**Bohemian**	bohemian
Passion	Intensity	fervent			intense
		passionate			fervent
		intense			passionate
	Spirituality	spiritual	**Daring**	daring	
		mystical		creative	
		bohemian			

Source: Own Elaboration

6. CONCLUSIONS

Brand personality is recognized as a relevant theme either from the perspective of academic research and from the perspective of marketing professionals. Despite the theory of brand personality having already been more deeply studied in the case of sports events (Čáslavová & Petráčková, 2011; Lee & Cho, 2012; Kang et al., 2016; Alexandris, 2016), in musical events research is scarce (Vila-López & Rodríguez-Molina, 2013).

Based on the scale of brand personality developed in Spain (Aaker et al., 2001), this study was devoted to understanding the brand personality of music festivals in Portugal.

From the perspective of a sample of university students who were respondents to the questionnaire, the brand personality scale of the studied music festivals includes five dimensions—Sweet, Sincere, Fun, Intense and Daring— 4 facets and 33 personality traits. These results therefore show how this particular typology of products is perceived by the publics in terms of its embodiment in human characteristics.

According to these findings, events' organizers might focus their branding and communication decisions on establishing a Sweet, Sincere, Fun, Intense and Daring brand by investing in specific personality characteristics.

Theoretically, this study provides further empirical testing and support for the scale used to measure brand personality in the case of music events. This study identifies which traits should be used to understand brand personality in the case of musical festivals. Brand personality traits will be effective in endorsing the positioning of brands and organizers' promotion strategies, enabling them to better differentiate them from competitors.

It also will allow the events' organizers to understand whether the perceived brand personality is aligned with the organizations' mission, vision and goals. This information can be further used for a modification of current or the creation of new marketing and brand strategies. Also, if the musical festivals' organizers truly understand consumer perceptions about their brands' personalities, they could more effectively promote the brand when dealing with corporate sponsors, or target potential sponsors that share similar brand personalities.

As is recognized in the literature, consumers tend to adhere to brands that match their own personalities. This finding can be of utmost importance to select those who will endorse the advertising and the social media strategies and campaigns looking at be affecting in communicating with the targets of these musical events.

The exclusive use of imposed-centric instruments is a limitation of this research. As such it is considered that, in subsequent studies, an exploratory qualitative approach is needed in order to identify specific attributes of this product category (Herbst & Merz, 2011). In addition, the population of the study, university students, may produce some skewing of results. However, even if it may inhibit the generalisation of the findings to the entire population, the use of undergraduate students in developing scale measures, particularly brand personality scales, is frequent (Austin et al., 2003; Milas & Mlacic´, 2007; Braunstein & Ross, 2010; Huang et al., 2012; Lee & Cho, 2012; Kang et al., 2016). For this reason, in future research the target population should be more comprehensive. Besides that, this research should be done within the publics who attend the musical events as well as, in future research it should also be addressed to more diverse music festivals.

Since the current study did not produce the same results as the original scale, this suggests a need for future research in order to adapt the scale (Aaker et al., 2001) for this specific type of product. Additionally, it may still be appropriate to consider the development of a new scale to assess the brand personality of musical events.

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