Year 10, No. 2, December 2017, issn 2335-4194

Academica Turistica

Tourism & Innovation Journal
Revija za turizem in inovativnost

Academica Turistica

Tourism & Innovation Journal – Revija za turizem in inovativnost
Year 10, No. 2, December 2017, issn 2335-4194
https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10(2)

University of Primorska Press

Review Article

A Theoretical Positioning of Self and Social Identities as Antecedents in Cultural-Experiential Tourism

Atanu Nath
Western Norway University of Applied Sciences, Norway
atanu.k.nath@hvl.no

Parmita Saha
Western Norway University of Applied Sciences, Norway
parmita.saha@hvl.no

Museums are often regarded as a cultural destination, however they stand distinct from other purveyors of culture in that they consciously attempt at a less pronounced social and cognitive dissonance among the audience it covets. In their strife for continuity as an overarching goal, museums by necessity have moved away from being torchbearers of heritage and interpretive centers thereof, to being experiential centers and thus facing challenges associated with a duality of roles. Conscious democratization and integration efforts to draw in the masses require commensurate marketing strategies, while at the same time museums strive to offer an experience that is in effect personal. It is our contention that museums offer a unique and valuable opportunity for theoretical and empirical work in tourism consumer behavior research. To such end, this research reviews the constructs identity seeking (self-identity), identity projection (social identity) as determinants of motivation in cultural experiential tourism. Motivation is considered along the dimensions of reflective and recreational motivation. A theoretical framework of relationship between identity and motivation to explain pre and post visitation attitude formation and behavioral intention in cultural experiential tourism is proposed, along with methodological notes on pursuant empirical research to validate the framework.

Keywords: self identity, social identity, motivation, behavioral intention, cultural tourism, experiential tourism
https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10.115-128

Introduction

Museums have often been regarded as a cultural destination: by definition, a bearer of legacies and heritage. New museologists have regarded museums as social institutions with their share of social, political, and economic influences and biases, and have advocated larger integration with the multi-cultural society (Stam, 1993), arguing they should not be above the concerns of the non-elite (Prentice, 2001). Pearce (1998) states it is not museums' role to be either static or enduring, thus opening itself to the only constant of the outside: change.

Ironically, charges of the museums (and to a greater extent, the arts) being above the concerns of the non-elite may not be their own making, but rather imposed upon them. As Šola (1992) observes, the arts is where the social and cognitive dissonance is most pronounced, and elevating it and showcasing it as to be above the 'common man' and proclaiming art to be for the sake of the arts blunts the edges of the dissonances. Šola (1992) holds society, art historians, and sometimes artists themselves guilty of a collusion in what he views as a self-serving and less discordant, less disconcerting positioning of the arts. If we follow this argument, then the museums can serve their inherent purpose better if they align themselves with the so-called non-elite, or rather more preferably not be segmented along such lines at all. In reality, they continue to do so, especially in recent decades, in contrast to Šola's premise. However, museums are perhaps exceptions in this regard, compared to the other arms of the 'high arts.'

The goal of this research is to propose a framework for positioning self-identity in confluence with social identity as motivators behind participating in cultural and experiential tourism, or rather 'cultural-experiential tourism,' as we shall argue in a section to follow, and behavioural intention. However, do museums merit a closer scrutiny from a tourism and consumer perspective, rather than an esoteric one? We believe that they do, precisely because museums as an application area offer an opportunity for a convergence and resolution of theoretical perspectives. Weil (2000) has pointed out that museums have moved on from their oft misperceived role of cemeteries of bric-a-brac to a more visitor-oriented role, accentuating the need for more studies from the consumer perspective, and not museological ones. Sheng and Chen (2012) highlight that museums roles have evolved towards education and recreation from collection, research, and exhibition. These integrative efforts are not new to museums. But because the museums consciously attempt to democratise (perhaps in contrast with other exhibitors and curators of culture, such as art galleries), they are faced with the challenges of the duality of their roles.

Šola (1992) raises two important points: one of identity balance to which the observation above pertains, the need to invent and reinvent oneself, to not box one's identity among one or few segments. The other is that of striving for continuity as a paramount goal in itself, newness of architecture or application of technology serving as effective tools toward achieving this goal. In this regard, museums have gradually moved away from being torchbearers of heritage and interpretive centres thereof, to being experiential centres. The Knut Hamsun centre in the north of Norway, for example, has promoted the Hamsun experience not through exhibiting the life and works of the author, but rather through the interplay of architecture and light. It is by no means a solitary example. A museum as a provider of cultural and experiential tourism must draw a balance between these two primary goals. Prentice (2001) points out that the problem for museums today is no longer re-orientation, but of the oversupply of museums to its catered masses – an effect of renewed and ongoing adaptation. If so, it does not diminish but underscores the need to identify underlying factors toward visitations, without being bogged down into segmentation.

It is precisely because it consciously attempts to do away with segmentation that it holds a special interest in this research. Devoid of segments as a basis of its outreach, we propose self-identity as a primary motivational construct. To be noted, it is not argued here that segmentation has no influence on visitations – it may well have; it is argued that museums have increasingly democratised, which is desirable, but may not have found an alternate construct that can support filling in the void of conscious reliance on demographics. Catering to the notion of self-identity and the social reflection of identity as antecedents are proposed herein to fill such a void.

Furthermore, Falk (1998) had highlighted that human behaviour, in particular museum-going behaviour, cannot and should not be measured by demographic categories alone. Museologists also recognise the need for a multi-disciplinary approach towards attaining knowledge of visitors. Hood (1983) indicated decades ago that psychographic factors such as values, attitudes, perceptions, interests, expectations, and satisfactions are essential for understanding potential and actual visitors. Housen (1987) proposed three dimensions (demographic data, attitudinal information, and developmental situations) for understanding visitor behaviour. Thus, museums occupy a rather singular position in the theoretical spectrum. Conscious democratisation and integration efforts to draw in the masses require commensurate marketing strategies, while museums simultaneously strive to offer an experience that is in effect personal. If we focus on author museums, the experience is indeed deeply and often solely personal. Hence, we contend that museums offer a unique and valuable opportunity for theoretical and empirical work in tourism consumer behaviour research.

Behaviour is triggered by many factors (learning, cultural conditioning, social influences, perceptions) yet motives are taken as a starting point for a decision process (Crompton & McKay, 1997). This research examines an area of cultural tourism – museums – and attempts to forward a conceptual framework positing self-identity as an antecedent of visit motivation and subsequent pre- and post-attitude formation towards behavioural intention.

Based on the discussion thus far, the following research objectives are set forth:

1. To review and explore the presence and validity of identity seeking (self-identity) and identity projection (social identity) as determinants of motivation in cultural-experiential tourism.
2. To propose a theoretical framework of the relationship between identity and motivation to explain behavioural intention in cultural experiential tourism.

Theoretical Review

On Cultural and Experiential Tourism

Experiential tourism entered the academic consciousness in the early 1990s with an Australian report highlighting the emergent trend of the experience based domestic traveller (Smith, 2006). Pine and Gilmore (1998) speaks of the experience economy, and defines 'experiential' as a series of related experiences, and creating a portfolio of such. In their view, experiences are different from services in that to an experience deliverer, any economic functions provided are but a stage; the focus is not on making the experience necessarily customised but rather personal and memorable. Experiences are often wrapped around traditional wares, and the authors opine that to reach a stage of added economic value, businesses may need such increasing experiential wrappings. Aside from the goods-and-services business, in the case of tourism, there is forceful argument linking it to experience. In his editorial note, Pizam (2010) rightly surmises that in tourism and hospitality, the quality of both the tangible and intangible services on offer are not often correlated to satisfaction; instead, it is the experience that delivers the desired outcome. It is the creation of a memorable experience that matters.

Can a museum visit be likened to a tourism experience? Some of the outcome variables as consequences of tourism-related visits are denoted by Woodside, Caldwell, and Albers-Miller (2004) as the perceived quality of the visit experience, the satisfaction with activities experienced; intentions to return, post-experience, word-of-mouth, and communications. They are certainly also desirable outcomes for a museum. However, we argue the motivational antecedents leading to a museum visit sets itself apart from a tourism experience. Furthermore, while a museum experience thus may adhere to the idea of creating a memorable experience as a necessity for achieving common satisfactory outcome variables, in our view there is another notable distinction setting it aside as a form of tourism provider. Such being adding economic value is not on a priority list for them, even while catering to the masses. Thus a generic experiential tourism definition may not be the most applicable in exploring antecedents of museum visits. Tung and Ritchie (2011) have conducted a notable study investigating the constituents of memorable tourism experiences; significantly, they have considered factors that lead to the formation and retention of experiences. We agree to this stance, but add that if we are to view museum visits are not similar to other tourism experiences as noted above, then experience formation and retention antecedents are likely to be different as well, despite common outcome variables.

The question then arises whether we can take the cultural as a fork of experiential tourism. Cultural tourism has been dubbed as a sub-set of experiential tourism (Stebbins, 1997), composed of both the search for and participation in experiences of an aesthetic, emotional, intellectual, or psychological nature. It differs from other forms of tourism (i.e. serious leisure), defined as a systematic pursuit of a hobby that may also culminate in a career requiring special skills, knowledge, and experience (Stebbins, 1997) and from casual leisure, which is an activity which is defined as an immediate and short-lived pleasurable activity. Furthermore, there is evidence of dichotomy within cultural tourism itself. Richards (2011) classifies travel related to famous authors, painters etc. as the use of creative products; in turn, creativity is proposed as a means to escape 'mass culture tourism,' one of the dichotomous elements.

In this evolving scenario, we can delve into a debate of whether museum visitations now fall within cultural or experiential tourism. Based on the discussion, we argue a nuance may be drawn by renaming this narrower context as a new categorisation – cultural experiential – that is distinct from cultural or experiential by themselves. Experiential tourism has indeed been addressed in the context of culture; Florida (2002) in pursuance and within this theme, mentions a creative class that is a chief target segment of this experiential marketing, a class that, according to him, creates new ideas, technology, and creative content; and 'prefers active, authentic, and participatory experiences which they can have a hand in structuring.' Yet, as we have discussed earlier, this cannot be applicable for museums either, since museums are increasingly not bound to, neither should they be, to any distinct classes.

Instead, we propose that it is now fluid, exhibiting characteristics of both cultural as well as experiential. Following the definition of Kotler and Scheff (1997) of arts or cultural products as those that are visibly and essentially offered to the target market, Prentice (2001) identified that museum displays, plays, and concerts could all be classified as core products within the arts, to be accompanied by additional expected products, such as on-site facilities and support, and augmented products such as venue-related newsletters, lectures or other cultural events on premise, nearby eateries, etc. Today, presence and interaction through social media could be taken as supplants for newsletters. However, Prentice (2001) notably also provides an alternative conceptualisation for experiential tourism, which while retaining the three concentric circles of the product named above, stresses that within cultural exhibits, formal producers such as the museums or the theatres are not the sole creators of the product-based experience, but consumers are also the creators or producers by dint of their imagination. This observation tallies with the earlier work of Cunnell and Prentice (2000), in which they stated museums and galleries may be initial producers, but the final tourism product is a co-creational effort between the initial producers and the individual tourist. This is especially true when the tourism product is personal in nature. Thus, museums, or galleries, or performance attendances are better classified as cultural experiential, which to be successful need to incorporate imaginings of the visitors as well as allow them to associate with the places, and provide perceptions of authority.

On Choice of Literary Museums as Application Area for Cultural Experiential Tourism

Jiang and Xu (2017) assert that there is a close connection between the relevant literature and tourism, but research on it is lacking. They further state it is not essential for literary tourism places to be literally connected to an author, but rather they may be imaged linkages or having an indirect connection to authors' works. Herbert (2001) has worked upon conversion of a literary place into one of literary tourism. He illustrated a two-stage process, in which the tourism manager (or rather, the museum authorities) produces the text, and a second stage where it is interpreted by the literary tourist. This indicates a need for text or supplement that matches or enhances the inner longing and anticipation on the part of the literary visitor.

More significantly, Herbert (2001) has drawn a division among desired qualities of a literary place, namely the 'exceptional' and 'general' qualities of a site. The exceptional qualities include association with the writer, association with settings for stories, association with affective values, nostalgia, memory, symbolism, and the development of literary connections and preservations thereof. The general qualities of a site refer to attractive settings, facilities, and services, location on tourist itinerary, and development as a visitor attraction and access.

These are two quite distinct qualities. Herbert (2001) has referred to the 'diversified literary tourist,' catering for whom has led to a multiplication of literary places. At this juncture, we may hazard a division of our own: one that consists of a dedicated literary tourist, making a pilgrimage of sorts to literary museums, paying homage to the author of his or her subject of affection; versus the 'local attractions' visitor, who may venture to the museum regardless of the depth of familiarity or affection for the writer. It is proposed that the elements of the exceptionalism of a literary place will carry more weight as motivational factors for the former group – 'the literary pilgrim,' while the general qualities will act as motivator for the latter – 'the culture tourist.' The proposed construct of self-identity is posited to fall within the realm of motivator related to exceptionalism; it is hypothesised that is where it shall have potency. However, the presence of the pursuit of self-identity as a construct is not posited to be an exclusive element of the former group. Indeed, it is an exciting prospect if the presence of such a construct was found among the latter, which might indicate a transformative effect taking place among the casual visitor post-visitation.

One of the tenets discussed above is that a museum visit is unlike other tourism experiences due to difference in antecedents of motivation and consequent behaviour. In conjunction, we justify the literary museums as application area for cultural experiential tourism. The next sections will discuss the constructs that we propose as determinants of behavioural intention in the context of literary museum visits and the relationships between the constructs.

Framing Identity in a Cultural Experiential Context

Prentice (2001) has defined cultural tourism succinctly. He states it as a form of tourism that is 'constructed, proffered and consumed explicitly or implicitly' for cultural appreciation. This appreciation can take the form of the consumption of experiences or for gaining systematic knowledge. As Moscardo and Pearce (1999) note, the consumption of experience demands involvement or an experience of authenticity, whereas Prentice (2001) states that the knowledge gaining through visitations to museums is engaged in for a richer understanding of the culture it represents. Thus, we have evidence of two distinct and divergent motives emerging within the context of cultural tourism. The latter is posited to be a consumption tied to emotion and spirituality by Prentice (2001), echoed by McIntosh (1999), who states visits centred on knowledge and richer understanding are more uniquely personal, emotionally charged, and valued: un essence, a personal journey, one which we associate here with the construct (quest for) self-identity herein. Consumption as experience, in contrast, is posited to have a more utilitarian nature. This is the component that Craik (1995) refers to when she identifies cultural tourism as an industry marketing cultural products as cultural experiences to its consumers.

In this research, we instead lean toward partially adopting the views of Taheri, Jafari, and O'Gorman (2014), who have mentioned the construct of cultural capital, consisting of homology or a penchant for the 'elite class' to consume elite culture and vice versa; individualism where the same individual may assume multiple identities in search of self-realisation; and an omnivore-univore perspective.

We began this article with the argument of Šola (1992) about (most) museums' conscious embrace and push towards increased democratisation. Such a position would reject the preponderance of homology as a potent antecedent toward visit behaviour at cultural-experiential destinations such as museums. Prentice (2001) has also hinted at the need to recognise democratisation as essential for the cultural tourism industry, of which museums are a part, in practice. The need for such democratisation negates homology as a formative construct in the context of museums.

We do however find the omnivore-univore stratification offered by Chan and Goldthorpe (2005) to be pertinent; while this view also hinges on social stratification, the classifications are more nuanced in their study. The omnivore-univore perspective posits differentiation and creation of classes with regard to culture consumption that is tied to educational levels and incomes, as well as their social milieu. Thus, we find it a more pragmatic approach in identifying segments and associated motivation classification that may exist in cultural-experiential consumption, a market-force-driven segmentation, rather than one that emanates from elitism which is actively eschewed by purveyors of such consumption. The omnivore-univore is essentially a socially fused construct, moulded by demographic factors such as education, and income, but also concerned with meshing in with its social environment and its elements. We equate this construct with social identity in our research, the influence of which is hypothesised to be more potent in case of the 'culture tourist' as proposed and discussed earlier. Another important distinguishing aspect of the omnivore-univore perspective is that it does not map the social stratification along the elite and the masses regarding cultural consumption; instead, stratification is done based upon the range of cultural consumption: omnivore including high as well as so-called middle- and low-brow culture, and the univore strata limited to consumption of only the popular form of culture. Since it bypasses the elite and the masses' binary view of cultural segmentation, this perspective then aligns with our previous argument for museums and their avoidance of segmentation. We adopt this view as a constituent of social identity.

The other aspect of cultural capital as identified by Taheri et al. (2014) is an assumption of multiple identities in search of self-realisation. This is posited as contributing to our construct self-identity, the influence of which is hypothesised to be potent in case of the 'literary pilgrim' or the dedicated literary tourist identified and discussed in the earlier section.

In addition, we refer to the work of Sparks and Shepherd (1992) on defining identity in relation to the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991; Netemeyer, Ryn, & Ajzen, 1991). We have earlier discussed the work of Biddle, Bank, and Slavings (1987) who have posited a person's self-identity to be a distinct concept from his or her evaluative attitude, which is echoed by Sparks and Shepherd (1992), a view that we have supported. However, Sparks and Shepherd (1992) further argue that any causal link between such self-identity and behaviour may not be entirely independent of attitudinal evaluation. Instead, self-identity is affirmed and bolstered through the performance of certain behaviour. We accept their hypothesis that self-identity is reflected in and influences one's attitude, but would not show an independent influence on behavioural intentions.

As to the definition of self-identity, as Gleason (1983) states, 'Its very obviousness seems to defy elucidation!.' If we take a psychological definition, then self-identity would be akin to what remains consistent through a person's phases of existence, a continuity of his personality, a matter of retaining a 'sameness.' Gleason (1983) finds his support in the words of Wordsworth and D. H. Lawrence, equating identity to an integrity of the self. His paper vacillates between the discussion of both self-identity in the sense mentioned above, and other forms of identity such as political, ethnic, and others. We, however, view these as belonging to a form of social identity. This quest for retaining a consistent thread in one's life, by which one interprets and perhaps anchor the 'self' is our view of self-identity. A behavioural manifestation, such as literary pilgrimage, or museum visit would be a step in the quest of completion and continuation of self-identity, an iteration in self-actualisation.

Thus, based upon the distinction drawn in the context of cultural capital, we propose two identity constructs leading to two distinct motivational antecedents. The first construct, self-identity leading to motivation, we term as reflective, based upon introspection, and self-actualisation. The second construct, social identity, leading to motivation is termed as 'recreational,' with which behaviour is manifested due to factors other than exceptionalism as previously discussed, a non-individualistic socially mediated driver.

Motivation in Literary Museum Context

While past research has often given motivation a central role in decision processes, tourism research had a dearth of empirical works on motivation (Lundberg, 1980). This is more evident in the fields of event and holiday tourism (Crompton & McKay, 1997), and virtually non-existent for author museums, prompting a need for such investigations to fill the perceived literature gap.

Motivation is conceptualised as a dynamic process of internal psychological factors generating a state of disequilibrium, prompting individuals to take actions aimed at resolving said state (Crompton, 1979). Thus identifying and prioritising motives are key to understanding visitors' decision processes. Um and Crompton (1990) suggest that marketing activities can be conducted more effectively if target markets can be delineated based on benefits sought and promotions catering to them. It should be noted that while this most certainly applies to event and festival tourism studies, two forms of experiential tourism, the same may not necessarily be said for visitations to author museums. The earlier discussion underlined the museums' conscious and active move away from highly segmented targeting to increase its audience, which holds true for historical museums, and perhaps even more for author museums. Indeed, as has been mentioned, such democratisation is in keeping with the spirit of the institutions as originally envisaged. Thus, we have a dichotomy: museums cannot rely on segmentation for increasing marketing effectiveness; in contrast, their fulfilment of needs is essentially that of the individual. They cater to specific motives of individuals. This dichotomy lies behind the choice to focus on self-identity as a potential motivator for author museums.

Even for individuals, in case of an experiential visit, there are multiple needs at work (Mansfeld, 1992; Nicholson & Pearce, 2001). The need to interact with family can be one of them (Crompton, 1979); it is not often easy to gather members together at home. Rao (2001) echoes this, emphasising the public good aspect that goes beyond entertainment and revenue generation and one which brings families together in showing their commitment towards the community. The desire for collective cultural enrichment can be another (Crompton & McKay, 1997). A festival or event can package several elements to cater to individuals within this family collective, each deriving separate benefits from the elements. In contrast, visits to art museums, and more particularly author museums are far more introspective affairs, and the offerings, while still possibly having several elements in its package, are centred around the introspection on the part of the visitor. It is essentially a solitary journey on the part of the traveller, the visitor. This is a further argument for focusing on the search for self-identity as an antecedent in the case of author museums.

There are two types of motivation identified earlier in the serious leisure context: intrinsic and extrinsic. Intrinsic motivation is related to a person's interest in performing activities for his or her own sake: the behaviour is voluntary and absent of external rewards. In case of intrinsic motivation, people are motivated by reaching desired achievement, knowledge acquisition, desire for pleasure and satisfaction; the deeds by themselves are the intrinsic rewards. In contrast, extrinsic motivations lead to behaviour that is more utilitarian in nature, concerned with achieving a desired outcome. This contrasts with intrinsic motivation, for which engagement in the act is sufficient in itself (Alexandris, Tsorbatzoudis, & Grouios, 2002). Visitors' cognitive learning, reflective and recreational motivation is associated with their visiting experience and reasons associated with their museum visit (Falk, 2013; Prentice, 2001; Slater, 2007). Taheri et al. (2014) identified recreational and reflective motivation to determine museum visitors' level of engagement. In their study, they have defined reflective motivation as an individual's self and identity projection that is measured with self-expression, self-actualisation, self-image and group attraction. Recreational motivation was associated with enjoyment based enrichment and was measured by self-enjoyment, satisfaction, re-creation and personal enrichment. In light of that, the present study considers the reflective and recreational motivations as determinants of attitude formation and behavioural intention.

Identity, Motivation, Attitude, and Behaviour

Commensurate to this bi-furcation of identity linked to cultural-experiential tourism, for which we set museums as the context of this research, there is a need to compartmentalise motivations arising out of the assumed identities. Push and pull motivations are a prevalent distinction among motivational perspectives; push relates to individual's own interest(s) in visiting a place, and pull relates to the attractions of a destination itself (Baloglu & Uysal, 1996). However, in our view, this distinction falls short from an identity-seeking perspective, since it does not delve more granularly into what such interests might be. Iso-Ahola and Allen (1982)'s identification and classification of such push and pull factors emanating from intrinsic and extrinsic reasoning for displayed behaviour is also problematic in this respect, since their study was conducted in the context of leisure activity. The psychological 'push' elements in intrinsic as identified by Iso-Ahola and Allen (1982) are likely to be separate from those behind visitation behaviour at a museum or other cultural-experiential venue.

Sparks and Shepherd (1992) have linked the construct of self-identity and the sense of belonging to having an influence on behaviour, and Biddle et al. (1985) posit identity as being central to conduct. Biddle et al. (1987) contend that a person's self-identity is conceptually distinct from his or her evaluative attitude in predicting behaviour when the behaviour is non-utilitarian. Thus, whether regarding a non-utilitarian or utilitarian purchase situation, identity is postulated to be a construct in motivating behaviour.

Biddle et al. (1987) have identified three principal streams of thought behind behavioural research; norms or personal standards, preference or attitude, and self-referent identity labelling or concept of self being the three different drivers influencing behaviour. Importantly, they identify that their effects are not overlapping, thus being distinct from each other and, in all likelihood, complementary in predicting behaviour.

Kelly (1985) has linked the experience of art-related attendance to the construction of a self-identity and belonging, which can have significant influence on behaviour (Sparks & Shepherd, 1992), and be central to conduct (Biddle et al., 1985). Conversely, as identified above, a person's self-identity can be conceptually distinct from his or her evaluative attitude in the prediction of behaviour (a non-utilitarian act) (Biddle et al., 1987). Thus, self-identity can lead to behaviour independent of attitude.

Therefore, there is support for linking identity as a distinct construct to behavioural motivation. This requires a broader understanding of identity, a departure from the discussion has not yet been bound to the realm of a cultural experience and instead is a more generic one. This has been a long-researched construct that has been examined from various perspectives, thus offering no standard definition. Bruner and Kalmar (1998) identified that the self as possessing the characteristics of both inner as well as outer, public and private, innate as well as acquired, and evolved as well as shaped by cultural narratives. Thus, self-identity itself, while being dubbed 'the self' appears to possess two distinct faces, one that is seen by self – one borne out of self-reflection, while the other presented outwards to the society – borne out of a need for self-presentation. If for clarity's sake we are to dub the former as 'self' and the latter as 'social identity' in line with this definition, then they are mutually coexisting constructs, though separate. Falk (2006) dubs identity as 'a placeholder for social and psychological processes revolving around self-definition or self-interpretation.' This further confirms the coexistence of both, psychological processes leading to the formation of self, and social processes leading to the formation of a social identity. A discussion of one cannot ignore the presence of the other.

Bronfenbrenner (1979); Abratt and Kleyn (2012) also state that identity is shaped as a result of the confluence of internal and external social forces. The inseparability of the two is further highlighted by Falk, Heimlich, and Bronnenkant (2008), who stress that identities are malleable and continually constructed, that they are situated in the physical and socio-cultural world, and that each of us maintains numerous identities. Falk et al. (2008) propose that there are great and enduring identities that are innate – which we refer here as the self-identity. The authors refer to the identities that respond to the needs and realities of specific moments and situations as little 'I' identities, or situated identities. This latter set is triggered as responses to social situations, and following our discussion henceforth, learned through individual's family, culture etc. – can be denoted as social identity, equating situated and social identity as namesakes.

Falk (2006) has also discussed the linkage between identity and motivation. In his study, motivation and consequent visitation (manifest behaviour) were defined in the context of visits to museums. However, he underscored that motivation was a product of complex psychological and social constructs, including prior knowledge and experience (social learning), perceived social relationships and expectations, the social and cultural meanings of the institutions in question, as well as personal interests and sense of identity. These last constructs collate to self-identity, as we have introduced before, and the previous constructs constitute the social dimension of identity. Thus, we argue the two constructs self and social identity will lend themselves to influencing visitation or participation motivation in a non-utilitarian scenario (as in the case of a cultural or experiential event).

To extend this premise, in a utilitarian or transaction dominated scenario such as consumer purchase, the two constructs self and social identity will lend themselves to influencing 'user/customer engagement,' the counterpart to individual behaviour regards to experiential consumption. The latter supposition denotes that self and social identities no longer remain constructs solely within experiential or non-transactional realms, but can be considered as possible antecedents of participant engagement in transactions – where the self and social identity will converge for each of the individual parties involved. However, in this transactional realm, at least one party engages as part of a larger whole, the corporate – a congregation of the individuals taking part in the transaction on its behalf. This would imply that this congregation or collective resulting in the corporate identity will show a reflection of the social and self-identity characteristics of its cogs. A more in-depth examination of this premise is, however, beyond the scope of this paper.

Attitude and Behavioural Intentions

Attitude is described as a person's continuing or long-lasting cognitive evaluation, which could be favourable or unfavourable, and action tendencies toward some object or event (Ajzen, 1991; Decrop, Pizam, & Mansfeld, 2000). Theoretically, attitude consists of three components: cognitive, affective and conative or behavioural component. The cognitive component related to evaluation that form an attitude, the affective component is psychological responses explaining the preferences, and the conative or behavioural component is the indication of future intention. Over the period of time attitudes were formed and stay consistent (Schiffman & Kanuk, 2004). In the past, research attitude was identified as a basis of motivation and predicting behaviour (Gnoth, 1997).

Behavioural intentions indicate desirable behaviours that visitors expect they will perform in the future. Many studies conducted in the tourism research area have identified several antecedents of behavioural intention, e.g. (Lam & Hsu, 2004, 2006; So Yon Lee, Petrick, & Crompton, 2007; Yuan & Jang, 2008). In the previous research, behavioural intention was measured considering several dimensions: positive word of mouth, recommendation to others, repurchase intention, willingness to pay more (Cronin & Taylor, 1992; Zeithaml, Berry, & Parasuraman, 1996).

According to the theory of planned behaviour (Ajzen, 1991), a person's behaviour is influenced by his/her behavioural intention and behavioural intention is determined by his/her attitude, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control. In this model, motivation is incorporated to behavioural intention since behavioural intention is explained by the efforts and actions the individual will take to perform a particular behaviour. Intention to perform a particular act will not occur until an individual is sufficiently motivated and has the desire to perform said particular action (Bagozzi, 1992). Together with the theory of planned behaviour, several studies also have tested relations between attitude and behavioural intention in various research areas. According to Baker and Crompton (2000), in order to understand visitors' future behavioural intention, it is necessary to include measures of their attitude.

The different factors influencing the choice of behaviour have also been studied in both the Theory of Reasoned Action and the Theory of Planned Behaviour, according to which there are reasons behind the choices made. The theory of planned behaviour (TPB) was derived from the theory of reasoned action developed by Ajzen and Fishbein (1975, 1977) to investigate the different factors behind behavioural choices. The model posits that behaviour is anteceded by the three kinds of consideration: behavioural beliefs, normative beliefs and control beliefs. Likely behavioural outcomes and the evaluation of such outcomes are defined as behavioural beliefs that produce a favourable or unfavourable attitude toward the behaviour. Normative belief is defined as a belief about the normative expectations and motivation to obey; with these expectations producing the perceived social pressure or subjective norms as a result. Control belief is defined as the presence of factors that may facilitate or obstruct the performance of the behaviour and the perceived control of these factors, which give rise to perceived behavioural control. The formation of a behavioural intention is influenced by attitudes towards behaviour, subjective norms, and the perception of behavioural control.

In the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA), Ajzen and Fishbein (1977)'s assumption was the people engage in rational behaviour and weigh the consequences of any action they might take or choice they make. In the TRA model, behaviour is anteceded by intention to perform the behaviour. Such intention again is pointed out to be a result of two components, which are the subjective norms and attitudes towards a certain behaviour. The model predicts that attitude will be determined by salient beliefs held by the subject regarding whether the performance of the behaviour will result in a desired or given outcome. A subjective norm is defined as a normative belief arising out of subject's referents' advice. It also includes the subject's motivation or the degree of willingness to consider such advice as a moderating variable.

Research Model, Conceptualisation, and Proposed Hypotheses for Further Research

Following the previous literature discussions, the present study proposes a conceptual model to be tested in a literary museum context in which the proposition is that self-identity and social identity respectively influence visitors' reflective and recreational motivation formation. Both reflective and recreational motivation directly affect visitors' attitude, and attitude influences their behavioural intention. In this research context, behavioural intentions will be measured through positive word of mouth, recommendation to others, and intention to revisit.

The proposed hypotheses for further study as a next step in the research are posited as follows:

1. Self-identity has a direct relationship with reflective motivation formation.
2. Social identity has a direct relationship with recreational motivation formation.
3. Reflective motivation influences attitude towards the literary museum visit.
4. Recreational motivation influences attitude towards the literary museum visit.
5. Attitude influences visitors' pre- and post-visit behavioural intentions.

The hypotheses are illustrated in the following relational diagram.

Research Direction, Methodological Notes for Empirical Research, and Expected Contribution

This article and its proposed model intends to be delimited to cultural experiential tourism, and author museums in particular, as the application area. The reasoning is twofold. Authors are more easily reachable and relatable; paintings are not (at least not to the researcher, indubitably a personal shortfall). Furthermore, it is hazarded that the tendency to support arts for the sake of the arts alone is perhaps more prominent in the fields of painting or performance arts or such, in comparison to writing. With an author, whether successful by common measures or through the eyes of time, his or her relationship with the reader would almost in all cases be an introverted one, aiding a personal quest, in turn falling more in the realm of the proposed constructs of self-identity and ensuing reflective motivation. An exhibition at a gallery is no such affair. As such, it is viewed that the more pronounced effect of self-identity on visitation, if there be one, will be ascertainable at author museums compared to art galleries, for example.

It is our view that any ensuing empirical research to ascertain the veracity of constructs and their relationships in the proposed IMB model (Figure 1) should employ a mixed method approach, and should include

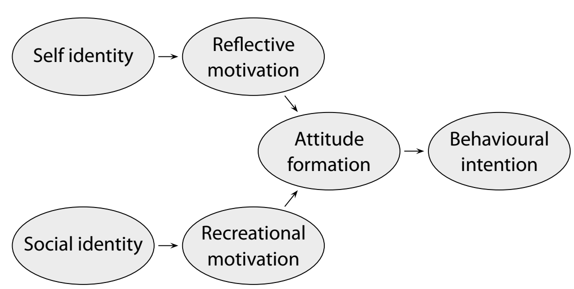

Figure 1 Proposed Identity-Motivation-Behavior (IMB) Model

Table 1 Conceptualisations of the Variables in Research Model

Variables	Operationalisation and Measurement criteria	References
Self-identity	Self-definition, self-interpretation. Interpreted as a distinct concept from a person's evaluative attitude, aspiration towards integrity of the self, self-actualising quest for retaining a consistent thread in one's life, by which one interprets and perhaps anchors the 'self.' Viewed as leading to Reflective motivation. Typified by an initial three types of identity-based visitors: explorers, expert/pilgrims, spiritual travellers.	Falk et al. (2008), Falk (1998, 2006), Biddle et al. (1987), Sparks and Shepherd (1992)
Social identity	The omnivore cultural consumer with which stratification is done based upon a broad range of cultural consumption, rather than only the popular culture. Typified by an initial two types of identity-based visitors: facilitators, experience seekers.	Falk (2006), Falk et al. (2008), Taheri et al. (2014), Chan and Goldthorpe (2005)
Reflective motivation	Individual's self and identity related drive Reflective Motivation will be measured according to visitors' self-actualisation, self-image, self-expression.	Falk et al. (2008), Goulding (2000), Slater & Armstrong (2010), Taheri et al. (2014)
Recreational motivation	Individual's enjoyment based enrichment. Recreational motivation will be measured according to visitors' Self-enjoyment, Satisfaction and Recreation.	Falk et al. (2008), Packer (2006), Taheri et al. (2014)
Attitude	A learned predisposition to respond in a consistently favourable or unfavourable manner with respect to a given object (Ajzen & Fishbein, 1975, 1977). Psychological tendencies expressed by the positive or negative evaluations of visitors.	Lam and Hsu (2006), Song, You, Reisinger, Lee, and Lee (2014)
Behavioural intention	Desirable behaviours that visitors expect they will perform in the future. Behavioural intentions will be measured through positive word of mouth, recommendation to others and revisits to festival.	Zeithaml et al. (1996)

the parsing of visitor reviews left at and about the museums, as well as primary data collected using surveys. Two primary sources can be used for the qualitative elements of the data collection: (a) the visitor books maintained at the museums and centres, which hold considerable amounts of remarks left; and (b) remarks and observations left on social media by visitors, specifically on sites such as tripadvisor.com. A content analysis of the reviews and observations using NVIVO can help identify and categorise factors into nodes, which should be analysed to find their alignment with proscribed factors. This can further the help development of an item scale for subsequent measurement and validation of the constructs and the hypothesised relationships.

Several hypotheses have been proposed in this paper to test a research model in the context of visitors' museum visits. A quantitative research approach is deemed appropriate to test the research model and the proposed hypotheses. The constructs identified in the research model will be measured with multiple scale items In line with previous research and following results obtained from the qualitative study as mentioned above. A survey will be developed, and data will be collected from author museums in Norway.

The proposed conceptual model is to be tested in the literary museum context to determine the visitors' behavioural intention in a follow up empirical study. This may create the opportunity for further research in a cultural and experiential context. Based on the motivation attitude behaviour model, the present study incorporated the constructs of self and social identity as determinants of motivation and attitude formation, contributing to the extant literature by establishing a relationship between identity and motivation and attitude formation. Furthermore, the present study considers reflective and recreational motivation as two dimensions to measure motivation in the literary museum context, which has not been sufficiently explored in previous research in a cultural and experiential tourism context.

It is important for the museum authorities to understand the visitors' experience related to museum visits and their motivation and behavioural intentions. The conceptualisation and expected results from an empirical study will help them understand who is visiting their museum, what their needs and motives are, and their experience regarding the museum visit. Understanding those phenomenon will help museum authorities to segment their market without compromising the democratisation principle as espoused by Šola (1992), which is necessary in order to not remain static. It may help them understand how better to satisfy different types of visitors following their motivational and identity related needs and what makes them spread positive word of mouth and their revisit intention.

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Original Scientific Article

Types of Entrepreneurs in Small Hotels in Slovenia

Saša Zupan Korže
Vanadis d.o.o., Slovenia
sasa.zupan@vanadis.si

Sonja Sibila Lebe
University of Maribor, Faculty of Economics and Business, Slovenia
sonjasibila.lebe@guest.arnes.si

Entrepreneurship is associated mostly with establishing of new ventures, mainly of small and medium size companies (SMES). It is linked closely with the entrepreneur: The key person who plays the key role in the entrepreneurial process. In theory, different criteria have been used in the past to identify the typology of entrepreneurs, e.g. the period of entrepreneurial activity, their economic or non-economic goals, etc. (Dunkelberg, Moore, Scott, & Stull, 2013; Dincer, Yildirim & Dil, 2011; Hisrich, Peters, & Shepherd, 2010; Glas, 2002; Smith & Miner, 1983). The main purpose of this paper is (a) To the identify typology of entrepreneurs in Small Hotels (SH) in Slovenia and (b) To compare the results with findings of similar studies in existing literature (Page & Connell, 2014; Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009). Empirical research was conducted in Slovenia in 2014 and 2015. The data were collected from SH entrepreneurs and SH Directors (a) By conducting 62 semi-structured interviews and (b) By analysing 44 questionnaires filled in by SH entrepreneurs. We analysed data from interviews using qualitative methods (interpretation, comparison, grouping, quantification). The numerical data were processed and analysed by using multiple statistical tools (factor analysis, hierarchical classification, Ward's method). SH entrepreneurs in Slovenia share certain typology characteristics with their colleagues in the hospitality business abroad; however, there are less lifestyle entrepreneurs in the Slovene hospitality business than expected (due to comparison with findings in existing literature). This is the first research of entrepreneurial typology in the hospitality business in Slovenia. It offers a clear insight into certain business orientations of hospitality entrepreneurs and, consequently, gives some explanation about tourism entrepreneurship in Slovenia.

Keywords: entrepreneurship in hospitality, TSMES (tourism small and medium enterprises), small hotels, entrepreneurs
https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10.129-140

Introduction

Entrepreneurship in the Hospitality Sector

In academic literature, political documents, and in media, there are different opinions and several definitions of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurs. The reason is the multidisciplinary nature of both phenomena (Ateljević & Li, 2009; Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009). Rebernik (2008, p. 30) relates this problem to the 'slippery nature' of both terms. Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, for example, considers entrepreneurship as 'any attempt at new business or new venture creation, such as self-employment, a new business organisation, or the expansion of an existing business, by an individual, a team of individuals, or an established business' (Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2015, p. 9).

The majority of other researchers focused on some of this phenomenon's features: They tackle starting and managing certain business activities (operations), certain resources/capital, or business uncertainty and risks (Cerović, 2010). The basis of entrepreneurship lies in: Dynamics, quest for success, uncertainty, adventure, fearlessness, motivation, ethics, and determination. All these characteristics are related to the person who participates in these activities – to the entrepreneur.

In business science, entrepreneurs and entrepreneurship are often connected to the creation of new ventures, mainly SMES. Entrepreneurial activity creates business ventures and is actualised through them (Cerović, 2010); business ventures are, therefore, understood as a tool for the fulfilment of entrepreneurs' visions and goals.

Historically, tourism depends on individuals who found business opportunities in accommodation, food services and tourism, and who transformed their ideas into businesses (Cerović, 2010). Successful businesses in the accommodation and food services sectors have always depended largely on entrepreneurs and their visions, their entrepreneurial capacity and their ability to find and to pursue business opportunities (Page & Connell, 2014). They target the segment of guests which cannot be satisfied with the services offered by mass tourism (Lebe & Milfelner, 2006).

Entrepreneurship in Small and Medium sized Enterprises in tourism and hospitality (TSME) gained in importance only in the last decade of the previous century (Page & Connell, 2014). There are two reasons for that. First, due to the increased general attention regarding entrepreneurship, and second, due to the increased number of TSMES belonging to the sector of hospitality and tourism. The increase in the number of TSMES is due to (a) Relatively low entrance cost into the activity, (b) Pursuing opportunities for setting up lifestyle businesses and (c) The attractive nature of these service processes (Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009).

Some authors believe that individuals have abilities and a free will to decide about their entrepreneurial career (Getz, Carlsen, & Morrison, 2004; Kuratko & Hodgetts, 1998). Their decisions are influenced by a set of complex and multidimensional circumstances, which stem from contemporary individuals, society and economy. These circumstances influence the entrepreneurial behaviour cues (Getz et al., 2004). Entrepreneurship should, thus, be considered by taking into account personal elements of individuals and the social environment in which they operate (Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009). In the USA, for example, entrepreneurs have the status of 'modern heroes.' In Europe, however, where security, stability and orderly relationships are valued higher than in the USA, it is difficult to succeed in entrepreneurial activities (Glas, 2000).

Morrison (2001) and Getz et al. (2004) see the decision for an entrepreneurial career as a consequence of the individual's personal characteristics, his/her environment, his/her personal goals, of the business environment, and of the existence of a viable business idea. The authors advocate that entrepreneurs do not appear out of nowhere: The entrepreneurial process is born from appropriate social and economic systems that offer a friendly environment to the future entrepreneurs.

The theory describes several types of entrepreneurs – yet they can be clustered into one of the following main five groups: (a) Entrepreneurs motivated by necessity or opportunity (Minarcine & Shaw, 2016; Global Entrepreneurship Monitor, 2015; Rebernik et al., 2015; Amit & Muller, 2013; Hisrich et al., 2010), (b) Owner-managers or owner-supervisors (Velu & Jacob, 2016; Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009; Peltier, Schibrowsky, & Zhao, 2009); (c) Nascent or established/experienced entrepreneurs (Emami & Dimov, 2017; Cerović, 2010; Baron & Ansley, 2006; Rebernik, Tominc, Glas, & Pšeničny, 2004; Antončič, Hisrich, Petrin, & Vahčič, 2002); (d) Family or non-family type (Randolf, Li, & Daspit, 2017; Randerson, Bettinelli, Fayolle, & Anderson, 2015; Getz & Nilsson, 2004; Medlik & Ingram 2000); (e) Business-oriented or lifestyle entrepreneur (Sun & Xu, 2017; Bredvold & Skalen, 2016; Presenza, Yucele, & Camillo; 2015; Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009).

The research question in this paper was to explore which types of entrepreneurs prevail in SHS in Slovenia.

Types of Entrepreneurs

We can group entrepreneurs into different types according to the fact whether they have become entrepreneurs because they were forced to do it – in this case we speak about 'push factors' and entrepreneurs 'motivated by necessity' – or persons who wished to become entrepreneurs; here, we can talk about 'pull factors' and about entrepreneurs 'motivated by opportunity' (Rebernik et al., 2015; Amit & Muller, 2013; Antončič et al., 2002). Push factors triggered by necessity/need might be, for example, unacceptable circumstances of the person's present job, or even job loss etc., whereas pull factors as opportunities represent certain advantages, e.g. work from home, being one's own boss, attaining an attractive lifestyle etc. (Minarcine & Shaw, 2016; Hisrich et al., 2010; Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009). The European Union's research on entrepreneurship ('Entrepreneurship in the EU and beyond,' 2010) showed that 55% of respondents entered the entrepreneurship due to an opportunity, and only 28% out of necessity. In the USA and Switzerland, the share of entrepreneurs because of opportunity exceeds 60%. In China and Japan, one half of individuals become entrepreneurs out of necessity. *In Slovenia, entrepreneurship triggered by an opportunity had a higher share in the past,* yet the share of entrepreneurs from necessity has been increasing since 2012 (Rebernik et al., 2015).

Once they have become entrepreneurs, most people get a new life experience, which is often associated with their desire to control their own work activity, as well as its scope (Page & Connell, 2014). It is, thus, up to the entrepreneur to decide which duties to take over. The decision is influenced by the nature of the activity, the scope of business activities and the entrepreneur's own preferences. They might decide to take:

- Only the ownership function, in which they supervise the enterprise;
- The ownership and the management functions – in this way, they supervise and manage the company completely;
- The ownership and the management functions and, additionally. the role of implementer.

According to the above-mentioned criteria, we differentiate between the *entrepreneur 'owner'* and the *entrepreneur 'owner-manager.'* If entrepreneurs own the company, they ensure and combine financial and other resources in order to accomplish their business opportunity; if they are managers at the same time, they also manage the company. Most frequently, we speak about the administrative-managerial function – 'owner-manager' (Velu & Jacob, 2016; Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009). In some types of entrepreneurship – if the entrepreneur is the owner and, at the same time, the only employee – the entrepreneurs try to act as independently as possible. On the company level, they carry out all three functions: They are supervisors, managers, and take care of the implementation at the same time.

Entrepreneurship is not a profession that could be simply learned. It is a mix of an individual's competencies based on their personality traits (which are, to some extent, innate) and different skills. The ability to become an entrepreneur thus represents a combination of natural gifts, personality traits, as well as the result of learning and experience (Cerović, 2010). In other words, entrepreneurs should possess not only talent, but also knowledge and different skills in order to be capable of leading their companies successfully (Antončič et al., 2002). Thus, some authors differentiate between *nascent entrepreneurs* and *established/experienced ones* by translating the length of business activities into entrepreneurs' characteristics (Emami & Dimov, 2017; Cerović, 2010; Baron & Ansley, 2006). During the nascent phase, entrepreneurs are described as having plenty of ideas and a lot of energy; they are fast in making decisions, and ready to take considerable risks in order to realise their entrepreneurial ideas. During the next phases of business operations, they replace their hasty decisions and their willingness to take risks with more thoughtful decisions, and adopt a much more conservative attitude towards taking risks. Established entrepreneurs are, thus, more realistic in assessing conditions, and more cautious in making decisions than new/nascent entrepreneurs. The latter acquire entrepreneurial skills and the environment gradually, which makes their expectations lower and 'bring them back to earth' (Rebernik et al., 2004).

Even business conditions (e.g. volume of the loan, market share, reputation etc.), vary significantly between TSMES where entrepreneurs have just started the business from those that are present on the tourism market already for more years. In the first case, business conditions are much tougher than in already established businesses that have acquired certain competencies through the 'learning by doing' principle. Furthermore, the entrepreneurs' enthusiasm towards work changes over the years.

For a successful business venture, it is important that the entrepreneur knows the industry in which his/her business idea will be realised (Tajnikar, 1997). In addition, they should be familiar with product/service processes, the market and other success factors (Glas, 2002). A large number of entrepreneurs start their business ventures in the field in which they have already operated; often they have noticed a market niche and decided to explore it as a business opportunity (Barringer & Ireland, 2012). However, only a modest number of entrepreneurs entering the hospitality industry have previous experience in hospitality (e.g. as Hotel Managers or other leadership and/or work experiences in the hospitality sector). In their small companies' research in New Zealand, Hall and Rusher (2004) found out that two-thirds of entrepreneurs in hospitality lacked any entrepreneurial experience before entering the hospitality industry, with only one fourth of them having had previous experience in tourism. It is well-known that setting up businesses in the area of hospitality often lacks previous thorough thinking about the key participating actors.

There are different types of entrepreneurs according to their economic goals. The basic characteristic of *business-oriented entrepreneurs* is that they are mainly profit motivated. They belong to the group of classical entrepreneurs, who prevail in the majority of industries. The engine of their entrepreneurial activity is profit acquired through capital gains, successful economic entrepreneurial activity and company growth. On the other hand, *lifestyle entrepreneurs* belong to the group of entrepreneurs for whom non-economic motives prevail over economic ones (Bredvold & Skalen, 2016; Presenza et al. 2015; Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009; Getz & Nilsson, 2004; Glas, 2002). More than in benefits visible as economic earnings and company growth, they are interested in other personal benefits achieved by being entrepreneurs. Their business venture is focused on satisfying primarily personal, and only secondary financial goals (Bredvold & Skalen, 2016; Presenza et al., 2015; Clarke and Chen, 2007). The *majority of entrepreneurs in accommodation and food service activities that manage bars, restaurants, small tourist accommodations, etc. belong to this group.* Being lifestyle entrepreneurs, they often 'use their business activities for financing their own lifestyle' (Rebernik et al., 2004, p. 20).

Existing studies show that entrepreneurs in TSMES possess a complex combination of motives and desires that pull them into the activity (Shaw & Williams, 2004). Hospitality activities are suitable for individuals who seek business opportunities in which they *can unite personal and professional life in a way they find appropriate* (Getz et al., 2004). This kind of people have a strong aspiration to become owners of hotels, because they believe they might enjoy the life of a hotel owner or get more control over their lives (Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009). The group of lifestyle entrepreneurs is, therefore, much larger in hospitality and tourism activities than in other industries. Getz et al. (2004) define lifestyle by values and expectations, which – connected with business activities – the owner-managers specify as 'important for themselves.' In this case, motivation and goals of entrepreneurs are not identical with classical criteria of predominantly financial/economic success of TSMES, like revenue, number of employees, growth, market share etc.

In their research of entrepreneurs in TSMES, Getz and Carlsen (2000) found out that the profitability of TSMES is not important to 70% of respondents, and that 62% of respondents do not consider company growth as an important goal. They see the motives for entering the hospitality sector predominantly in (Peters, Frehse, & Buhalis, 2009):

- Quality of life and their enthusiasm for the place where the activity is carried out (in vivid town centres, beautiful countryside);
- Hospitable nature of the business activity, and
- In agreeing with a moderate income.

The main feature of *family businesses* is a combination of ownership and managerial function in one person, or the distribution of these functions among the family members (Randolf et al., 2017; Randerson et al., 2015). The needs and tendencies of owners and their families are put in the forefront; the motives and goals of entrepreneurial activities thus differ considerably from *non-family type* of entrepreneurship. Family entrepreneurship is related closely with the thinking scheme: Family first, business second (Medlik & Ingram, 2000). In family businesses, family matters are integrated in all business activities of TSMES: From sharing responsibilities, or participation of children and grandparents in business activities, up to family inheritance etc. According to Getz et al. (2004), family businesses belong to enterprises which do not prioritise economic goals. The research of Getz and Nilsson (2004) showed that 90% of family businesses are not motivated by economic reasons. In countryside tourist accommodation (e.g. B&B, small hotels etc.), such types of entrepreneurship prevail.

Research Methodology (Design and Sample)

With regard to their key approaches to business operations, SH entrepreneurs do not differ a lot in their business practices from other entrepreneurs in TSMES. Thus, we transfer a large portion of findings that apply to entrepreneurs in TSMES to entrepreneurs in SHS. Special features, related to their business activities and competencies in the field of hotels, are derived from special features of the hotel business.

We conducted an empirical research in Slovene SH in 2014 and 2015. Data were collected as part of a comprehensive research on hotel entrepreneurship in the State. We investigated (a) What types of entrepreneurs characterise the SH business in Slovenia and (b) Whether there were significant differences in typology of entrepreneurs in Slovenia compared to entrepreneurs in TSMES' available literature.

Data from SH entrepreneurs were collected using the method of semi-structured in-depth interviews and, additionally, by a questionnaire, whereas the data from SH Directors were collected by interviews only. For our research purpose, we determined an SH as being a privately owned (entrepreneurial) small tourist accommodation (at least 10 and not more than 50 rooms/units for rental) that offers hotel services. We identified 125 SHS in Slovenia, and subsequently 125 SH entrepreneurs.

The measuring instrument for the semi-structured in-depth interviews with SH entrepreneurs and SH Directors was a questionnaire, which consisted of these five questions:

1. What inspired you to start a hotel business?
2. What previous experience did you have in hospitality, hotel business, tourism or entrepreneurship/management?
3. (How) are you involved in the hotel business activities and in the everyday hotel tasks?
4. When did you start the SH business?
5. (How) are your family members involved into the hotel business?

By setting these questions, we intended to discover (1) The typology of SH entrepreneurs' motivation to start their business (whether they were SH entrepreneurs motivated by necessity or by opportunity); (2) The role of hotel owners in hotel management (SH entrepreneurs as owner-managers or owner-supervisors); (3) The interviewees' experience as hotel entrepreneurs (new/nascent or experienced SH entrepreneurs); (4) The typology of hotel entrepreneurs according to their business goals (business-oriented or lifestyle SH entrepreneurs), and (5) The role of entrepreneur's family in hotel operations (whether we talk to a family or to a non-family SH entrepreneur). The results regarding the five indicated categories are described later on in the text.

The participants in this research were interviewed in their own setting by one of the authors. After the interview was completed, all SH entrepreneurs (yet not the SH directors) were asked to fill-in a short questionnaire – our aim was to determine the type of SH entrepreneur with regard to their business orientation: Whether they were (a) Business-oriented or (b) Lifestyle entrepreneurs (through SH entrepreneur's goals related to their SH). Based on previous research in the hospitality industry, we put down ten statements. Five were related to economic goals, which are characteristic for economic/business oriented en-

Table 1 Gender, Age and Level of Education of Interviewees

Category	Subcategory	SH entrepreneurs		SH directors	
		f	*f*%	*f*	*f*%
Gender	Male	29	58.0	3	25.5
	Female	21	42.0	9	74.5
Age	Less than 30 years	5	10.0	0	0.0
	30–39	15	30.0	9	75.0
	40–49	22	44.0	2	16.7
	50–59	6	12.0	1	8.3
	More than 60 years	2	4.0	0	0.00
Level of education	Secondary	21	42.0	4	33.3
	College	9	18.0	3	25.0
	University (Applied Sc.)	19	38.0	5	41.7
	MA/PhD	1	2.0	0	00.0

Notes Note: *f* – frequency ($n = 62$), *f*% – percentage.

trepreneurs, and five were related to non-economic goals, thus, characteristic for lifestyle entrepreneurs. The respondents expressed their opinions on a scale from one (not important at all) to five (of key importance).

We interviewed in total 62 SH entrepreneurs and SH directors (49.6% response rate). Qualitative data collected during the interviews were analysed through interpretation, by defining patterns, by comparing selected features, and by indicating differences between responses; some data were quantified. While analysing the data, we took into account the theoretical perspectives of the studied phenomena, which had been presented in the findings of existing studies on entrepreneurship in general, as well as on entrepreneurship in the hospitality sector. We collected 44 questionnaires (35.2% response rate). The numerical data from questionnaires was processed by using multiple statistical methods: Factor analysis, hierarchical classification into groups by defining the Euclidean distance, and by Ward's method of hierarchical cluster analysis.

Sample Description

We interviewed 50 SH entrepreneurs and 12 SH managers. The structure of interviewees *by gender* is fairly uniform: 32 males and 30 females. The findings in existing literature show that successful entrepreneurs are around 40 years old (Tajnikar, 1997). Our interviewees were between 30–49 years old: SH entrepreneurs were 40–49 years old (44%), whereas the SH Directors were, on average, ten years younger. More than half of the SH entrepreneurs and SH Directors had a college level of education or higher (Table 1).

Small Hotel Entrepreneurs in Slovenia

Results of the Field Research

SH Entrepreneurs out of Necessity or out of Opportunity

The division of entrepreneurs into the two mentioned groups is the most frequently used typology, often used in broad studies on entrepreneurship (e.g. the worldwide Global Entrepreneurship Monitor study). In Slovenia, entrepreneurs motivated by opportunity prevailed until 2011; from 2012 on, their share has been decreasing (Rebernik et al., 2015). According to the mentioned Global Entrepreneurship Monitor study, the share of entrepreneurs out of necessity amounted to 53% in Slovenia. In our sample, only three SH entrepreneurs started their SH business out of necessity (they were unemployed). Others entered their hotel business out of opportunity (Table 2).

SH Entrepreneurs as Owner-Managers or Owner-Supervisors

According to the international research of hospitality entrepreneurship, a typical representative of hos-

Table 2 SH Entrepreneurs Motivated by Necessity or by Opportunity

Category	*f*	*f*%
Opportunity	3	4.8
Necessity	59	95.2

Notes *f* – frequency (*n* = 62), *f*% – percentage.

Table 3 Share of SH Entrepreneurs as Owner-Managers or Owner-Supervisors

Category	*f*	*f*%
Owner-manager	41	66.1
Owner-supervisor	21	33.9

Notes *f* – frequency (*n* = 62), *f*% – percentage.

Table 4 Family Typology of SHS

Category	*f*	*f*%
Yes	44	71.0
No	18	29.0

Notes *f* – frequency (*n* = 62), *f*% – percentage.

Table 5 Number of Years of SH Entrepreneurs in SHS

Category	*f*	*f*%
Less than two years	13	20.1
2–5 years	11	17.7
6–10 years	25	40.3
11–20 years	9	14.5
More than 20 years	4	6.4

Notes *f* – frequency (*n* = 62), *f*% – percentage.

pitality entrepreneurs is an owner-manager (Getz et al., 2004; Lee-Ross & Lashley, 2009); this is a person who owns/establishes a TSME and who manages it. The sample of Slovene SH entrepreneurs consisted of two-thirds of owner-managers (Table 3). They manage their SH directly, work in it, and form an important part of its internal environment. They often manage the hotel together with family members, especially if the SH is a family business. One-third of SH entrepreneurs in the sample were owner-supervisors; they direct the hotel business from outside. The operational work is carried out by a hired SH Director. The majority of these SH entrepreneurs do not run only the hotel included into our research – they usually run other business(es) as well.

Family or Non-Family SH Entrepreneurs

According to the ownership structure, all SH in the cluster of TSMES belong into the category of family businesses. The family typology of SH entrepreneurs was, therefore, determined according to the interviewee's opinion, whether they considered their SH to be a family business or not.

Family businesses are a frequent internal organisation practice in TSMES (Getz et al., 2004). Among the participants in our sample, 71% considered their SH to be a family business. In most cases (except in four SH), the premises were owner-managed (Table 4). Family businesses make up more than 60% of all companies in Europe (European Commission, n.d.). In the Slovene Hotel sector, as well as abroad, a strong correlation exists between the family typology of hotel entrepreneurship and the extent to which an entrepreneur participates in managerial and other hotel activities. Four SH entrepreneurs, who do not consider their SH a family business, believe that their involvement in SH is something they simply 'do as business as usual,' thus as a job that enables them 'to make a living.' Those four interviewees were not 'emotionally attached' to the SH.

New/Nascent or Experienced SH Entrepreneurs

We grouped the SH entrepreneurs into one of the two indicated clusters with regard to the duration of business activities in their SH. We could determine only 20% of SH entrepreneurs as being pure 'nascents' (having two years or less experience as SH entrepreneurs). All other SH entrepreneurs have already had certain business experience, slightly over 20% even more than ten years (Table 5).

This information indicates the entrepreneurs' attitude toward work, enthusiasm, their competence of being an SH entrepreneur, and the success of their businesses. The difference in business enthusiasm and in the approach how to run their businesses was detected in interviewed SH entrepreneurs: Nascent SH entrepreneurs were keen at having an SH and proud of their success. Despite the relatively unfavourable

Table 6 Areas of Previous Experience of SH Entrepreneurs

Category	*f*	*f*%
In hotel or tourism accommodation	19	30.6
In F&B	14	22.6
In tourism	6	9.7
In entrepreneurship and/or management	23	37.1

Notes f – frequency (n = 62), f% – percentage.

economic conditions in which they established their SH, they remained optimistic, and believed that, with time, 'things would improve.' SH entrepreneurs with 'a longer mileage in SH' are realistic about their experience in SHS. Over the years, they were able to surmount the difficulties caused by wrong business decisions they met during the planning and the beginning phase of their SHS.

Still regarding the SH entrepreneurs' experiences, we examined what kind of experiences the SH entrepreneurs had.

We divided their experience into *professional experiences* and *entrepreneurial-managerial experiences.* We defined the professional one as being an experience in the hospitality sector and tourism related activities, e.g.: (a) A hotel or other tourist accommodation (rooms, apartments etc.), (b) F&B and (c) Tourism (organising excursions, gambling, events etc.).

More than 60% (39) of SH entrepreneurs in the sample started their entrepreneurial path in an SH with professional experience, half of them also with previous entrepreneurial experiences. Other SH entrepreneurs (23) started their SH as existing entrepreneurs or/and managers in different business fields: In the Construction sector (three), Real-estate (three), Electronics, Gambling, Metal production, Production of furniture, Metallurgy, Exhibition activities, Sports, Legal profession, Food Industry, etc. Three SH entrepreneurs opened their SHS with experience in financial management (Table 6).

We also found out that the majority of SH entrepreneurs with entrepreneurial-managerial experiences, also played the role of owner-supervisor or investor. Hotel activity has, thus, not been their only business activity.

Results of the Quantitative Research

Business Oriented or Lifestyle SH Entrepreneurs

These two types of entrepreneurs were established in accordance with entrepreneurial business orientation by employing hierarchical classification into groups with Euclidean distance, and by Ward's method of hierarchical cluster analysis. Likert type scales were used for testing continuous variables, and factor analysis was used to investigate the validity of measurement. We also calculated the Cronbach α to investigate the measurement reliability (whereas values > 0.60 are considered as indicators of sufficient reliability). Composite variables were calculated as the mean value of items measuring the same construct, and used in consecutive analysis.

Factor analysis was carried out using the method of main axis perpendicular to the rotation (high weights for a factor mean that statements correlate considerably with the factor, and that they measure the same construct). The number of factors was determined on the basis value of $\lambda > 1$. The suitability of the factor analysis for the data was verified by using the *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sample adequacy* (which should be higher than 0.50), and the *Bartlett test of sphericity* to test whether the correlation matrix was an identity matrix (when $p \leq 0.05$ it can be concluded that there is a correlation between measured variables).

We also proved the *validity and the reliability of the business-oriented SH entrepreneurs' measurement.*

We tested five statements – they are shown in Table 7 – in order to measure the SH entrepreneurs' business orientation (results are displayed in the middle column). The first statement (about making high profit) was excluded from further analysis due to its low weighting factor (< 0.3). After its exclusion, the KMO value shows that the data were adequate for the factor analysis. The reliability of the measurement was low, yet above the minimum threshold (0.6) (Table 7). A combined variable was created as an average of the four remaining statements.

Validity and Reliability of Measurement for Lifestyle Entrepreneurs

Lifestyle entrepreneurship was measured with five statements, and we found out that factor weights were

Table 7 Determining the Business-Oriented SH Entrepreneurs

Category	Subcategory	(1)	(2)
Data suitability for factor analysis	KMO	0.493	0.52
	Bartlett sphericity test	$\chi^2 = 42.6$ $df = 10$ $p \leq 0.001$	$\chi^2 = 37.2$ $df = 6$ $p \leq 0.001$
Statements (factor weights)	High profit creation from operations	0.2	
	Purchase of equity investment for a high profit when sold	0.8	0.8
	Taking the opportunity for investing capital assets	0.8	0.8
	Further growth (expansion) of the enterprise in hotel activity	0.5	0.4
	Synergy between hotel- and some other business activity	0.4	0.4
Validity and the reliability	Percentage of explained variance	32.6	39.9
	Cronbach α		0.7

Notes Column headings are as follows: (1) all statements, (2) limited number of statements.

Table 8 Determining the Lifestyle SH Entrepreneurs

Category	Subcategory	All statements
Data suitability for factor analysis	KMO	0.655
	Bartlett sphericity test	$\chi^2 = 18.58$, $df = 10$, $p = 0.046$
Statements (factor weights)	Pleasure with hotel work (job of 'my life')	0.5
	Moderate earnings (not to become rich)	0.6
	Creation/continuing family tradition	0.6
	Combining moderate work with quality personal life	0.4
	Improved status (position) in the environment/community	0.5
Validity and the reliability	Percentage of explained variance	24.6
	Cronbach α	0.6

medium high: None of the statements had a high weight. The share of explained variance of variables with a common factor lay slightly lower (24.6%). The reliability of the measurement was slightly above the minimum threshold (0.6) (Table 8).

A combined variable was created as an average of the five statements that reflect the extent to which an SH entrepreneur was a lifestyler.

We classified the answers with hierarchical classification in groups by using the Euclidean distance as a measure of similarity between units and Ward's method of clustering. Based on responses regarding the variables that measure either the lifestyle- or the business-orientated entrepreneurship, we identified two types of SH entrepreneurs: 17 lifestyle SH entrepreneurs and 27 business-oriented SH ntrepreneurs (Table 9).

Conclusions

Individuals that start the entrepreneurial process have to run their business in a certain social and economic system; they are challenged by their personal needs, wishes, motives, goals, experiences etc. In theory, most of these circumstances are considered to be suitable criteria for the classification of entrepreneurs (which type they belong to). Most commonly, we differentiate between the following types: Entrepreneurs motivated by necessity or opportunity; owner-managers or owner-supervisors; nascent or established/experienced entrepreneurs, and business-oriented or life-

Table 9 Description of SH Entrepreneurial Types in Accordance with Their Business Orientation

Category		(1)	(2)
(1) Lifestyle SH entrepreneurs	AM	4.1	2.6
	SD	0.7	0.8
	n	17	17
(2) Business-oriented SH entrepreneurs	AM	3.2	3.7
	SD	0.6	0.5
	n	27	27
Total	AM	3.5	3.3
	SD	0.7	0.8
	n	44	44

Notes AM – arithmetic mean, SD – standard deviation, *n* – number of responses.

style entrepreneurs. Which type is prevailing differs from country to country, as well as from industry to industry. It depends on the general perception of entrepreneurship in each country, on countries' economic circumstances, as well as on particularities of individual industries etc.

With our research, we could gain insight into the typology of entrepreneurs in small hospitality enterprises in Slovenia. We investigated the types of entrepreneurs that are characteristic for the SH business in Slovenia, and compared the findings with result of similar studies abroad (where such data were available).

The results of this study show (1) That SH entrepreneurs in Slovenia entered the hospitality business *predominantly looking for a prosperous business opportunity, not out of necessity.* The percentage of the first type of entrepreneurs is significantly higher than in other industries in Slovenia, but similar to the hospitality business abroad. (2) However, there are *less owner-managers in Slovenia's SH than in small hospitality businesses abroad.* One of the reasons could be the fact that many SH entrepreneurs in Slovenia are involved in other business areas too, and not only in hospitality (like their colleagues abroad). (3) *Less entrepreneurs in Slovenia consider their SH a family business than abroad,* where family businesses in the small hospitality area prevail strongly. This finding raises an interesting question: Is this the consequence of a still evolving family business scene in Slovenia, after this tradition was cut and persecuted by the communist regime after the second world war? The finding (4) was rather unexpected: Among SH entrepreneurs, we found a *high share of experienced business women/men,* which is not usually the case in other studies on hospitality entrepreneurs. Even more: Most of them have had previous professional experiences (in hotel or other tourist accommodation, or in the F&B sector, tourist agencies or similar), and the rest had at least previous managerial (if not both, managerial and entrepreneurial) experience. This finding was completely unlike the SH businesses abroad. However, our finding (5) showed that, in Slovenia, in accordance with common findings in existing studies, *less than half of individuals start their entrepreneurial path in the industry they used to work in.* Furthermore, the results of our research showed that SH entrepreneurs *in Slovenia are not lifestyle entrepreneurs to the extent that we expected;* their number was considerably lower than in similar studies conducted in the past.

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Original Scientific Article

Visitors' Preferences for Museum Interpretation: Identifying and Targeting Market Segments

Gorazd Sedmak
University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica, Slovenia
gorazd.sedmak@fts.upr.si

Aleksandra Brezovec
University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica, Slovenia
aleksandra.brezovec@fts.upr.si

A number of heritage studies have revealed that interpretation is an essential component of the visitor experience. However, visitors differ in their interests in interpretation. Preferences for interpretation, which are often neglected in the literature, are essential for the marketing and management of heritage organisations. This paper deals with visitors' preferences for museum interpretation to determine what the preferred types of interpretation of museums exhibits are and what the differences between the segments of visitors in this regard are. The research focuses on seven Adriatic heritage museums that took part in the cross-border project on the strengthening of cultural tourism through market-oriented initiatives. The survey set out to obtain information on visitor profiles and their preferences for museum interpretation. By isolating and analysing interpretation variables and visitor variables associated with visitor interpretation preferences, a framework was developed that enable the initiatives in museum interpretation for target market segments.

Keywords: interpretation, museum, visitors, segmentation, Adriatic.
https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10.141-150

Introduction

Modern museums have typically been multi-functional institutions, supposed to be authoritative holders and producers of knowledge, sources of 'the right' interpretation, and dominant narratives through place-based exhibitions (Keene, 2005). They collect, preserve and protect heritage and culture, and disseminate knowledge, however, increasingly there is a challenge in attracting visitors and satisfying their expectations (Packer & Ballantyne, 2002; Trinh & Ryan, 2013). All in all, they have to make their operation financially sustainable, which can be extremely difficult considering the diverse range of goals they should pursue (Blattberg & Broderick, 1991; McLean, 1997). Especially, after the 1970s, when declines in funding from the state budgets took place, museums were increasingly forced to partially finance themselves from fees and other earnings from the market (Goulding, 2000; Maier, 1999). Marketing scholars outline three strategies for effective museum marketing: improving museum experiences, improving community service and market repositioning toward entertainment (Kotler, Kotler, & Kotler, 2008). As 'classical' museums did not have adequate marketing personnel, and the curatorial staff was reluctant about 'mass marketing' (Blattberg & Broderick, 1991), a quite stressful search for a way to survive in new circumstances began.

Thyne (2001) justly claims that despite museums are usually not linked to concepts of profitability and competitiveness they still have to provide the best customer service. Therefore, they need to understand different segments of visitors regarding their demographic and psychographic traits. To gain an overview of museum use, a summary of the findings of museum visitor surveys have been made. Macdonald (2011, p. 368) reported 'the typical museum visitor' was in the upper education, occupation and income groups, usually looking for opportunities to learn, to experience something new, to do something worthwhile, to feel ease and comfort, and also to participate actively. According to Rounds (2004), only a minor part of visitors attend the exhibitions in a thorough manner. What they attempt to achieve is the maximisation of their 'Total Interest Value' of the museum visit by focusing on 'those exhibit elements with high interest value and low search costs.' The extremely fast development of new technologies further accelerated these processes. Virtual demonstrations and displays and other computer-based interpretations of culture and heritage have nowadays become almost indispensable parts of exhibitions (Rentschler & Hede, 2007; Staiff, 2014).

In last three decades, some other important changes on the market have occurred. A wide variety of new museums, theme houses, amusement and experiment houses emerged, that made the competition in the field much more severe and considerably changed expectations of museum visitors (Blattberg & Broderick, 1991; Kotler et al., 2008). They have become more 'market-driven' (McLean, 1997; Marstine, 2008), demanding and critical in respect to the contents, interpretation and the 'augmented product.' The new interpretative approach advocates an aesthetic experience and turns museums into 'creative spaces' for object-human communication (Dudley, 2010). Furthermore, 'visitors' motives have been moving away from museums idealized agendas' (Roppola, 2012, p. 47). Pleasure, curiosity, 'learning for fun' and 'being with friends and family' have generally become a more appropriate base for the conceptualization of exhibitions than 'serious pursuit for knowledge' (Thyne, 2001). In the early 1980s, Koran and Koran (1986, p. 12) claimed that 'a large percentage of visitors are there to "kill time," to be entertained, to satisfy curiosity, or to "people watch."'

Museum visitors, however, are not homogeneous and not all of them reacted the same way to the changes and adoption of the 'product.' Thus, distinctions between the segments and a differentiated approach have today become even more important than in the past. This is true for domestic visitors as well as for foreign tourists. While in the past, significant efforts had been placed on psychographic tourist classification (Cohen, 1979; Poon, 1998; Plog, 2001), this was not the case for domestic museum visitors. We believe, however, the findings from tourism can be easily transferred to the field of museums, as there is a strong connection between heritage and tourism. 'Heritage and tourism are collaborative industries, heritage converting locations into destinations and tourism making them economically viable,' claims Kirchenblatt-Gimblett (as quoted in Marstine, 2008, p. 12). Apostolakis (2003) further analysed the 'convergence between tourism and heritage' as a 'consumer-driven process,' where a central role in determining what museums offer in their exhibits, is given to audiences. With a consumer-driven approach, marketing operations in a heritage tourism context are directed towards repackaging the museum product to make it more appealing and accessible to the tourism market. However, tourists are a specific segment of museum visitors and should be treated differently than domestic visitors (Stylianou-Lambert, 2011).

Since the late 1970s, when Cohen (1979) proposed one of the first tourist psychographic typologies, it became clear tourists seek different experiences on their travels. Of course, the plural character of tourist experiences is also present among the cultural tourists (Dolnicar, 2002). Typically, differences can be found in the reasons for visiting heritage sites (Poria, Butler, & Airey, 2004), interests (Hughes, 2002), the degree of motivation for visiting exhibitions (Silberberg, 1995), the degree of emotional involvement due to connection with their own heritage (Poria, Reichel, & Biran, 2006), the depth of experience sought and the willingness for an active engagement (McKercher, 2002), the effectiveness of various media (Noor, Mostafa, Vithya, & Mastura, 2015), and the reception of heritage communication (Groote & Haartsen, 2016). Thus, from the marketing point of view, knowledge on and understanding of different segments seem to be a prerequisite for sensible marketing and, consequently, a satisfactory experience. Intuitively, this is true also for the museum visitors. In fact, Todd and Lawson (2001) determined that everyday life habits considerably influence museum visitors behaviour and expectations. As heritage interpretation 'is a social and cultural process' (Staiff, 2014, p. 3), it should be hypothesised and explained about everyday life.

Most previous museum visitor studies have focused on the behaviour, experiences, attitudes, and opinions of actual and potential visitors. Authors (e.g. Hooper-Greenhill, 1994; Chen, Chuan, & Ming, 2006; Falk, 2013; Groote & Haartsen, 2016) argue different museum visitors need different provisions – different types of exhibitions, different functions, different sizes and different approaches to interpretation. Interpretation is defined as a communication tool that is used to facilitate the way(s) visitors engage with museum exhibits (Wearing, Edinborough, Hodgson, & Frew, 2008). Different authors (e.g. Packer & Ballantyne 2002; Wearing et al. 2008; Trinh & Ryan 2013; Groote & Haartsen, 2016) pointed out the need for greater attention in the research on museum interpretation, which is of huge importance affecting the museum visitors' experience and satisfaction.

Many conceptual frameworks have been developed for effective museum interpretation. Tilden (1977), for example, focused on the role of the guide, Ham (1992) emphasised the content and style of interpretation, while Moscardo, Fesenmaier, Uysal, and Joseph (1999) focused on the role of visitors' personal factors. Silverman (1995) pointed out the visitor's active role in creating the meaning of a museum experience, influenced by leisure motivations, companions and self-identity. Dudley (2010) studied the way information had been fetishised in museum and heritage places. As suggested by Wearing et al. (2008), museums would need to take a much greater account of visitors' characteristics, and a more segmented approach to exploring interpretation experiences. In the age of experience economy, when interpretation engages individuals in a personal way, the overall value of visitor experience can be understood by the ratio of the experience satisfaction and the 'sacrifice' (time, effort), claims Bitgood and Dukes (2006, 2). As museum interpretation affects both variables, it is clear that the consolidated effect is very significant. The focus of the present study is thus on the preferences for museum interpretation among different segments of visitors.

Through quantitative analysis, the authors of this study aimed to determine what the preferred types of interpretation of chosen natural heritage museums exhibits are and what the differences between the segments of visitors in this regard are. Based on this information, a framework was developed that enables the optimisation of museum interpretation for target market segments.

Methodology

The data were obtained during the Museumcultour cross-border project through face-to-face survey research among visitors to seven Adriatic natural heritage museums in Italy, Slovenia and Croatia (all museums taking part in the project): Sea Museum in San Benedetto del Tronto, Italy ($n = 80$), Ecomuseum of Argenta in Ferrara, Italy ($n = 25$), Knowledge centre in Postojna, Slovenia ($n = 83$), Natura Museum in Ravenna, Italy ($n = 29$), Natural History Museum in Rijeka, Croatia ($n = 92$), The Wood and Deer Museum of Mesola in Ferrara, Italy ($n = 20$) and Comacchio museum, Italy ($n = 20$). All museum visitors present during the survey which were willing to participate were included in the survey. The final sample size was 349.

In addition to questions on interpretation and socio-demography, several questions on psychographic and behavioural characteristics, such company on the travel, the motive for visiting the museum, the main motive for the travel, previous visits to the museum, etc. were included in the questionnaire. Motivation seems to be an important factor influencing preferences regarding interpretation. Packer and Ballantyne (2002) claim motivational factors and the situational characteristics, such as personal goals, beliefs, opportunities for learning etc. do have an impact on the selective direction of behaviour. Therefore, they believe it is plausible that different interpretation is suitable for visitors with different motives. Poria et al. (2004) identified three main reasons for visiting heritage sites:

Table 1 Adequacy of Interpretation Type

Interpretation type	N	$\overline{x}$	σ
In-person guiding provided by tour guides – interpreters	308	4.10	0.98
Acted-out scenes	283	3.76	1.03
Those that require my active involvement	297	3.71	1.16
Computer-supported, technologically advanced shows/displays (3D, multivision, etc.)	305	3.63	1.08
Audio guides	278	3.37	1.16

'heritage experience,' 'learning experience,' and 'recreational experience.' The range of motives, however, seem to be even broader, ranging from nostalgia (Jewell & Crotts 2002), 'just to spend some time,' 'staying in good company' (Thyne, 2001) to 'accidental' visits (Silberberg, 1995). Falk (2013) proposed clustering all the various motivations of museum visitors into five identity-related categories: explorers, hobbyists, facilitators, experience seekers, and rechargers. These motivations are a direct reflection of how the public perceives the reasons for visiting the museum.

Because the museums taking part in the research exhibit natural heritage specifically, in the final stage, the questionnaire was discussed with the museums' management in order to select the motives and types of interpretation that are relevant for this type of museum. Thus, the 'fine-tuning' of the variables selection also considered their suggestions. Museum visitors were asked to grade from '1' (the less suitable) to '5' (the most suitable) different options of interpretation. A five-grade scale was also used for evaluation of agreement with the statements regarding the motivation, where '1' meant 'completely disagree' and '5' 'completely agree.' Descriptive statistics, correlations, regression models, F-tests and cluster analysis were employed for data processing.

Results

First, the adequacy of the type of interpretation for the whole sample was checked.

The option 'Other' was chosen by 21 interviewees, but only two specified what they had in mind ('use of sounds' and 'a lecture'). From Table 1, it is evident that live interpretation still holds the leading position, while audio guides are perceived as the least suitable. With the correlation analysis, few interesting interconnections were identified between the different forms of interpretation. Pearson's correlation coefficients were above 0.40 and significant at $p = 0.01$ for the following pairs: 'Those which require my active involvement' – 'Acted-out scenes' ($r = 0.56$), 'Those which require my active involvement' – 'Computer-supported, technologically . . .' ($r = 0.44$), 'Acted-out scenes' – 'Computer-supported, technologically . . .' ($r = 0.42$), and 'Those which require my active involvement' – 'In-person guiding' ($r = 0.40$). It seems that visitors who like personal involvement more are inclined to like combined interpretations than the others are.

Motivation for Visiting the Museum

The main motive for visiting the museums was 'To think about nature/culture' (mean 4.06; std. dev. 0.93), closely followed by 'Learning' (mean 4.00; std. dev. 1.03). 'As a supplement to other activities' (mean 3.39; std. dev. 1.25), 'Entertainment' (mean 3.28; std. dev. 1.23) and 'Just to spend some time' (mean 3.01; std. dev. 1.33) turned out to be in the middle group, while 'Staying in good company' (mean 2.86; std. dev. 1.39) and 'Nostalgia' (mean 2.21; std. dev. 1.34) were the least important as motives for coming to the museum.

Using linear regressions, how motives for visiting the museum influence the preferences of the type of interpretation were checked. The statistically significant results (at level $p = 0.05$) are presented in Table 2.

In-person guiding was preferred above-average by visitors who want to learn and below-average by those who came in search of entertainment. Acted-out scenes seem to be more suitable for visitors who visit museums with the aim of thinking about nature or culture; somewhat logically those who come just to spend some time do not like active personal involvement.

Table 2 Motive for Visiting the Museum as a Predictor

Dependent Variable	Independent Variable	*B* (sig.)
In-person guiding provided by tour guides – interpreters	Learning	0.26 (0.00)
	Entertainment	−0.12 (0.02)
Acted-out scenes	To think about the nature/culture	0.22 (0.01)
Those that require my active involvement	Just to spend some time	−0.14 (0.02)

Table 3 How Motive for the Trip/Travel Influences Preferences of Interpretation

Motive	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Rest, relaxation	4.20 (0.78)	3.47 (1.06)	3.99 (0.83)	3.95 (1.09)	3.64 (1.01)
Entertainment, party, experience	3.72 (0.96)	3.39 (0.92)	3.60 (1.11)	3.50 (1.11)	3.89 (0.98)
Visit to relatives, friends, acquaintances	4.15 (1.18)	3.26 (1.20)	4.00 (0.67)	3.53 (1.39)	3.42 (1.26)
Learning the culture and nature	4.05 (1.12)	3.37 (1.33)	3.63 (1.20)	3.60 (1.14)	3.53 (1.11)

Notes Column headings are as follows: (1) in-person guiding provided by tour guides, (2) interpreters, (3) audio guides, (4) acted-out scenes, (5) those that require my active involvement, (6) computer-supported, technologically advanced shows/displays.

Table 4 Domestic vs. Non-Domestic Visitors

Origin	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Domestic	4.23 (0.99)	3.23 (1.24)	3.82 (0.98)	3.70 (1.23)	3.59 (1.12)
Non-domestic	3.76 (0.87)	3.62 (0.93)	3.58 (1.14)	3.69 (0.99)	3.74 (0.98)

Notes For column headings see Table 3.

Motivation for the Trip

The most common motives for the trip/travel among the visitors were: 'Rest, relaxation' (38%), 'Learning about culture and nature' (30.5%), and 'Entertainment, party, experience' (19%). Only 6.9% stated they came to visit friends and relatives. Other motives ('business or education,' 'passing by') represented less than 5% of answers and were excluded from further analysis. With an *F*-test, the differences between these segments were checked. Mean values and standard deviations are presented in Table 3.

The *F* test was statistically significant for 'In-person guiding provided by tour guides – interpreters' $F = 3.03$ (sig. 0.03) and 'Acted-out scenes' $F = 2.87$ (sig. 0.04). The Bonferroni test was only statistically significant (sig. 0.02) in the first column for the motives 'Rest, relaxation' and 'Entertainment, party, experience,' showing that in-person guiding is considerably more appropriate for visitors with 'rest/relaxation' as the main motive for travel than for those who travel for entertainment, party and experience. This segment, together with those visitors travelling for learning the culture and nature also graded the adequacy of 'acted-out scenes' lower than the rest of interviewees did.

Domestic vs. non-domestic Visitors

Approximately 29% of the interviewees were foreigners. In Table 4, comparisons between them and domestic visitors are shown.

Statistically significant differences appear in the first two columns. Domestic visitors graded in-person guiding higher than foreigners did, while the latter segment seems to prefer audio guides. Partially, this might result from a better language adaptability of audio guides compared to in-person guiding.

Very similar results were also obtained in the comparison between the segment of the first time visitors (representing 76% of the sample) and repeat visitors, as there was obviously a considerable overlap between the two segmentation criteria. Again, the only statis-

Table 5 Comparison between Education Segments

Accomplished level of education	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Elementary school or less (9%)	4.63 (0.71)	3.48 (1.45)	4.00 (0.91)	3.83 (1.05)	4.00 (0.98)
Vocational or secondary school (27%)	4.01 (1.13)	3.34 (1.16)	3.84 (1.05)	3.42 (1.36)	3.55 (1.20)
College, higher educ., university (58%)	4.08 (0.90)	3.35 (1.12)	3.69 (1.02)	3.76 (1.07)	3.54 (1.13)
Master's or PhD (6%)	4.18 (1.19)	3.40 (1.30)	3.71 (1.27)	4.21 (1.03)	4.33 (0.84)

Notes For column headings see Table 3.

tically significant difference was between in-person guiding, which was preferred by repeat visitors (mean 4.44 vs. 4.00) and audio guides graded higher by the first time visitors (3.46 vs. 3.05).

Company when Travelling

Five *a priori* segments were formed to check whether, during the visit of a museum, company influences the preferred type of interpretation: 'on my own' (12%), 'with my family with children' (43%), 'with my partner/family without children' (19%), 'with friends' (19%) and 'as part of an organized group' (7%).

F-tests showed significant differences between the segments only for 'In-person guiding provided by tour guides – interpreters' ($F = 4.61$; sig. 0.00). The Bonferroni test was statistically significant (in all cases $p < 0.01$) for the following pairs: 'with my family with children' (mean = 4.10)/'Was part of an organized group' (mean = 4.86); 'with friends' (mean = 4.00)/'as part of an organized group' (mean = 4.86); 'with my partner/family without children' (mean = 3.84)/'as part of an organized group' (mean = 4.86). Thus, the main finding is that in-person guiding is by far the most suitable mode of interpretation for the visitors travelling in organised groups.

Demographics

For the age segments, the F-tests showed significant differences only for 'In-person guiding provided by tour guides – interpreters' ($F = 2.21$ sig. 0.04), but no Bonferroni test was statistically significant, and there was no evident pattern present. Furthermore, no significant differences were detected among the 'income' segments.

In Table 5, mean values with standard deviations are presented for the segments based on visitors' education. Significant differences between the segments are apparent for 'in-person guiding' ($F = 2.64$; sig. 0.05), 'active involvement' ($F = 3.03$; sig. 0.03) and 'computer-supported shows/displays' ($F = 4.31$; sig. 0.01). Furthermore, Bonferroni tests were statistically significant for:

- 'In-person guiding,' which is strongly preferred by the segment 'elementary school or less' in comparison to 'vocational or secondary school;'
- 'Those that require my active involvement,' which is more appropriate for the segment 'master's or PhD' than for 'vocational or secondary school;'
- 'Computer-supported, technologically advanced shows/displays,' which is again above average preferred by the segment 'master's or PhD.'

Cluster Analysis

Finally, an *a posteriori* approach based on visitors' preferences regarding the types of interpretation was employed for segmentation of the sample. In the first phase, potential outliers by hierarchical analysis were sought. After the exclusion of one case, several options of cluster numbers were checked; three clusters turned out to be the most sensible solution, as they formed clearly distinct segments, especially in terms of motivation and company on the travel. In Table 6, the characteristics of cluster members are shown.

The largest segment is 'Families with children.' These visitors are relatively unproblematic regarding the type of interpretation. Their main motive is, in fact, spending time with their children. They graded 'Entertainment' (mean 3.48) and 'supplement to other activities' (mean 3.63) as motives to come to the museum significantly above the average.

The second segment represents a quarter of the sample. These visitors are the most 'serious.' 'Just to spend some time' (mean 2.50) and 'Entertainment' are

Table 6 A Posteriori Segments

Cluster	'Families with children' (45%)	'Domestic visitors' (24%)	'Couples who love entertainment' (31%)
Preferred type of interpretation	All are quite acceptable (mean values 4.17–4.28)	In-person guiding (mean 4.57)	They do not care (mean values 2.45–3.31)
Non suitable interpretation	None	Audio-guides (mean 2.07)	With active involvement (mean 2.45)
Foreigners	48%	5%	35%
Repeat visitors	22%	34%	19%
Salient motive for the travel	Rest, relaxation, good company	Learning, VFR	Entertainment
Company on travel	Family with children	Mixed, a bit more often with organised group	With partner
Other conspicuous features	Younger	Repeat visitors, a bit below average education, stay longer	First-time visitors, stay short time

less important motives (mean 2.98) for a visit than in the other two segments. They are mostly domestic, quite heterogeneous visitors. The personal approach is found to be by far the most suitable way of interpretation for this segment.

The last segment seems to be to a considerable extent compound by 'accidental,' not very interested visitors with no specific motive for visiting the museum. 'To spend some time' as a motive for visiting the museum stands out a bit from the average. They do not like any exertion or serious involvement during the visit.

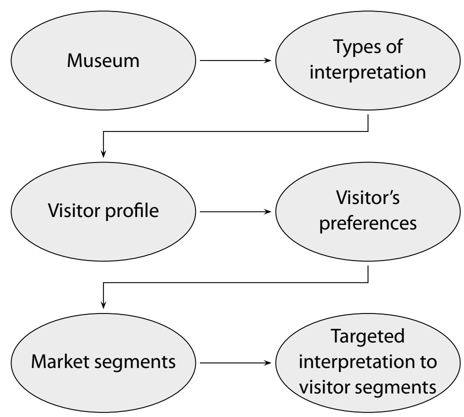

Figure 1 Identifying Visitor and Interpretation Variables and Market Segments (adapted from Wearing et al., 2008, p. 10)

Framework for Identifying Market Segments Based on Visitors' Preferences for Interpretation

As suggested by Wearing et al. (2008), from the data obtained, a framework is developed to illustrate the order of actions required to determine the most suitable type of interpretation for the specific market segment. By isolating and analysing interpretation variables and visitor variables associated with visitor interpretation preferences, the framework (Figure 1) shows the order of actions required to determine the museum market segments.

This framework shows the process of identification of certain variables that are consistent with particular types of interpretation that relate to visitors' preferences. As *a posteriori* segmentation offers more complex, multidimensional definition of segments than *a priori* approach, we have chosen the former as the basis for the model formation.

Mean values of single interpretation mode preferences were split into three categories – from the less preferred (denoted by one asterisk) to the most preferred (denoted by three asterisks). Since there was no mean value below 2.00, the categories were 2.00–2.99, 3.00–3.99, and 4.00–5.00. Once these variables are identified, effective museum interpretation may be applied to enhance the target visitors' experience (Table 7).

Tables that list market segments and correspond-

Table 7 Interpretation Recommendations for Museums Target Markets

Market segment	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Families with children	***	***	***	***	***
Domestic visitors	***	*	**	***	**
Couples who love entertainment	**	**	*	*	*

Notes Column headings are as follows: (1) in-person guiding, (2) audio-guiding, (3) acting-out scenes, (4) active involvement, (5) computer support.

ing interpretation variables may be very useful for museum managers in deciding what interpretation variables to incorporate into their programs for target market segments. For example, if the first two segments are identified as target market segments, taking into account the key visitors' preferences, the results suggest that in-person guiding and active involvement are the most preferred, followed by computer support and acting-out scenes, while audio-guiding is the least suitable interpretation mode.

Discussion

This study has aimed to develop a framework that would enable initiatives in interpretation to enhance visitor experiences for museums' target markets. Previous studies have mainly focused on behaviour, experiences, attitudes and opinions of actual and potential visitors. In contrast, this study has focused on the identification of market segments in connection with their preferences of distinct types of interpretation for natural heritage museums.

In the first part of the analysis, we identified differences between several *a priori* market segments in terms of preferences regarding interpretation modes. Socio-demographic (age, income, education), psychographic (motivation for travel and museum visit) and behavioural (company on the travel, previous visits) variables were employed for this purpose. Visitor profiles were similar to that of other findings (e.g. Griffin & Archer, 2001; Wearing et al., 2008; Macdonald, 2011). Our study confirmed that museum visitors were in the upper education (59% with college or university degree and 5% with master's or PhD), economically active (43% employed and 42% students), average and above average income groups (85%), looking for opportunities to learn about the nature and culture, entertainment and staying in good company.

The results of *a priori* segmentation showed that some demographic and psychographic traits have stronger links to interpretation variables than others. Even though computer-based interpretations have nowadays become almost an indispensable part of exhibitions (Rentschler & Hede, 2007), our results show that in-person guiding provided by tour guides-interpreters remains the most preferred mode of interpretation of natural heritage museums contents in the Adriatic area. Comparisons between *a priori* segments revealed this approach is by far the most suitable for the visitors travelling in organised groups, those whose main motive for travel is resting and relaxation and visitors coming to museums with the main aim to learn. The larger part of these are domestic and repeat visitors. Computer-supported and technologically advanced displays and audio guides as two representatives of impersonal interpretation were, in fact, ranked last, indicating that technological solutions, for now, cannot satisfactorily replace human presence in museums. The preferred mode of interpretation is par for the course linked to the degree of willingness of visitors' personal involvement. Those with higher willingness tend to seek deeper experience (McKercher, 2002) and have clear ideas of what they want to see, learn and experience during the visit. According to our findings, these visitors are inclined to like combined interpretations. Interestingly, no clear pattern was detected regarding how the age of visitors influences preferred types of interpretation.

In the second part of the analysis, we adopted *a posteriori* segmentation to identify key segments that were included in the model/framework, showing the most suitable type of interpretation for specific market segments of participating museums. With cluster analysis, three distinct market groups were identified. They were named: 'Families with children,' 'Domestic visitors' and 'Couples who love entertainment.' Of course, as this is usually the case in *a posteriori* segmentation, one has to bear in mind that a considerable amount of simplification had to be used in segments' description. Nevertheless, huge differences appeared between them in terms of interpretation type preferences. While the first and the biggest segment, 'Families with children' (45%), is very eager to learn and experience the museum through all types of interpretation, the third segment, 'Couples who love entertainment,' seems to be quite satisfied without any explicit interpretation at all. In our sample, this segment represents almost one third of all visitors.

The results suggest the adoption of specific policies for heritage museums included in the research to improve visitor experience through interpretation. By implementing the proposed framework, managers are now able to select relevant interpretation modes that correspond to key target markets. By concentrating on different interpretation needs and modes, museum managers can apply visitor driven approaches not only to a museum exhibit but also to museum interpretation.

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Employment Experience of Immigrant Workers in Tourism

Alja Žigo
University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica, Slovenia
alja.zigo@gmail.com

Janja Gabruč
University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica, Slovenia
janja.gabruc@fts.upr.si

Emil Juvan
University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica, Slovenia
emil.juvan@fts.upr.si

This research explores the experience of immigrants employed in tourism in Slovenia. Four main areas were studied: (1) formal regulation of working and living, (2) health and social care, (3) job satisfaction, and (4) integration into the Slovenian environment. The causes for this research were recent stories in various media regarding foreign workers in Slovenian economy and little to no research studies in the field of tourism. The idea of the article was to demonstrate the employment of labour migrants' experiences in tourism and to make proposals to improve the employment experience in the future. We started out by studying the existing theory, and then performed qualitative research, in which the employment experiences of four immigrants was studied in the previously mentioned four identified areas. Interviews were carried out with immigrants from different countries and of different professions, and were later evaluated with content analysis. The results of the study show that the employment experience of immigrants employed in tourism in Slovenia is both positive and negative, as there were positive and negative factors of experience identified in all areas of research. We do not want to give a generalised assessment of the experience, but rather show certain views and experiences; based on that, we can learn. The results do not apply to the entire population, but with them we present the diversity of the subject. The greatest limitation while researching was finding participants. Initially, proposals for improvement are given on three levels; government, employer, and society. The main improvement should be the better flow of information, for which we suggest transferring more information online. Slovene society should be striving for tolerance so that foreigners would feel more welcomed.

Keywords: tourism labour, immigrants, employment experience
https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10.151-165

Introduction

After reading existing literature and previous foreign studies, we determined that the complete outlook on the experience of economic immigrants consisted of more separate but connected areas. This is how we came to our four main areas of research. Formal regulation is crucial for legal residence, which is necessary for employment and insurance. This is all connected with job satisfaction, normal dealing with health issues and, in the end, a peaceful life. Integration was added to our research, because it is tightly connected with general experience; for example: if we are accepted well, we feel good, and this is reflected in our health and job performance. This then leads to job satisfaction.

Jobs in tourism are less valued; employees often work at night and during holidays, wages are low and permanent contracts are a rarity (Joppe, 2012). Such work positions are less attractive to local populations, so employees are increasingly employing foreigners from economically less developed countries (Wood, 1992; Janta, Ladkin, Brown, & Lugosi, 2011; Joppe, 2012). This research includes the economic or labour immigrant, who is an individual that leaves his place of residence to improve his quality of life (International Organization for Migrations, 2011).

In this research, we use the general term 'immigrant,' meaning economic immigrant, but not refugees. According to Hancova, Beehr, and Christiansen (2003), employment experience is adjustment to working conditions and to situations that are not work-related but nevertheless occur in the life of an immigrant. Romzek (1989) warns that the employment experience can have consequences transmitted to life outside the workplace. Feng and Pearson (1999) also emphasise the importance of external factors, including new culture, language, economic situation, political situation, and family status, which are significant in the employment experience. This is the reason this research included not only work satisfaction, but also experience outside the workplace. This is how integration into the Slovenian environment was added to the research. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) assert that if the employee's experience is positive, it is assumed that he will work better, which then leads to economic benefits for the employer; there are also fewer absences from the workplace. In contrast, a negative employment experience results in low productivity, poor income, and is one reason for workers to quit their job.

According to Janta et al. (2011), positive experiences of immigrant workers can be language learning, meeting new people, flexibility, and better wages. Negative experiences that these authors detected were hard work, tiredness, health problems, and little or no free time. Discrimination from management tends to be a frequent negative experience. As Lyon and Sulcova (2009) described, language barriers are a common negative experience, which is also noted in the work of Devine, Baum, Hearns, and Devine (2007). Irimias and Michalko (2016) stated that many immigrants lack proper living conditions.

Earlier research on employment the experience of immigrants working in tourism in Slovenia is difficult to find. Some authors studied topics on the working and living conditions of foreigners in Slovenia, mostly builders and drivers, but they do not discuss foreigners in tourism (Lipovec Čebron, 2010; Požar, 2010; Medica, Lukič & Kralj, 2011; Oštir, 2012). The selected research topic is poorly covered or even uncharted territory in Slovenia, but not insignificant.

Exploring the positive and negative experiences was carried out in four topics, which, it is believed, are essential for complete outlook on the research matter; (1) formal regulation of working and living, (2) health and social care, (3) job satisfaction and (4) integration into the Slovenian environment.

Immigrants in Slovenia

Slovenia has, equivalent to Sweden, a multicultural/pluralistic model of integration policy, which guarantees equal opportunities for all people living in the country, including immigrants (Bešter, 2003). By joining the European Union, Slovenia was awaiting highly educated individuals from other member states, but statistics show that these expectations have not been fulfilled. The majority of immigrants in Slovenia come from the territory of the former Yugoslavia and are not highly educated (Medica et al., 2011). Statistics show that the majority of immigrants are male and 50% of them in 2016, had only lower or secondary vocational education. Data from the same year show that 55.7% of immigrants are settled in the Ljubljana region. In 2016, there were 16,993 issued permits, and they were mostly for positions in construction, whereas only 1.2% of them were in tourism. The majority of the permits issued in 2016 were for citizens of Bosnia and Herzegovina, Croatia, Serbia, and the EU member state Bulgaria (see http://www.ess.gov.si/trg_dela/trg_dela_v_stevilkah/zaposlovanje_tujcev).

Formal Regulation of Working and Living

The field of immigrant legal work and residence in Slovenia is governed by various laws and regulations. On the 16th of June 2015, the National Assembly of the Republic of Slovenia adopted the Employment, Self-Employment and Work of Foreigners Act' which entered into force on the 1st of September 2015. Under the new legislation, only one permit is issued to foreigners, which controls both employment and residence (under previous legislation, they needed separate permits). The new act means fewer bureaucratic obstacles, and it also costs less due to the payment of a single fee (Zakon o zaposlovanju, samozaposlovanju in delu tujcev (ZZSDT), 2015).

The employment of citizens of the Republic of Croatia is regulated by the Act Extending the Transitional Period for Free Movement of Citizens of the Republic of Croatia and Their Family Members (Zakon o podaljšanju prehodnega obdobja na področju prostega gibanja državljanov Republike Hrvaške in njihovih družinskih članov (ZPPOPGHR), 2015) It stipulates that those citizens of the Republic of Croatia who have been legally residing in Slovenia for at least two years have free access to the labour market, which equates them with citizens of Slovenia. Free access to the labour market also includes the Croats of Slovenian descent to the second generation, those who have a permanent residence permit in Slovenia, family members of an immigrant who reside in Slovenia with an intention for family reunion and Croats who acquired at least higher education or were engaged in research work in the previous two years. Those who reside in Slovenia less than two years need a work permit issued by the Employment Service of Slovenia.

On the basis of the 'Agreement on the Employment of Citizens of Bosnia and Herzegovina in Slovenia,' such citizens are issued a work permit, which is an addition to the previously mentioned single permit. The content of agreement specifies the conditions for the employment of foreigners from the Bosnia and Herzegovina (see http://www.ess.gov.si/tujci/delo_v_sloveniji/zaposlovanje-drzavljanov-bih). The statistics on the 31st of December 2016, which show the ratio of foreigners from third countries (i.e. those not in the EU) in Slovenia, disclose that the majority of immigrants with a valid residence permit is from Bosnia and Herzegovina (58,355 valid permits), followed by immigrants from Kosovo, Serbia, Macedonia and the Russian Federation (see http://www.mnz.gov.si/si/mnz_za_vas/tujci_v_sloveniji/statistika/).

Health and Social Care

The untroubled stay of immigrants in foreign countries is essentially conditioned by regulated health and social care, which are a basic human right. In the countries of the European Union, foreigners from third countries have the same rights as residents (Trokić, 2006), which means that employed or self-employed immigrants are equal to the citizens of Slovenia. This status can also be enjoyed by the immigrant's family with a residence permit (Ministrstvo za delo, družino, socialne zadeve in enake možnosti, 2010). Irrespective of the status of insurance, emergency medical assistance is available to all, with payment provided from public resources (Cetina & Pokrivač, 2014). Bofulin and Bešter (2010) observe that, according to research in Europe, economic immigrants are healthier than residents. There is, however, a grey area: despite health problems, immigrants do not visit healthcare institutions; the reasons for this are numerous: they are employed in the grey economy, are faced with a lack of finances for the payment of services, have language barriers to communicate with medical staff, do not trust other health systems, or find themselves in a discriminatory relationship with healthcare professionals. Despite formal equality, marginalised groups generally have less access to healthcare. The research carried out by Brovč, Ahčin, Šlajpah, and Rotar Pavlič (2009) shows that immigrants ascribe their health problems to poor housing conditions, diet, poor working conditions, hard work, and strong negative emotions such as fear, anger and nervousness. Immigrants are, to a greater extent, also exposed to mental health problems due to the new environment and the resulting stress. The authors emphasise the fact that immigrants also have communication problems with healthcare professionals. In this area, it is possible to improve and simplify the immigrant's stay in Slovenia. Lipovec Čebron (2010) further notes a general lack of information on health rights among immigrants.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is interpreted as a positive emotional reaction that the worker perceives when engaging in work (Zupan, 2001). Dugguh and Dennis (2014) continue, that to achieve good results, the company must strive for employees to be motivated and satisfied with their work. Satisfaction is positively influenced by payment, working conditions, relationships with colleagues and superiors and the prospect of promotion, which was also researched in the work presented in this paper. There are several theories of satisfaction at work. One of the best known is Herzberg's two-factor motivational theory from 1959, which deals with what makes employees pleased. Lundberg, Gudmundson, and Andersson (2009) uncover that Herzberg's theory is based on motivating factors and hygiene factors. Hygiene factors are those which must be guaranteed; otherwise, the worker is dissatisfied. This includes company policies, supervision, payment, working conditions, and social relationships in the company. In contrast, motivating factors, such as recognition for good work, work itself, independence, the level of responsibility in the workplace that is entrusted to the worker, promotion and other achievements are those that bring satisfaction. The authors explain Herzberg's thesis ass stating that the opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction: it is only the absence of satisfaction. In practice, this means that if the motivators are not provided, workers are not dissatisfied. They are dissatisfied when hygiene factors are not provided.

An immigrant employed in Slovenia has equal rights to those of native employees. These rights include frequent payment, food, and transport bonuses, and annual leave (Zakon o zaposlovanju, samozaposlovanju in delu tujcev (ZZSDT), 2015). Job satisfaction is connected to many factors, including the sense of safety and health at work, which are important for employees and significantly affect their wellbeing. In Slovenia, this is regulated by the Occupational Health and Safety Act (Zakon o varnosti in zdravju pri delu (ZVZD-1), 2011), which lists technical, legal, educational, social, and health measures to create a safe workplace. Oštir (2012) finds that that most common anomaly in the work of immigrants is illegal work, in which the employer does not pay obligatory contributions to the state. Attention is also given to the fact that the wages of immigrants are lower, and even lower for female immigrants, and that there are many 'cash in hand' payments, which once more shows that social contributions are not paid. It is often the case that workers are waiting for payment even after several months. In reviews of literature and previous studies (Medica et al., 2011; Oštir, 2012; Zabukovec, 2015), the fact that employees work without appropriate work equipment and protection was detected. The aforementioned authors noted, that foreign workers are more likely to work in shifts, during weekends, have more additional hours and less annual leave and, because of the employer's pressures, they do not take sick leave. There are many violations regarding the allocation of working time. Nevertheless, migrants can be a source of innovative ideas for a business, and they represent cultural diversity. This diversity can also lead to tensions, which is what happens if employers do not promote interaction between domestic and foreign employees, and if foreigners do not adapt to the culture of the host country (Janta, Brown, Lugosi, & Ladkin, 2011).

Integration

When people immigrate to a different environment, two diverse cultures come into contact. Vrečar (2007) even claims that there is a contact of many cultures at the same time, in which the culture of the destination is labelled as dominant, and others subordinate. Despite the laws, regulations, strategies, and other documents that control the topic, the integration of immigrants remains a complex phenomenon. According to the author, the level of integration is affected by conditions in the country of origin, the possibility of long-term adaptation, the existence of social networks, the personality characteristics of the immigrant, and the phenomena of xenophobia and racism. Immigrants find themselves in a new cultural framework in which they introduce new ethnic peculiarities into the dominant culture, which is why discrimination in the history of migration is discussed. Bešter (2007) describes integration as the process of the inclusion of foreigners in a new environment and the resulting effects. There is both complete assimilation or extreme multiculturalism, according to which integration differs in the fact that both immigrants and the majority culture adapt. Integration is a complex phenomenon that must or may occur in several areas. As presented below, areas 1–3 are common for any type of immigrant, areas 4–7 are more about long-term immigrants (Bešter, 2007):

1. *Legal integration;* equalising the legal status of an immigrant with a citizen of the Republic of Slovenia. It begins with a residence permit and a work permit, with the enabling of social rights and equalisation with the acquisition of citizenship. It is a key aspect of integration.
2. *Settlement and housing integration;* allows foreigners to stay anywhere in the country (region, city) and live in comparable, even identical living conditions, and have the possibility of moving.
3. *Socio-economic integration;* employment opportunities, social rights, and comparable income.
4. *Integration in education* (especially for the second generation of immigrants); foreigners should have the same educational opportunities and achieve a certain level of education. Multicultural education in schools and the possibility to learn one's native language are important.
5. *Cultural integration;* it covers language, religion and new values. The acceptance of new patterns and values is of great importance, but the aim of cultural integration should not be complete assimilation, since we must allow foreigners to maintain their own culture.
6. *Social integration;* involves social integration in the surroundings and socialising with individuals. If foreigners maintain contact only within one ethnic group, this cannot be considered integration.
7. *Identification integration;* an individual's perception of belonging to a new culture.

Research Methodology

The purpose of the research was to obtain information about the employment experience of immigrants working in tourism in Slovenia and complement the data with the new findings. Findings are useful for businesses in the field of tourism, organisations that work with immigrants, but not likely also for immigrants. The aim was to answer the main research question (Q0) and questions related to the four previously identified topics (Q1–4).

- Q0 *What is the employment experience of immigrants employed in tourism in Slovenia?*
- Q1 *What is the experience of immigrants employed in Slovenian tourism in the formal regulation of work and living?*
- Q2 *What is the experience of immigrants employed in Slovenian tourism, in the field of health and social care?*
- Q3 *What is the experience of immigrants employed in Slovenian tourism regarding job satisfaction?*
- Q4 *What is the experience of immigrants employed in Slovenian tourism, in the field of integration into the Slovenian environment?*

The first stage of work included an overview of primary and secondary sources (Devine et al., 2007; Janta et al., 2011; Zopiatis, Constanti & Theocharous, 2014), which were the foundation for creating four theoretical research categories, as previously mentioned. This makes the research deductive. In consultation, interviews were chosen over questionnaires, due to the potentially low response rate. Silverman (1993) states that qualitative or interpretive research enables deeper exploration of the desired topic, and attention is drawn to the experience of the participants. The researcher's involvement in the interview was limited to guiding the conversation with minimal impact on the content of it, thereby ensuring greater objectivity of the data.

The research sample consisted of immigrants employed in tourism in Slovenia. Theoretical sampling was chosen, and immigrants were invited to participate via organisations, companies, and social media. The first draft of this research consisted of data to be

Table 1 Profiles of Participating Immigrants

Interview	Age	Sex	Country	Time in Slovenia	Work position
1	27	Female	Bosnia and Hercegovina	7 years	Hotel marketing
2	28	Male	Montenegro	7 years	Night reception in hotel
3	38	Male	Tunisia	8 years	Waiter in hotel
4	31	Female	Serbia	6 months	Housekeeping

collected with surveys, and the set sample was approximately 70 people. After several months, the idea was dropped due to a very low response rate. Interviews were chosen.

Four interviews with immigrants of different nationalities, professions, and ages (as shown in Table 1) were performed from January 2016 to September 2016. Research limitations are reflected in the difficult acquisition of participants. It is noted that immigrants or employers do not wish to reveal themselves, even though the participation was anonymous. The research would have shown the situation in greater detail with more participants of different profiles.

Content analysis was the method chosen for data analysis. The process consisted of the transcription and editing the recorded interviews, including the translation of one interview, which was held in Serbian. Later, with a partially deductive approach, the data were broken down to four selected categories (formal regulation of working and living, health and social care, job satisfaction and integration into the Slovenian environment) and collections of related topics within these categories, which became subcategories. Data analysis has identified factors and divided them according to whether they were positive or negative. The results do not apply to the entire population, but we present the diversity of the subjects with them. We wanted to portray certain views of employment in the tourism industry in Slovenia.

Results and Discussion

Interviews were analysed by identifying subcategories and factors according to a positive or negative experience. Results were placed in tables for individual areas of research, as shown in Tables 2 to 5. The deductive elements of the analysis are the basic categories of the experience. We identified subcategories and factors inductively, which are characteristics of work experience. Two participants took up employment in Slovenia after completing their studies in Slovenia, a participant from Tunisia came to Slovenia as a family member, as a spouse to a Slovenian, and the fourth participant came to Slovenia due to unemployment in his home country, despite college education.

Formal Regulation of Working and Living

Throughout the analysis of the interviews, the positive and negative experiences of immigrants in the formal arrangements of working and living were identified, as shown in Table 2. Identified subcategories were about procedures of acquisition and the attitude of officials.

The work permits category lists positive experiences. For example, one immigrant had no problem acquiring the permits based on the fact that her family had stayed in Slovenia for a longer period. Another had fewer problems due to dual citizenship.

> It was easy for me because I have dual citizenship, Croatian and Serbian, because I was born in Croatia. So, I came to Slovenia with Croatian papers, due to Croatia also being in the EU. For my boyfriend, who has only Serbian documents, the process was much more difficult. [Housekeeper, Serbia]

They are furthermore pleased with the acquisition process itself. Negative factors are understanding procedures due to language barriers, which Lyon and Sulcova (2009) also noted to be one of the greatest limitations. Another negative aspect is the time required for the process.

> There were no problems, but the procedure by law lasts a few months. I needed a month for a

Table 2 Analysis of Formal Regulation of Working and Living

Category	Subcategory	Experience	
		Dimension	Factor
Work permits	Procedure	Positive	Long-term stay in Slovenia
			Family member status
			Dual Citizenship
		Negative	End of student status
			Not understanding procedures
			Duration of acquisition
	Officials	Positive	/
		Negative	Poor attitude
			Language barriers
Residence permits	Procedure	Positive	No problems
		Negative	No work permit
			Acquisition system does not divide those who integrate more and those who integrate less
			Duration

> residence permit and three months for a work permit. [Waiter, Tunisia]

Immigrants mention the problem of misunderstanding procedures, due to language and not knowing the laws and regulations and inadequate experience with officials. By doing so, the immigrant finds that the law and officials equate those who are trying to adapt and those who do not.

> The worst experience was with the administrative office in Koper when I wanted to get a residence permit. [Night receptionist at a hotel, Montenegro]

The immigrants talked about procedures for acquiring residence permits. Some had no problems, while one mentioned he could not get a permit, because his student status in Slovenia had ended and, consequently, he had no permission for work. He solved the problem by registering as a family member with a girlfriends' family. This is not a negative experience, but one critique of the system is the fact that it does not distinguish between those who integrate more and those who do not.

> The law and the staff of office treat those, who are trying to engage in society and those who do not bother the same. [Night receptionist at a hotel, Montenegro]

All participants have work and residence permits, but it is clear from the above that they had few difficulties obtaining them, which nevertheless could be improved at the state level.

Health and Social Care

The participants were asked about their experiences with health and social care in Slovenia. From the preliminary examination of the literature, it is understood that in Slovenia the greatest problems are in the poor health status of immigrants, which is the result of an unhealthy work environment, stress and other negative feelings (Brovč et al., 2009). We attempted to determine whether our immigrants felt this reflected their experiences. In the majority, they have good experiences with health and social care, but there are some improvements that could be made.

In the area of healthcare, two subcategories were detected; the system, and the experiences with it or with medical staff. Positive feelings were noted about

Table 3 Analysis of Health and Social Care

Category	Subcategory	Experience	
		Dimension	Factor
Health care	System	Positive	Through the employer
		Negative	Fear of unpaid contributions by employer
	Experience	Positive	Friendliness
			Sick leave
		Negative	Doctors attitude
			Unselected doctor
Social care	Experience	Positive	Better than at home
			Enough for survival
		Negative	/
	Information	Positive	/
		Negative	Not knowing rights

the fact that basic health insurance is paid by the employer, but one of the participants feared that the same contributions would not be paid. In the area of experience with healthcare, positive experiences included the friendliness of medical staff and the possibility of having sick leave when needed. Negative experiences included the medical staff's attitude in one case.

> I had problems with my lower back and I went to the doctor, she looked at me and gave me the wrong medicine, which made me pass out. She did not give me medicine that would soothe inflammation, but medicines to relax my body. I cannot know for certain, but obviously she did not take much time to deal with me. [Night receptionist at the hotel, Montenegro]

The next negative experience was problems with having no assigned personal doctor. Immigrants say that social care in Slovenia is better than in their home country, and they believe Slovenia would help them if needed.

> If I compare it with my country, social care is definitely much better regulated. I know that Slovenia would help me. [Employed in marketing, Bosnia and Herzegovina]

Negative experiences in the category of social care are mainly due to the immigrants not knowing their rights. As Trokić (2006) says, foreigners working and living in Slovenia have the same rights as locals. The author emphasises that these rights are not only for physical help, but also for psychosocial assistance.

The experience of social protection is highly positive, as the participating immigrants in Slovenia feel safe.

Job Satisfaction

The employment experience of an immigrant employed in Slovenian tourism is largely influenced by job satisfaction. Immigrants were asked about general satisfaction, work relationships, payment, meals, working hours, and other working conditions. The participants answered the questions without reservation. Immigrants responded positively to the question of general job experience and job satisfaction.

> Yes, I am content, otherwise I would not be working in the same company for eight years. [Waiter, Tunisia]

> I'm currently working as a maid in a hotel and I am doing fine. I want a better job, but for the beginning it is quite good and I'm happy. [Housekeeper, Serbia]

The qualitative analysis of the interviews identified

Table 4 Analysis of Job Satisfaction

Category	Subcategory	Experience	
		Dimension	Factor
Work conditions	Work time	Positive	Statutory framework
			Use of leave
		Negative	Night work
			Extra hours
			Free days
	Meals	Positive	Meal at work
			Possibility of cash compensation
		Negative	/
Workplace Relationship	Employer	Positive	Foreign company
			Promotion
			Attitude
		Negative	/
	Peers	Positive	Acceptance
			The nature of work
		Negative	Feeling neglected
	Customers/guests	Positive	Foreign language
		Negative	Strange attitude
Payment		Positive	Raise
			Paid extra hours
			Benefits
			Tips
			Regularity
		Negative	Amount

areas of positive and negative experiences, as shown in Table 4.

Subcategories identified within work conditions were working hours and meals. One positive experience was that all the immigrants work in this study within the legal framework. In the Employment Relationship Act (Zakon o delovnih razmerjih (ZDR-1), 2013) it is defined that the work week consists of 40 hours and a maximum of eight extra hours. Immigrants can also use their annual leave with no problems. Negative feelings were about night work, working hours and extra hours, also with having no free days in a week. This was the experience of a hotel night receptionist; the authors of this research believe that this dissatisfaction is not connected with the worker being an immigrant. Nevertheless, he felt unhappy.

> There is not enough staff, and it often happens that I do not have one day off during the week. If someone gets sick, there is no substitute worker. [Night receptionist at a hotel, Montenegro]

They are satisfied with having meals arranged during work hours, and they even have the possibility of compensation if they have a prescribed special diet. Workplace relations were divided in three subcategories: relationships with employer/superior, with peers, and with customers. All the immigrants had good relationship with their superiors. One said that she works for foreign company; since employer is foreign, a foreign worker does not stand out.

> The company is also foreign, so there are no problems with discrimination in the workplace. [Employed in marketing, Bosnia and Herzegovina]

Because of the good relationships, they had opportunities for promotion. With their peers, they mostly felt accepted, also because of the nature of tourism. As the World Tourism Organization (2014) states, tourism is a dynamic sector, characterised by everyday contact with people. Employment is also available for young, inexperienced workers, poorly educated people, and people of different cultures and races. However, one participant did not feel accepted, which she believed was because of language barriers.

> I am left out of socialising with colleagues, mostly because of the language, sometimes I feel lonely. [Housekeeper, Serbia]

With customers, they did not have particularly negative experiences; only one of them felt that guests treated them differently than their Slovene peers did. Otherwise, they say guests are interested in their stories of how and why they came to Slovenia.

Payment was the next topic of discussion. The only negative feeling given was regarding the amount of salary. Joppe (2012) and Baum (2015) confirm that jobs in tourism are not paid well. Positive feelings were reflected in the possibility of a raise, in some cases paid extra hours and benefits such as a bonus for work clothes. Three of the four participants also work for tips.

Integration into the Slovenian Environment

For the well-being and positive employment experience of immigrants in Slovenia, integration into the new environment is also important. During the discussion, immigrants confided their experiences about living conditions, language, free time, discrimination and integration, shown in Table 5.

The first category was residence with the subcategories of living conditions and the process of searching for accommodation. In the first subcategory, positive factors were that they live in good conditions and they live with family or a partner. One immigrant was living with roommates during his studies, and he says the experience was pleasant, mostly because they helped him integrate better and faster. Immigrants mentioned some negative experiences regarding the search for accommodation. Some encountered discrimination or lack of trust by the owner of the apartment.

> The owners said they did not accept foreigners. They emphasised that they did not accept Albanians or Muslims. [Night receptionist at a hotel, Montenegro]

> They were a little suspicious. How we will pay, how long will we stay, but this is normal to me, we gave them employment certificates and a prepayment and that's it. Now we are paying rent, and everything is good, we have a fair relationship with the landlord. [Housekeeper, Serbia]

As Lukšič-Hacin (1995, p. 111) states, when people change their cultural and social environments, language is one of the fundamental obstacles to integrating and understanding the way of life in a new environment. Participants do understand that language helps with integration. However, they were having some initial problems, which is, in the authors' opinion, normal. One of the participants had difficulties with formal communication when working.

> The problem arises with e-mails when you want to write more formally, but I think a lot of Slovenians have the same problem [smiles]. [Employed in marketing, Bosnia and Herzegovina]

They learned language during informal communication with locals, and some took classes and exams. This shows that they were eager to learn and integrate. The immigrant from Serbia expressed personal dissatisfaction due to poor language skills. At the time of the interview, she had been in Slovenia only for six months.

Participants use their leisure time differently, de-

Table 5 Analysis of Integration into the Slovenian Environment

Category	Subcategory	Experience	
		Dimension	Factor
Residence	Conditions	Positive	Good infrastructure
			Roommates
		Negative	/
	Search for accommodation	Positive	/
		Negative	Discrimination
			No trust
Language	Knowledge	Positive	Better integration
		Negative	Formal communication
			Initial problems
	Learning	Positive	Communication with locals
			Courses
			Exam
		Negative	Dissatisfaction due to not knowing language
Free time	Social network	Positive	Help from locals
			Getting to know the culture
			Locals
			Contact with other foreigners
		Negative	Locals
	Activities for foreigners	Positive	Participation
			Quality
		Negative	Lack of free time
			No interest
Discrimination		Positive	Younger generation
			Islamic community
		Negative	Eating habits
			Stereotypes
			Search for accommodation
Integration	Holidays	Positive	Open society
		Negative	Celebration

pending on their interests and desires. When researching their free time, the most frequent topics were about their social network and activities organised for foreigners. Positive experiences they had within their social network were getting help from locals and in some cases acceptance by the local population.

> They always helped me. I met good and hard-working people, especially friends who helped me, to get to where I am right now. [Employed in marketing, Bosnia and Herzegovina]

One was happy that she could spend her free time with other foreigners. In her opinion, it was easier to discuss problems with people who have or had the same experiences. Some had negative experiences with locals. This shows that different people react differently to foreigners. The immigrant from Montenegro was happy with the activities organised for foreigners in Slovenia.

> I was invited by the Montenegrin ambassador in Ljubljana, to meet Montenegrin students and Montenegrins living in Slovenia. I attended, and it was a nice experience. [...] I also attended one round table event at the university, on the topic of integration of immigrants. Nice experience at a high educational level. [Night receptionist at the hotel, Montenegro]

Others explained that they do not have free time or interest to participate. With this, we can conclude that while there are good events and workshops, but immigrants are not keen to participate. Regarding discrimination, positive feelings were expressed when speaking of the younger generation in Slovenia, which is more open to new things than the older generation is. One participant, a Muslim, praised the Muslim community in Slovenia. Immigrants who participated in the survey did not have major negative experiences with discrimination. We were primarily interested in religious and national discrimination. They highlighted only a few experiences concerning stereotypes and irritations due to different dietary habits and the aforementioned difficult experience in finding a suitable dwelling place.

> I know another Tunisian who lives and works in Maribor. He's darker than I am and he has more problems. [Waiter, Tunisia]

Another topic that has been identified in the field of integration is culture, or more precisely celebrating holidays. The immigrants talked about accepting Slovenian traditions and the possibility of celebrating their holidays.

An interesting indicator of the experience of being an immigrant is the plans that they have. One participant aspires to create a life in Slovenia; another, because of the wars and terrorist threat, does not want to return to Tunisia. Despite the positive experience in Slovenia, two participants want to move to another country with the aim of new knowledge and experience.

Conclusion

The presented research has theoretical and practical value. The theoretical value lies in the identification of different dimensions of the employment experience of immigrants working in tourism in Slovenia, which contributes to the knowledge about that field. With this, future researchers can easily assess what is important to research and what the critical points are. The practical value of the work is reflected in the proposals for improvements. The aim of the presented research was to answer the research questions.

The first research question was: 'What is the experience of immigrants employed in Slovenian tourism in the formal regulation of work and living?' All four immigrants have permits and are now satisfied. There were some good experiences, which is reflected in the fact that they got their permits. Many negative factors are reflected in the difficulties they had in requiring them. They had problems with language, the attitudes of officials, and the duration of the process. The experiences of immigrants employed in Slovenian tourism in the formal regulation of work and living were both positive and negative. To summarise, they believe the experience was good, because it resulted in them having a legal status in Slovenia, but the process itself could be easier.

The second research question was: 'What is the experience of immigrants employed in Slovenian tourism, in the field of health and social care?' It was found that each immigrant had different opinions and varied experiences. They are happy they have insurance covered by their employer, but at the same time they fear that they would not be paid. They have good and bad experiences with medical staff. Use of sick leave was highly valued by four of them. More positive feedback was given regarding social care, with immigrants saying that they feel safe in Slovenia. The negative aspect is the lack of information in both areas. Experiences are positive and negative; however, it is observable they are more satisfied with social care. Although they are happy with healthcare benefits, some real-time experiences were negative; meanwhile, none of the four had needed to use social care and, therefore, have no practical experiences with this.

With the third theoretical research question, 'What is the experience of immigrants employed in Slovenian tourism regarding job satisfaction?' discussion about work experiences was opened. Immigrants are happy with their work conditions; their only negative factors were night work, extra hours and lack of free days. These are common in tourism and are not the result of a different treatment due to their being foreign. Experience with meals during work are only positive. Discussion about work relationships showed that they have only positive feelings regarding relationships with their employer or superior and mostly good experience with co-workers. Only one did not feel included. From customers, they mostly received positive attention. With common negative feelings about the amount of salary, they were happy with getting tips, bonuses; some were also able to have extra paid hours. This dimension shows mostly positive experiences and some negative, but it is believed they are not crucial.

The fourth and final research question was: 'What is the experience of immigrants employed in Slovenian tourism, in the field of integration into the Slovenian environment?' Three participants were highly integrated, due to longer periods of stay in Slovenia. The Serbian immigrant had been, at the time of the interview, in Slovenia for only six months. Her answers were more negative, especially regarding language and local acceptance, than those of other participants. They were all satisfied with their living conditions, although there were some problems with finding a suitable place to live. In the category of language skills, negative feelings were detected, when they talked about their start in Slovenia. Regarding their social network, the main topic was connecting with locals, for which the experience was positive in most cases, especially with the younger generation. Participants did not detect severe discrimination: only some stereotypes. They say Slovene society is somewhat open to new culture differences and does accept foreign habits, but they feel sad that they cannot celebrate holidays as at home. Discussions showed that there were some negative experiences among the good ones. The local population still have some reservations towards new things. The results confirm the theory that the more integrated foreigners have better experiences.

Answering the four questions regarding the selected dimensions leads to answering the main research question: 'What is the employment experience of immigrants employed in tourism in Slovenia?' The study results show that experiences in all four studied areas (formal regulation of working and living, health and social care, job satisfaction and integration into the Slovenian environment) are positive and negative. Participants' answers and stories show that they are content with working and living in Slovenia. However, the discussion pointed out some negative experiences, which can be a basis for improvement.

The purpose of this research was to outline the immigrants' experience and consequently improve it. Improvements can be made at the level of the state, industry and society, which should better accept foreigners in their environment. A key improvement, identified by the fact that immigrants are not well informed about administrative processes, social assistance and their rights, is the better flow of information. Some brochures are available at administrative offices, employment offices and even online, but it is noted that they rarely are accessed by foreigners or they contain outdated information. It would be reasonable for the information to be transmitted over the web and social networks to a greater extent, and the employees of the administrative units should personally hand over information packets to the immigrants and not only put them on info boards. By improving the flow of information, progress would be made in the areas of ignorance of the system and rights, misunderstanding of procedures, promoting the choice of a personal medical doctor, attending events for foreigners and promoting language courses.

To prevent the fear of non-payment of social contributions by the employer, immigrants should also be informed about the methods of checking those payments and the possibilities of anonymous reporting to the Financial Bureau of the Republic of Slovenia. Because of the negative experiences about relations with the local population, relations with healthcare personnel and others, it is important that multiculturalism is promoted within Slovene society through various integration programs and volunteering. In this area, particular emphasis is placed on pre-school and school institutions, which are supposed to teach tolerance and reduce the social distance to foreigners, as described by Kralj (2008). It is also necessary to emphasise the positive factors highlighted by the interviewees, which should serve as examples of good practice. With this kind of promotion and information, it would make it easier for future immigrants to decide to come to Slovenia, encourage employers to employ foreigners and, in particular, show the positive side of the existence of foreigners in Slovenia to the local population (for example: cultural diversity, new workforce, and fresh ideas).

The results do not apply universally; with these results, we only highlight the diversity of the research topic, which now serves as a basis for future research. One plan is a quantitative study of the employment experiences of immigrants in tourism with a larger sample. Despite the limitations and obstacles, the research has been successful, as it presents the experience of immigrants employed in tourism in Slovenia and answered research questions.

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Sustainable Tourism Development in Rural Areas: The Role of Stakeholders

Marjetka Rangus
University of Maribor, Faculty of Tourism, Slovenia
marjetka.rangus@um.si

Boštjan Brumen
University of Maribor, Faculty of Tourism, Slovenia
bostjan.brumen@um.si

Jasna Potočnik Topler
University of Maribor, Faculty of Tourism, Slovenia
jasna.potocnik1@um.si

This article examines the role of local inhabitants in developing sustainable tourism in rural areas. Recently, when planning the sustainable local spatial, economic and social development, experts have been faced with the problem of integrating stakeholders. In the concept of sustainable regional development, the basic democratic premise that everyone should decide on matters that affect them has gained an equal position to that of environmental and social awareness. In compliance with this principle, the development of local communities which are also responsible for tourism development in a certain area should include the widest possible group of representatives of the local population. Lively tourist activities not only affect the economy, but also have impacts on the spatial development of the town, its social structure, social life, and psychological imprint. The analysis of the structured interviews conducted with more than 20 individuals who are employed in the fields of tourism in the wider area of Brežice has shown how the wider local community is responding to the tourist activities in the Municipality of Brežice and its surroundings.

Keywords: rural development, tourism, local inhabitants, attitude, Brežice
https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10.167-173

Introduction

In recent decades, scientists and professionals in tourism have noted that tourism certainly cannot be narrowed down to an economic activity. Tourism is a complex phenomenon, which is heavily involved in the local, regional, national, and multinational environments and, as such, it also affects a variety of factors. In addition to the well-known positive effects, tourism development also brings negative ones. Interest in exploring the social, economic and environmental influences is, consequently, considerable, especially when regarding the research of the effects of the tourism development in rural (and protected) areas, and exploring the relationship of the locals towards tourism. Although rural tourism is a valuable 'developmental strategy for destinations,' many challenges for its successful development have been identified, such as poor planning and implementation of rural tourism projects, poorly coordinated marketing efforts, seasonal profits and employment opportunities, lack of entrepreneurship, lack of government support, lack of collaboration, etc. (Farmaki, 2016, p. 283). Recently, studies on the attitudes of the local population towards tourists around the world and in Slovenia have been on the rise, and what is more, building sustainable communities has become one of the most important goals of governments and municipalities (Alonso & Nyanjom, 2017). Stakeholder consultation has, in fact, become inevitable for sustainable tourism development (Hardy & Pearson, 2017) since tourism monitoring is finally recognised as a stakeholder-driven process (Modica, 2016, 125), and destinations are perceived as networks of interdependent stakeholders (Waligo, Clarke, & Hawkins, 2015). Bestard and Nadal (2007, 194–207) have reached the same conclusions. Due to the importance of tourism and its positive effects on the one hand, and the negative effects on the other, this fact is not surprising. Local inhabitants support the development of tourism if they believe that they will benefit from it (Allen, Hafer, Long, & Perdue, 1993). Regarding the development of tourism in rural areas, additional care for the environment is necessary, as well as additional sensitivity in the protection of the resources needed, in an attempt to prevent too great a negative impact of tourism on the environment. There are no possibilities for sustainable tourism development without taking the opinions and the will of the local population into account. Chiun, Ramayah, and Hui (2014, 84–94) write about the primary importance of adopting tourism and supporting its development by different communities in the countryside. They state that for the sustainable tourism industry and the satisfaction of the local population, it is of great importance that local people are able and willing to participate in the development. Key to the successful development of tourism are the frequency of encounters between locals and tourists and willingness of the local people to be friendly hosts. Understanding stakeholders' characteristics and point of views can help predicting opposition or support for the development of tourism that may consequently be incorporated into tourism strategies (Phi, Dredge, & Whitford, 2014; Hunter, 2013).

Tourism development can change the relationships between the population and the attitudes of the population towards their home environment. Huang and Stewart (1996) believe that the attitude and perception of the local population towards the effects of tourism is significant and that they should, therefore, be included in the programming strategies of tourism development and into all development strategies and programs, because it is only in that condition that the development of tourism can truly be successful. Furthermore, the findings showed that people who have the most of the financial benefits from the development of tourism are more supportive of the development of tourism (Harrill, 2004). Caves and Tanrisevdi state that the process of tourism development evokes negative emotions (anger, and resentment) with the local inhabitants, and consequently lower satisfaction of the local people. In contrast, the local inhabitants that are involved in the planning of tourism development develop positive attitudes. Nevertheless, the findings show that the majority of the local inhabitants understands the development of tourism as a tool for economic development and growth (Gursoy, Jurowski, & Uysal, 2002).

Understanding the attitudes of the local population towards tourism is, therefore, very important, as is the integration of this understanding into plans of the development of sustainable tourism in a particular environment. Harrill (2004) states that the attitudes of the local population towards tourism affect three main reasons for tourism support: socioeconomic factor, spatial factor and economic dependence. Teye, Sirakaya, and Sönmez (2002) enumerate the following factors: the current relationship between tourists and residents, the importance of the tourism industry in the local community, economic dependency of the economy, the level of development of tourism in the area, the place of birth of each person, the duration of living of an inhabitant in the local community and, the distance between the place of residence of the inhabitant and the tourist center. Besculides, Lee, and McCormick (2002) state that the people with stronger ties with the local community are more concerned about the effects of tourism than those with weaker ties are. Smith and Kranninch (1998) demonstrate a direct link between the development of tourism and the emergence of negative attitudes among the local population, and Pearce (1980) argues that areas with highly developed tourism generate discontent of the local population because of the problems with parking, crime, rising prices, etc. (Bestard & Nadal, 2007, p. 195). According to Mason and Cheyne (2000), due to increased traffic, noise, and crime, women support the development of tourism less than men do. Several studies have explored the relationship between locations/activities of tourism development and the attitudes of the population, based on the hypothesis that '[the] closer a resident lives to concentrations of tourism activity, the more negative his or her perception will be of tourism development' (Harrill, 2004). The results of various studies differ, which is affected by various factors, Harill (2004b), however, claims that the attitude of the population towards tourism largely depends on how much money tourists bring and how much of it stays in the local community. Besculides et al. (2002) note that the local inhabitants are concerned about the impact of tourism on the environment, but also grateful for the existence and development of the tourism industry, as long as tourism is an important source of economic development in the region (Bestard & Nadal, 2007, p. 196).

Scientific research and literature in this area also show that the consideration of the opinions of local people is significant not only because of the better tourist services and facilities and increased revenue but also due to the more effective planning of the environment and nature conservation. New strategies not only take into account the opinions of residents, but they also promote their active involvement, which further contributes to the conservation of protected and endangered areas and the preservation of cultural heritage, which is a key reason for going to a tourist destination among many tourists (Farahani & Musa, 2008, p. 1233; Szell, 2012, p. 26).

Furthermore, research carried out in Slovenia, show similar results. Ambrož (2008) states that the attitude towards space is obviously an important factor in defining the relationship of individuals to the development of tourism, and at the same time he confirms the theses of the above-mentioned research in the Slovenian environment (p. 75).

Therefore, sustainable tourism management is of utmost importance. The elements of sustainability and sustainable management are also emphasized in the tourism development strategies, i.e. in the Strategy of sustainable growth of the Slovenian tourism 2017–2021 (Ministrstvo za gospodarski razvoj in tehnologijo, 2017), in the Strategy of tourism of the Brežice Municipality 2017–2021 (Občina Brežice & Fakulteta za turizem Univerze v Mariboru, 2016), as well as in the older tourism development strategies: Strategy of Development of Slovenian Tourism 2012–2016 (Vlada Republike Slovenije, 2012) and the Strategy of Development of the Tourist Destination of Posavje 2011–2015 (Regionalna razvojna agencija Posavje, 2011). In the of strategies, the equal participation of all stakeholders is modeled and educational actions to this end are prepared.

Material and Methods

The research questions of the presented article are how people in the rural area understand tourism and what the perception of tourism as a factor of local economic and societal development is.

The research was conducted in the Municipality of Brežice in 2015. The municipality lies in the southeastern part of Slovenia, in the Posavje Region, which is a typical rural area; it stretches over 268 km² and is located along the rivers Krka and Sava. In size, Brežice is among the ten largest municipalities in Slovenia. Brežice is an economic, administrative, and cultural centre of the Brežice Plain and the surrounding hills. The central area of the municipality is the plain, while the northern and southern parts are hilly and, due to its position, the municipality is suitable for fruit and wine growing. The area has excellent natural conditions, which is a prerequisite for the development of tourism. A major railway and a road link Ljubljana, the capital of Slovenia, and Zagreb, the capital of Croatia. The town has some industry (furniture, metal industry), developed wholesale trade (wine), production and service trade, and transport. In Brežice, there is also a general hospital, which covers the needs of the Posavje Region and wider surroundings. The cultural landscape is rounded off by the Posavje Museum in the Brežice Castle and the Brežice Grammar School (secondary school). Brežice also represents the school centre of the Posavje Region. There are the general Grammar School, Secondary School of Economics and Secondary Commercial School, and the Faculty of Tourism of the University of Maribor. An interesting attraction is the water tower, which is visible from afar and is one of the two such preserved towers in Slovenia (Rra-posavje.si, 2017; slovenia.info, 2017; Komočar, 2009, p. 14).

Statistical indicators show that according to the number of tourist overnight stays and tourist arrivals, for years, Brežice has been among the most successful tourist resorts in Slovenia, but the largest share, more than 90 per cent in this is held by the spa center of Terme Čatež (Škerbinc, 2014, p. 15; Škerbinc, 2016, pp. 13–25).

Furthermore, in other parts of the municipality diverse tourist services and facilities are available, but the majority of tourist still concentrated in the spa centre of Terme Čatež. To also attract domestic and foreign guests in the old town centre of Brežice, in the old town many fairs and festivals, cultural and sporting events are held. The spa represents one of the biggest employers in the municipality and is expected to manage local tourism development and invest in the development of the municipality and preservation of the environment. In the field of tourism management, there is a public institute for tourism development, but it is also occupied with youth policy and entrepreneurship incentives. Thus, Terme Čatež is one of the key factors shaping and influencing the perception of tourism and tourists in the local environment.

In the Municipality of Brežice, 24 semi-structured interviews with 25 questions were conducted with individuals who were employed in the tourism sector or were themselves owners of tourism businesses. The interviewees were hand-picked and equally distributed all over the area of the Municipality of Brežice. Among the interviewees, there were representatives of large and small tourism businesses and various tourist attractions. Interviews were carried out by the students of the Faculty of Tourism of the University of Primorska to maximise open and honest dialogue between the interviewer and interviewees. The interviews were conducted by two students, with one of the students asking the questions and talking to the interviewee and the other recording the answers on a paper sheet. All technical instruments for recording were forbidden due to honesty and transparency reasons.

The questionnaire contained 26 short open questions on interviewees' positions towards the tourism development in the Brežice municipality.

The interviews were later transcribed, and codification was conducted. The first level of codification was conducted on an individual level by the students and the second was performed in the panel of students and researchers. On the first level, all the statements of positions were isolated as single positions and counted for each question. On the second level, the same statements were joined. On the third level, statements were carefully analysed by a panel of students; similar statements were joined into single positions. After the first analysis, another round of codification was conducted on the first level by an individual researcher and on the second and third levels by the panel of researchers. Further, results and interpretation of both rounds of analysis are presented.

Results and Discussion

On the first level, 749 single statements on positions towards tourism and tourists in Brežice were counted. After the second round of analysis, 290 single positions to answer specific questions were identified. The third level of analysis was possible only on seven questions. The research showed that statements could be clustered into four main clusters: positive and negative positions related to personal (individual) level, and positive and negative positions related to the state of the art on the community level. Furthermore, positions are clearly expressed as positive or negative in the relation towards tourism and tourists in the municipality. On the basis of this research, a model of positions was constructed as presented in Figure 1.

The general research shows that people understand tourism as a positive phenomenon, since they understand that it adds to the importance of the town and brings dynamics and events to the local community. Through tourists, they realise the beauty of their landscape and richness of local heritage and grow in pride and self-confidence.

The findings of the research both confirm some previous findings and show bipolarity of the attitudes

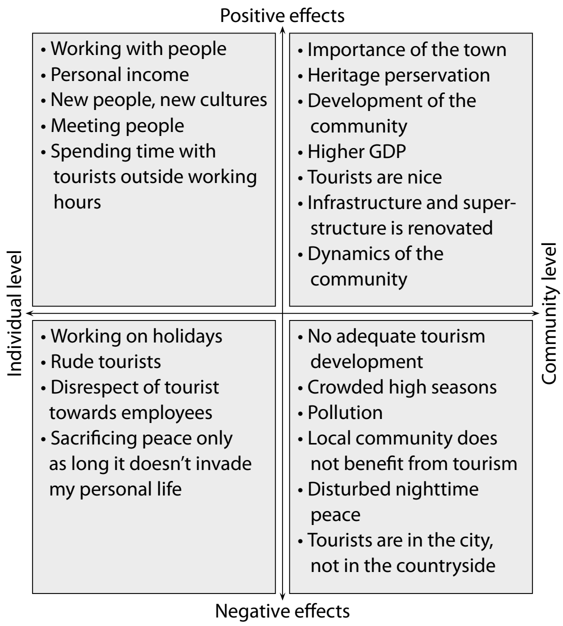

Figure 1 Model of Attitudes towards Tourism at Individual and Community Level

toward tourism and tourism development in the community. Similar to the Harrill (2004) findings, the research discussed in this paper has also shown that people who have the most of the financial benefits from the development of tourism are more supportive of the development of tourism. However, the distinction can be seen among those employed in the tourism businesses and small owners of tourism businesses. Those who are not owners of the businesses and only work in the tourism sector as employees are not ready to sacrifice their personal space and peace to support further tourism development.

The results of the research also support previous findings that show that the majority of the local inhabitants understands the development of tourism as a tool for economic development and growth. (Gursoy et al., 2002). However, the understanding of tourism as a part of everyday life differs on the individual and community levels. As presented in Figure 1, interviewees support the development of tourism as long as it does not invade their personal space, but they all support more tourist arrivals and further tourism development in every respect on the community level. On the community level, people support all the activities, festivals, sporting events and attractions but as long as the activities stay within the limits of to 10.00 p.m. to 6.00 a.m. nighttime peace rule. Interviewees indicate the need to be open to the tourists and let them into their lives, but do not want to socialise with them in their own free time. The majority of them speak with tourists strictly in the scope of their working duties, but at the same time, they admit that tourists usually want to learn how people live in the community and become acquainted with their everyday habits.

The vast majority of the interviewees expressed the need to improve the relationships with tourists to benefit from the tourism development, but they simultaneously do not believe this is possible in a short period nor do they see themselves as the initiators of any changes. They expect that the next generations will take the leading roles in this area, and support the bigger involvement of the local government institutions in the promotion of the area.

Conclusion

Today, tourism is widely recognised as a strong factor in rural area development. This recognition includes high expectations in the field of sustainability, green policy stakeholder participation. Residents and local businesses must be included in strategic planning and implementation of developing sustainable tourism. Evidence from this and other research show the need for mediation and strong cooperation among residents, all big and small tourism businesses and private and volunteer associations. There should be consensus on the kind of tourism to be developed in the community, and the responsibility for actions should be equally distributed.

The inhabitants of the Municipality of Brežice have positive relationship toward tourism, but they do not want it to invade too much into their personal lives. This is in a way contradictory to their observation in the interviews when stating that tourists want to find out how people live everyday life. They expect tourism will boost the development of the rural area in the future, and that local government and the biggest tourism businesses will take the leading roles and responsibility for the tourism development in the community. The findings clearly indicate the need for active destination management and actions with regards to stakeholder education and involvement. Furthermore, more emphasis should be put on the quality of life of residents and in the processes of education and raising the sense of hospitality.

For more specific answers, further research is needed. This research was conducted only in private and partly in the civil sector, but not in the public sector, which is an important stakeholder in the local tourism development in rural areas. Local government and public institutions, also public health organisations, schools, sport and cultural organisations should be captured in the research in order to prepare some guidelines how to model the stakeholder participation in a rural area.

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Business Model Innovation in Tourism: How to Survive in Highly Competitive Environments

Robert Ambrož
Advansys d.o.o., Slovenia
robert.ambroz@intima.si

Doris Gomezelj Omerzel
University of Primorska, Faculty of Management, Slovenia
doris.gomezelj@fm-kp.si

The objective of this research is to clarify the role and the importance of the business model in tourism and to demonstrate the necessity of changing the business model to maintain competitiveness. By employing the Osterwalder nine-block business model Canvas framework, an interview with the manager of Slovenian tourist agency was conducted. Without the innovation of individual segments of the business model or, more often the majority of its dimensions, the firm would not have survived. In our case, the necessity of innovating the business model was confirmed by the statement of the agency's manager: 'In any case, without changes, we would no longer exist on the market; without future changes, we will no longer exist on the market either.' This article presents a single case study; therefore, the results may have limited generalisability. Everyday changes in competitive markets should be met by the innovation of business models. Tourism firms must be able to articulate and innovate their business model if they want to survive in a rapidly evolving competitive global market. Although studies on business modelling are common in the tourism sector, little about them has been documented regarding the tourism sector in Slovenia. Hence, this study, which focuses on a Slovenian tourist agency, aims to fill this knowledge gap. Our case is particularly interesting, because we have demonstrated the interdependence of segments and their modification, we have shown that the business model is already present in the tourist agency, and we articulated it.

Keywords: tourism, business model, Canvas business model, innovation
https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10.175-183

Introduction

Companies' external environments are changing rapidly, as are the habits and preferences of consumers. Consequently, any organisation that wants to remain competitive and survive on the market should constantly make changes in their business. The real challenge for a company is to maximise the impact of changed business, even though changes usually require resources, while the outcome of implemented changes is often uncertain. Using the proper tools can aid in being successful in this process.

Since its establishment, each organisation explicitly or implicitly possesses a business model that explains a way of creating value for the customer, the method of delivering the value to the customer, and the method of making a profit (Teece, 2010). We need to know and understand all the elements of the business model, only then can it be successfully changed (Chesbrough, 2007). The business functions that are defined in the business model are mutually interdependent. Therefore, each time one element of the business model is changed, this mutual interdependence must be considered.

An innovative business model can play an essential role in the competitiveness of the organisation. It enables it to commercialise new ideas or technologies. Furthermore, we believe that the innovative business model itself represents a competitive advantage.

Theoretical Framework

Managers should give high priority to business model innovation, as this can help to identify sources of profits and revenues. The main research question is whether organisations in the tourism sector with the aim of achieving greater competitiveness are changing their business model and how they change it. Accordingly, the primary purpose of this paper is to (1) clarify the role and the importance of the business model in tourism, and (2) demonstrate the necessity of changing the business model to maintain competitiveness.

By employing the Osterwalder nine-block business model Canvas framework, an interview with a Slovenian tourist agency was conducted.

Business Model

Despite a growing body of literature and studies in the area of business model concepts, a consensus among scholars has not yet been reached (Yunus, Moingeon, & Lehmann-Ortega, 2010). Regardless, after a period of a lack of a universal definition for the term 'business model,' it can be seen that the confusion in this area is decreasing and common grounds are being approached. In their study, Zott, Amit, and Massa (2010) explored the development of the concept of business model and, despite the diversity of different researchers' views, they found some common issues. First, business models are becoming a significant unit of business analysis in firms; second, business models help firms perform an integral approach when explaining how the firms operate; third, all the firms' activities are presented in the conceptualisations of the proposed business model; fourth, the business model is a great framework for explaining how value in the firm is created.

A business model explains the firm's ability to capture value. It brings the request for competitive advantage to the forefront (Casadesus-Masanell & Heilbron, 2015). However, it is hard to find a theoretical foundation of the business model definition in economic or business studies. According to Teece (2010), there are some key facts for this situation. Economic theory assumes that business is based on tangible things. It is clear that a consumer will pay if a firm delivers value at a competitive price. Therefore, it is possible to regulate the entire process of selling by regulating prices. In accordance with this theory the intangible factors, which are also parts of the business models, are not important. The business model can come into existence before the organisation is founded. Thus, a business model exists independently of the firm, while the firm cannot exist without a business model.

As product innovation is not enough to offer sufficient competitive advantage (competitors can quickly copy innovations), business model innovation is an opportunity to build sustainable competitive advantage (Teece, 2010). The concept of the business model is simple: it is the business logic of the firm (Tikkanen, Lamberg, Parvinen, & Kallunki, 2005; Gebauer & Ginsburg 2003), representing the strategic positioning on the market (Yip, 2004); it is about how a firm sustains growth and creates and captures value for stakeholders (Casadesus-Masanell & Ricart, 2010). For Timmers (1998), a business model is the architecture for the product or service, involving different business actors (partners, competitors, and customers), the presentation of resources and the description of how to make revenues. Magretta (2002) describes the business model as writing a story about the company. Moreover, it enables firms to capture value from their innovations (Chesbrough & Rosenbloom 2002). The ability to create growth also depends on competitors. As the competitive environment is changing rapidly, business models also require constant improvements. Business models explain how to capture a suitable share of the value, and strong models enable firms to capture a significant portion of that value and provide firms the potential to keep or to build competitive advantage. Good and efficient business models are coherent (all the parts of the model should be in accordance with each other) and they offer competitive advantage (by building a strategic asset as a unique product, differentiated channels, information advantage) (Euchner & Ganguly, 2014).

A significant turning point in developing an integrated definition of the business model occurred when researchers stopped directly editing a different definition of the business model; instead of this they simply did an inventory of all the components used in the definition. Osterwalder, Pigneur and Tucci (2005) have identified nine components; they later assembled a visualisation tool called 'Canvas.' We should be aware, that Canvas is not a business model, but it is only a tool that enables firms to articulate their business model.

Canvas represents the individual dimensions of the business model and their properties. With the classification of them, it reveals the determinants that apply in a competitive environment. At the same time, it provides a clear summary of the areas where improvements can be implemented and where innovations of the business model of the organisation are needed. The value for the user is situated in the centre; the right side refers to the relationship with customers, the left side with suppliers, while the lower part represents cash flows.

Business Model Innovation

Business model innovation radically changes the processes within the organisation with a view to achieving a competitive advantage or, in an extreme form, the survival of the organisation (Linder & Cantrell, 2000). In their study, Euchner and Ganguly (2014) stated that each innovation that creates new markets or affects the competitive advantage of competitors can be understood as business model innovation. Lindgardt, Reeves, Stalk, and Deimler (2009) also said that to start talking about a business model innovation, two or more elements of business model should be changed, and the value should be delivered to customers in a new way. For Matzler, Bailom, Friedrich, and Kohler (2013), business model innovation is a result of the organisation aiming to increase customer value and thus creating a new means of value and revenue creation, enabling the organisation to capture this value.

The process of business model innovation is a complex and challenging task. Moreover, it is a systematic procedural activity that can enable the organisation to perform in new markets, with new customers, capturing different positions in the market, and offering new value to existing customers. Najmaei (2011) stated that business model innovation even extends to strategic planning and decision-making. Therefore, all processes within the organisation and the relationships with the environment, its resources and future needs should be self-evident to the individuals that are responsible for the changes and improvements in business model innovation. In addition, the knowledge and understanding of the current business model are essential to the process of business model innovation. Aiming to define the current position and possible improvements of the business model, Chesbrough (2007) proposed a framework for the classification of organisations based on the properties of their business model. According to the level of how their business model is developed, he identified six different types of firms, i.e. firms having their business model badly defined, only partially defined, segmented, opened, with innovation processes integrated, and in the form of a flexible platform.

In their study, Amit and Zott (2012) suggested to managers that they should have clear answers to some key issues before starting with implementing innovation. They should know which of the customer's problems will be resolved with a new business model, what new activities are required to solve these problems, how these activities will be related to each other, who will carry out each activity, and how the new value and revenues for stakeholders will be created through the new business model. Matzler et al. (2013) identified three types of business model innovation. First, the value is not added to the product or service, but the added value is the result of reduced costs and prices. In this case, both for the customers and for the firm the additional value is created. Second, customers are willing to pay more for innovative products or services. Third, reduced prices for a truncated product or service may present higher value for customers.

Business Model Innovation in Tourism

Like other industry sectors, the tourism industry has also encountered a variety of changes recently. New technologies and new tourist habits are the main reasons for the constant development. In tourism, new business opportunities are emerging due to internal and external forces (Wensveen & Leick, 2009). In addition to the emergence of the Internet, which significantly influenced the development of business models (the possibility of integrating tourists in tourism firm's processes, the facilitation of the collaboration with partners and networking, reaching customers through new channels as social media), new ways of pricing and revenue streams can also be identified (Verma & Varma, 2003). A great number of new opportunities regarding new business models in contrast to the old ones have been created.

In the tourism sector, travel agencies are obviously conscious of the need to adapt their business model according to the current changes on the tourism market. The first step in this adaptation to the new characteristics of the tourism sector is the understanding of different dimensions in their current business model. The Canvas business model (Osterwalder & Pigneur, 2010) by itself can provide firms options for the agencies. Aiming to make changes and improvements in their performance, travel agencies should start with the transformation of their business models.

The value proposition (for customers) is always at the heart of Canvas. This dimension is a key factor in the process of obtaining (or losing) customers. It is the foundation of the entire business model as it explains how to solve the problem of a firm's customers. By solving these problems better than their competitors do, the firm's product/service becomes more attractive. The customer segments part is about to whom the value proposition is offered. It can include different segments that exist on the market, namely private customers or business partners, students, young people, seniors, cultural travellers, adventurers, families, disabled people, a specific niche market (customers that are searching for a customised travel destination), etc. Key partners are another dimension of the Canvas business model. The customer relationships part is about how the firm is interacting with and handling customers. In recent years, especially in the tourism sector, an important role was given to the co-creation of the products/services. Channels represent all the ways to access consumers. The key activities are positioned on the supply side of the Canvas business model. They include all the activities that are undertaken by the firm with the aim of making their business model work. The key resources constitute tangible and intangible resources necessary to create and deliver value. They are divided into human, physical, intellectual, and financial. The lower part of the Canvas framework represents costs (expenses) and revenues.

Methodology

In the process of designing the interview, we paid special attention to the possibility of informal information detection during the interview. The interviewee knowingly provided us with direct information, while subconsciously he also offered information enabling credible and impartial complementary insight into the life of the organisation. This was achieved via suitably shaped main issues and intermediate sub-questions. The interviewee was not only directed but also encouraged to present a comprehensive and realistic depiction of the travel agency operations.

Research Methods

In the theoretical part, we analysed the content of previous research and used a few practical examples. Emphasis was placed on the presentation of the concept of business model and the importance and urgency of its innovation. In the empirical part, through an individual semi-structured interview with a targeted selection of a tourist agency, we covered the content that served to determine the change of business models in organisations. By analysing the interview, we thus tried to come to understand how the company is changing its business model, and how successful they are at it, regarding the implicit or explicit presence of the business model. The semi-structured interview consisted of eleven questions, the first nine of which were intended to verify the format and segments of changing the business model. The last two questions checked how this change was reflected in the success of the organisation. The credibility of the research was increased by the analysis of formal and informal information.

Analysis and Interpretation of Data from the Semi-Structured Interview

The interview of the management of the organisation was carried out in a company that includes a travel agency as an autonomous unit. In the interview the head of the agency, who had a complete overview of the entire operation of the company, participated. Innovating a business model applies to all segments of the company, and because we wanted to obtain a consistent image of the changing processes within the company, we needed to obtain information about all activities. To facilitate a better interaction of the participating interviewee we decided to record the interview. Thus, in addition to a more accurate recording of content, we enabled the study of subjective experiences of the interviewee through his non-verbal feedback, which was even more pronounced due to personal acquaintance.

The information thus obtained was arranged by individual questions from the interview, referring to the Osterwalder Business Model Canvas with the nine business model building blocks. To that, we added two questions from a questionnaire, which was used to determine the position of the participating tourist agency in the study with regard to changes within the organisation.

Findings

The interview was recorded using the appropriate technical equipment, with the analysis and interpretation being performed point by point while respecting the overall context of the interview. In so doing, we reduced the impact of problems with retrieving information and their incorrect classification according to individual segments of the visualisation tool.

The agency increased the value for customers through greater transparency in supply and thus a lower risk for customers, including tourist product personalisation and greater economy of use, even though it retains the classic shape of the offer due to the average age and the informational awareness of its customers. The practice of recent years in the foreign and domestic market confirms that for a better position in the market the customer needs to be offered more, including Web support for commerce in the otherwise rather rigid sales policies of the organisation.

Within the observation period of the previous five years, the agency was active mostly on the Slovenian market. The Italian market had no relevant share. With the onset of the economic crisis, this ratio began to change. The number of individual customers was diminishing, and the lower standard of living caused a drastic reduction in the volume of the middle segment. Therefore, they shifted to the segment of firms, groups and societies, and particularly to the Italian market. Due to the new situation in the Slovenian market, the direction toward acquiring new customers from abroad was a logical step, as the latter have greater economic potential than the Slovenian market does. The segment was further changed by reducing their own sales via the distribution network of other agencies. At the onset of the crisis, the agency was forced to radically innovate the customer segment. This was of existential importance to them; without it, they would have had a difficult time surviving.

The agency changed the key partners segment to a lesser extent, but the change was still noticeable. The reason for the change was to expand into foreign markets as well as the need to create higher added value and bring higher value to the user in the form of higher quality products. Particular significance can be attributed to the last statement about the necessity of change, as this declaration is repeated in a similar form throughout the entire interview.

In the field of travel agencies, the customer relationship dimension of the business model is somewhat specific. In the short term, it is important to maintain existing customers and to promote sales of more expensive products, as well as to promote the increase in the frequency of purchase. The agency was thinking in the direction of enhancing the quality of the product itself, which would, in turn, bring higher prices, and was keen on increasing sales volume. From a long-term perspective, it is unquestionably only important to acquire new customers; in this respect, they placed high hopes on the Italian market. We noted that previously there had been no need for this. Nowadays they strive toward long-term stable operations; thus, they are aware of the importance of the activity of maintaining the existing customers as well as of acquiring new ones. Existing customers have received considerable attention; however, they are aware that this attention will someday cease.

They include customers in the co-creation of tourism products from the initial formation of the product onward. Particular emphasis is placed on closed groups, where the greatest involvement of customers is present. They started to change this part of the customer segment upon entering the Italian market. On the Slovenian market, similar changes were carried out mainly with the purpose of reducing the dissatisfaction of the Slovenian customers who, despite the lower prices, expected the same level of services. The interviewees ascribed great importance to the customers' involvement in creating a better product; however, we noted through our interview that this was an advantage that they neither knew how to present nor how to advertise.

It may be noted that the agency changed the customer relationship dimension because of the better harmony with other business model dimensions as well as due to external changes. In the past, they had used the concept of customer's co-creation of products; it now was being used on a larger scale.

Because of the higher average age of the customers, the main distribution channel remains face to face contact. New opportunities for channels via the World Wide Web did not significantly affect the operations in the agency. The agency always practiced direct interaction with its customers. The Internet works well for the so-called 'tendered trips,' by which a certain number of arrangements is prepared and offered for sale. We noted that in this case the communication channel of direct mail was very effective. With a view to long-term stability, they are preparing changes to place greater emphasis on intensive online sales. They are also preparing the introduction of loyalty cards.

Thus, the distribution channels, depending on the specificity of the agency's operations in a specific environment, have not changed significantly. However, we noted that certain changes have been made and that the agency was working on some major changes in the future.

We found that the key activities of the agency did not change and that tourism products remained a 'core business.' The agency was focused on tourism and the form of offer did not change. This was also the position of the organisation's management as, in accordance with the main orientation, the tourist industry supported the core capabilities of the organisation.

Among the key activities, the 'identity trap' phenomenon was dominating. The organisation's management did not see the need for new key activities, and they took even less fondly to the chance that these new activities could be used in the role of core capabilities. This example confirmed, as had also been shown by our previous study (Ambrož, 2015), the rule that this segment is the most neglected one in most cases of business model innovation.

Regarding key resources, only one new employee had been hired. This made it easier for them to cope with the increased workload. The new employee had a license to use the central reservation system. Regarding the financial resources, there had been no change. In the past, they tried to pass the risk of indebtedness on to the consumers with the help of credit cards, but that did not work out. The change of key partners has enabled much shorter periods of advance payments and in some cases even the possibility of paying after the related service has been provided. Therefore, this segment has not experienced significant changes. Stable staffing is not always positive, since it represents the basis for the aforementioned trap of identity. Here, too, the paradigm of the absence of employee training is dominating because the costs would not allow it. Although human resources and their competence are crucial for an organisation, the training of employees is, in most cases, absent from the Slovene environment.

Due to the nature of operations, the variable costs are the most significant. The fixed costs represent a lesser impact. The price of the products was largely controlled by the managing of variable costs. The fixed costs proved a slight increase at the level of the agency but only due to an additional employee, and consisted of labour costs and rental costs. We noted that major changes in this costs structure were not implemented. This segment in the agency was relatively stable. We assumed that the absence of the need to amend this segment, thereby optimising the business activities, was due to stable operations.

At the beginning of the observation period, the majority of customers were families; thus, there were many payments in cash. The agency wanted to minimise the share of the cash payments; therefore, the majority of invoices were paid through the bank. The transition from the cash payments means less time spent at the cash register and less chance of error. In the future, they want to eliminate cash payments. Dynamic pricing depending on the tourist season is an established practice in the travel industry. In addition, they wanted to implement further changes with dynamic pricing at the daily level; however, they are limited by Slovenian legislation. More specifically, they are limited by administrative obstacles and are not allowed to change the prices quoted during the day. Their aim to introduce dynamic price changing was thus hindered by administrative barriers.

Changes regarding the revenues stream were seen as a reactive adaptation to the changing market conditions as well as the desire for a more proactive approach to enhance competitiveness. The absurdity of this was that the agency wanted to introduce changes, but they were not able to do so because of legislative restrictions.

Discussion, Limitations, and Assumptions

Many studies have focused on how business model thinking can be employed in entrepreneurial startups; however, it can also be used as an opportunity for managerial thinking in established firms (Baden-Fuller & Mangematin, 2013). Doing so, we found new insights into how a tourist agency innovates its business models to adapt to new market challenges. In a previous study (Ambrož, 2015), it was found that some organisations could survive without introducing any changes and without major consequences. Such cases were seen as possible only because of the absence of competition in the local environment and the rigidity of such environments. Most organisations were convinced that without the innovation of individual segments of the business model, or more often the majority of its dimensions, they would no longer exist. Also in our case of the tourist agency, the necessity of innovating the business model was confirmed by the statement of the agency's manager: 'In any case, without changes, we would no longer exist on the market; without future changes, we will no longer exist either.'

We noted that the implemented changes were extremely urgent and of key importance. The agency was aware that changes – of course, if they want to remain competitive and survive – will also be indispensable in the future.

The agency has discovered hidden resources in additional competencies. They also found that their digital platform allowed for an incomparably greater dynamic in adapting their offers for the customer. This is especially true for the tourism sector, where customers require rapid and effective solutions. In addition, they also found that a different organisational form (for example, the dynamic allocation of tasks) would increasingly support various demands from customers.

The agency manager is well aware of the direct and indirect benefits of changes and stressed that the latter were essential. This enabled them to survive, to remain competitive, and to justify the starting point for further changes, for the gradual relocation of part of their business to the field of digital technologies. Significant benefit was observed in the necessity of certain changes, which made it easier to change the segments that did not necessarily need changing. In fact, the business model innovation comprises a variety of incremental modifications that improve a firm's performance (Martins, Rindova, & Greenbaum, 2015).

This research was based on several assumptions. The first assumption was that an organisation wants to be competitive, which represents the basis for its long-term survival in the market. Therefore, we chose a travel agency with a locally prominent role and a long tradition. Another assumption was that the business environment is constantly changing. In this case, an organisation needs to change along with it. The study included certain methodological and substantive limitations in addressing the problem. The first limitation is the internal validity of the information, which is analysed on the basis of subjectively shaped patterns and categories of that qualitative analysis of interviews. Moreover, substantive limitations cannot be avoided due to the choice of the organisation. To improve the credibility of the research findings, we would need a larger sample of companies, which would exclude the impact of the extensive general economic crisis in Slovenia. Finally, one of the problems was also the recollection of changes made within the organisation by the participant in the survey, which was in the interpretation partially mitigated by searching for patterns in the context of the entire interview.

Implications for Practice and Consequences

The key finding of our research is that many organisations are not aware of their business model; moreover, they have never articulated it. Chesbrough (2007) stressed that the business model is always present in an organisation whether it is articulated or not. The most important conclusion for the practice is that the organisations must articulate their business models first and then innovate them. There is no need for high technology to drop out of existing business models or even ways of thinking and there are no limits regarding the industry. The tourism industry is not an exception. In every industry, organisations can innovate and overtake their competition if they will step into customer's shoes, rethink their existing way of business and discover new ways of delivering added value to their customers.

Managers in tourism firms should use their business models to identify the values of their products and what their customers are willing to pay for. They must find ways to make money and evaluate costs in the value creation process. It is necessary for the company to realise who their most essential customers are, how to reach them and what the most appropriate way of communication with them is.

The Canvas business model should be applied to all tourism companies. We have proved that it is a useful tool when analysing the performance of the organisations. Furthermore, as the tourism industry is constantly confronting global changes, companies are forced and obliged to innovate and thus to change their business models. The Canvas business model can be used for the analysis of the state of art in the company as well as in the process of developing new business concepts. Moreover, it should serve as support in the decision-making processes.

Conclusion

How can we measure the extent of change and recognise whether we have made significant changes or not, if we only have subjective judgment? Is the change of the customers' profile of the agency large or small? Is it also possible to realise that some changes do not mean innovation of the agency business model? Our case is particularly interesting because we have (1) demonstrated the interdependence of segments and their modifying, (2) observed that innovation of business model lead to new revenue streams and thus to survival and competitiveness, (3) showed that the business model is already present in tourist agency and we articulated it, (4) presented the necessity of changing the business model that is inherent to an organisation in order to maintain competitiveness, (5) identified changes that are drastic for some companies in their business, (6) emphasised the relativity of the scope of changes (e.g. ratio between direct/indirect sales, change payment methods, etc.). In our case of the tourist agency, the necessity of innovating the business model was confirmed by the statement of the agency's manager: 'In any case, without changes, we would no longer exist on the market; without future changes, we will no longer exist on the market either.'

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The Transfer of Travel Habits from Childhood to Adulthood

Anja Lazar
University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica, Slovenia
anja.lazar1@gmail.com

Janja Gabruč
University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica, Slovenia
janja.gabruc@fts.upr.si

This study examines whether tourists' travel habits and patterns transfer from their childhood to adulthood and which elements of their vacation are most commonly repeated in their adulthood. We have examined this phenomenon through a survey questionnaire which has been completed by 111 respondents who take vacations regularly. The survey presented two sets of eleven pairing statements relating to the following travel elements: destination, spatial repetition, frequency, duration, timing, organization, travel party composition, type of vacation, vacation activities, accommodation and travel mode. First set of eleven pairing statements referred to the present while the second set referred to the past. We have examined repetition by calculating correlations between pairing statements. The results have shown existence of weak correlations between the majority of pairing statements which suggests repetition of repetition of childhood patterns and habits. The highest repetition rate has been noted with transport, activities and time elements, while no correlation has been noted with frequency element.

Keywords: tourism, tourist, pattern, habit, travel
https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10.185-188

Introduction

The concept of habits in daily life is well recognised; they act as a link between a certain goal and the necessary action to accomplish this goal (Aarts & Dijksterhis, 2000) with the purpose of saving the time and effort that our brain needs to complete some of the tasks we frequently perform (Duhigg, 2012). Research has also shown that our past behaviour is the strongest predictor of our future behaviour, especially when talking about repetitive tasks that are performed day after day; in contrast, other, less frequent tasks are believed to be a result of conscious intent (Ouellette & Wood, 1998). Whilst we agree with the opinion that a tourist purchase cannot be equated to one made in a supermarket (Papatheodorou, 2001), we think that some level of routine and patterns of habit could be noted in tourists' decision-making process when they are making vacation purchases (Chang & Gibson, 2015).

The purpose of this research was to obtain insight into whether some kinds of habits and pattern of repetition are also noted at times when decisions about tourist trips have to be made. The aim is to examine whether tourists' travel habits and patterns transfer from their childhood to adulthood and which elements of their trips are most commonly being repeated in their adulthood. A tourist trip considered in this study was every departure from home that included at least one and not more than 365 consequent overnights. Only leisure trips, i.e. vacations have been taken into account (business trips have been excluded). Touristic patterns, which were the main objective of this research, were perceived as a tourist's behaviour in a certain period (Bargeman, Joh, & Timmermans, 2002). To date, thorough research on the repetition of vacation patterns has been relatively rare. A general opinion that habits and patterns are not relevant to vacation decision making prevails, with the exception of Chang and Gibson (2015) who thought that habits were an important concept in understanding tourists' behaviour.

Eleven travel elements have been identified for the purpose of this research, which we believe represent a factor in decision making and are considered when tourists make their purchases for a vacation trip. These elements are: (tourist) *destination; spatial repetition* (repeated visits to the same destination; Gitelson and Crompton, 1984); (vacation) *frequency,* defined yearly; (vacation) *duration; timing* (period of the year when vacations take place); *organisation* (level of vacations organised by tour operators); *travel party composition* (party of people traveling together); *type of vacations* (planned/unplanned, different landscape types); *activities* (which tourists pursue while on vacation); *accommodation type* (chosen for the time of vacations); and *type of transport* (chosen for the time of vacation).

Methods

A three-part questionnaire was designed for the purpose of this research. The first part consisted of eleven sentences relating to the participant's present travelling choices. The second part consisted of eleven similar sentences, except related to the participant's travel choices from childhood. Each of the eleven sentences from the first and second parts related to one of the eleven travel elements. This type of questionnaire allowed us to examine correlations between the past and present travel choices using a simple statistical method of correlations. The third part consisted of basic demographic questions; the entire questionnaire had a total of 27 questions and statements.

The eleven pairing statements were designed as 5-point Likert-type scales, and we set an additional question examining the participants' opinion on the occurrence of the repetition of their travel patterns. The questionnaire was set up through an online platform which remained active for three consecutive days, during which we collected 111 completed questionnaires. Convenience sampling was used; the participants were recruited from online social networks, and a web link to the questionnaire site was sent via e-mail and posted on online forums. The personal characteristics required were that the age of the participants was greater than 18 years, as this is the age when in most countries people are considered to be adults and are allowed to travel without the supervision of their parents, and frequent traveling, which was defined as taking at least one trip every two consecutive years. We performed statistical analysis with SPSS Statistics software while using the method of descriptive statistics and the calculation of correlations using the Pearson correlation coefficient. The correlations have been calculated only between the 11 pairing statements from the first and the second parts of the questionnaire, and not between all possible combinations of presented statements.

Results

Out of 111 participants, 74.8% were female, and 25.2% were male. The majority was aged between 18 and 30 years (57.7%), had completed their undergraduate studies (45.9%) and were currently employed (57.7%).

Results have shown positive correlations between 10 out of 11 pairing statements. This outcome suggests the repetition of childhood patterns and habits. The highest repetition rate has been noted with the elements of transport (r = 0.378), activities (r = 0.360) and timing (r = 0.316). Spatial Repetition (0.309), Accommodation (0.290), Organisation (0.248), Travel Party Composition (0.240), Destination (0.225) and Type of Vacations (0.209) also showed correlations, while no correlation has been noted with the element of Frequency (0.171., sig. at 0.076 level). The correlations have been identified as low/weak, which shows that they were not distinctive. The findings are represented in Table 1.

The findings also showed that the majority of respondents (74%) believe they do not repeat their childhood travel patterns.

Table 1 Pearson Correlation and Significance in Each Dimension

Elements	Pearson Correlation	Significance (2-tailed)
Destination	0.225	0.018
Spatial Repetition	0.309	0.001
Frequency	0.171	0.076
Duration	0.203	0.035
Timing	0.316	0.001
Organisation	0.248	0.010
Travel Party Composition	0.240	0.013
Type of Vacations	0.209	0.031
Activities	0.360	0.000
Accommodation Type	0.290	0.002
Type of Transport	0.387	0.000

Discussion & Conclusion

The findings of this research show the existence of childhood travel patterns and their influence on travel decision making in adulthood. With 10 out of 11 comparing statements from both periods (i.e. childhood and adulthood) correlating, there is a strong inclination of childhood travel patterns being of great importance for tourists when they are making decisions about their future vacation plans. Transport, activities, and timing showed the highest rate of correlation, meaning that tourists make similar decisions in these regards as the ones which were made on their behalf in their childhood. These are important findings, linking similar behaviour from two different time periods in people's lives. The only element not showing correlation was frequency, meaning that the rate of vacation occurrence is not currently the same as it was in the tourists' childhood. The statement in the questionnaire was formed specifically and stated that the tourist takes vacations once per year. With no existing correlation, we are able to conclude that tourists take vacations with different frequencies than they did in their childhood, which coincides with the current trend of more frequent but shorter vacation trips (Graham, 2001; Vanhoe, 2005; OECD, 2016; Alegre, Mateo, & Pou, 2009).

Interestingly, respondents' opinion on the repetition of their childhood travel patterns showed different results from the statistical correlations. A possible explanation for this outcome could lie in a lack of awareness of the childhood habits that were being unconsciously repeated in adulthood.

There were some limitations to this study. The characteristics of the participants could have been better spread through different age clusters as the typical participant's characteristics were female at the age of 18 to 30. More evenly distributed characteristics could potentially result in a different image of possible repetition although there is no reason to believe that young women are more or less inclined to repeat the tourist behaviour from their childhood than people with different demographics. We would, however, advise future researchers to distribute the demographic characteristics of their participants more evenly.

These findings offer the opportunity to investigate the subject further into the complexity of its study theme. Discovering why the correlations were expressed as low/weak and which type of tourists generate stronger correlations between their travel decisions in childhood and adulthood would bring a practical use to tourism management. The findings could be of great significance to the marketing field of the tourism industry and could show which marketing segment of tourists would be the most inclined to repeat their childhood travel patterns, and how to approach this segment with the highest possible efficiency.

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Encuentros/AIRTH 2017 Conference

Florian Zach
Washington State University, USA
florian.zach@wsu.edu

Dejan Križaj
University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica, Slovenia
dejan.krizaj@fts.upr.si

https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10.189

Innovation is a cornerstone of economic development, but interest in tourism and hospitality innovation comes and goes. Nevertheless, in recent years there has been a constant, yet small, stream of research in this area. The Alliance for Innovators and Researchers in Tourism and Hospitality (AIRTH) is a network of innovation minded scholars. The goal of AIRTH is to work with interested institutions to arrange for conferences, events and projects to put a permanent spotlight on innovation in tourism & hospitality management. These activities should be opportunities for scholars and practitioners alike to learn from each other and to initiate collaborative work.

The first AIRTH official event happened in Slovenia in March 2017 as the 6th International Tourism Conference Encuentros co-hosted by AIRTH and called a special tourism innovation 'road-trip conference' with its official title 'Innovation in Tourism and Hospitality – Preparing for the Future.'

The conference was organized by the Faculty of Tourism Studies, University of Primorska (Turistica) and Alliance for Innovators and Researchers in Tourism and Hospitality (AIRTH) at Encuentros Conference Center, Portorož, Slovenia. The conference focused on critical issues related to innovation in tourism and hospitality. It primarily served two purposes:

1. To understand innovation in tourism and hospitality with respect to (a) conditions that support and enable innovation, (b) meanings, scope and impacts of innovation, and (c) success factors in the practice of innovation.
2. To kick-start the AIRTH network in order to attract individuals by becoming (a) the home for researchers and scholars for intellectual exchanges, and (b) the go-to place for practitioners for ideas, experiences, and new tools.

Atfer the first presentation day, the participants, divided in groups and embarked on a day long trip to Slovenian tourism and hospitality businesses that mastered innovation and are recipients of the National Slovenian Tourism Innovation Award. This was followed by a third day's discussion and consensus session. A special part of the event was round table 'Innovative Tourism 2016, 2017 and Beyond' with 2016 National Slovenian Tourism Innovation Award winners.

Conference's program and proceedings are available at www.airth.global and and www.encuentros.si. In this journal's AIRTH/Encuentros section two full contributions are presented out of the full list of conference presentations:

Nakamura, K., Sakamoto, H., & Križaj, D., Social value creation in art related tourism projects: The role of creative project actors in diverse national and international settings.

Brehm, L., Križaj, D., & Pohjola, P., Generalizing of the EDIT model for non-tourism domains.

Social Value Creation in Art-Related Tourism Projects: The Role of Creative Project Actors in Diverse National and International Settings

Kotaro Nakamura
Japan Advanced Institute of Science and Technology – eCraft Inc., Japan
knakamura@ecraftjapan.com

Hideyuki Sakamoto
School of Interior & Architectural Design, Kanazawa College of Art, Japan
sakamoto@kanazawa-bidai.ac.jp

Dejan Križaj
University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica, Slovenia
dejan.krizaj@fts.upr.si

To clarify the role of art and artists as creative actors in art-related tourism projects, the study focuses, from the perspective of social value creation, on art projects that are in the development stage and that aim to promote local sustainability. We propose a framework for comprehensive understanding the social value creation in terms of the service-dominant logic (SDL) theory. The framework applies eleven attributes organised in four (why-who-what-how) categories to obtain six kinds of insight into the project actors' network ecosystem. The framework is applied to case studies from Japan: the 'Kanazawa Creative Tourism' (KCT) project in a cultural-heritage city, the 'Kinokuni Train Art' (KTA) project along a railway line running through a coastal area with rich natural resources, and similar projects in Slovenia. Through stakeholders' interviews, field surveys and theoretical research we analyse and compare these projects in terms of the attributes of the proposed framework. The study provides insights towards identifying the major types of creatively involved actors of art-related tourism projects: mostly local artists and craftsmen, but also members involved mainly as collaboration generators and intermediaries operating at different integration levels. To validate the framework's destination management insights in a broader international background, we refer in the discussion to similar examples with different cultural and geographical backgrounds and/or maturity level from Slovenia, an EU country.

Keywords: tourism, art projects, SDL, resource integration, value co-creation
https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10.191-203

Introduction and Method

The number of art projects in Japan has reached about 200, from freshly launched local-level events to large-scale festivals over wider regions, already bearing economic results. This reflects the ongoing change of contemporary arts: the creative style of artists attaches importance to participant interaction and extends art activities beyond the simple creation of artworks towards the social practices and networking of 'socially engaged art' (Helguera, 2011).

Two recent examples are the Setouchi Triennale 2016 and the Echigo-Tsumari Triennale 2015. The Setouchi Triennale is an art project taking place on 12 islands in Japan's Seto Inland Sea, focused on food and other local projects conveying regional culture 'connecting with Asia and the World via the sea' (Setouchiartfest, 2017). The Echigo-Tsumari Triennale is held in a snowy rural region and has been pursuing the integration of natural and cultural resources through art creation staged at local farms, houses, and museums (Kitagawa, Breslin, & Fravell, 2015; Echigo-tsumari, 2017). These large-scale art projects attracted 1.04 and 0.5 million visitors and had an estimated economic effect of 14 and 4.6 billion yen, respectively. In the case of Setouchi Triennale 2016, 2.6% of visitors were foreigners.

Hopes are high that art projects will bring regional innovation and create social value towards solving social problems by mobilising and integrating art-related regional resources. Tourism based on such resources attracts outside visitors and contributes to overall business sustainability.

In this paper, art is not limited to general art forms but is meant to include all kinds of creative activities taken up and all kinds of products made in various art projects. Social value creation in art projects (abbreviated as 'SVCA' in this paper) is a cross-sectoral issue involving art, service, tourism and innovation, and its comprehensive understanding requires examination of the role of arts and artists in SVCA. However, an approach that would bring generalised knowledge on this role has not been sufficiently pursued (Nakamura, 2013). Thus this research aims to answer the important questions of what kind of structure of art-mediated tourism would better advance the (co-)creation of social value and what kind of roles art and artists should play as 'creative actors' to obtain better resource integration. The case studies evaluate tourism innovation stemming from the integration of regional resources and the value co-creation among art tourism project actors.

The paper first discusses the theoretical background of art-related tourism from the viewpoint of SVCA in the second section. The third section presents two case studies in Japan, which are then analysed and compared in the fourth section. The fifth section summarises the SVCA insights, followed by the sixth section, which introduces similar Slovenian art-tourism cases and discusses the relationship with tourism, and conclusions in the seventh section.

Theoretical Background

Social Value Creation in Art-Project-Related Tourism

Art projects are intended to create social value, such as contributing to communities' sustainability and generating economic value through collaborative activities of regional stakeholders pursuing the realisation of cultural value (Throsby, 1994; Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004). This research focusses on the value triad of social, economic and cultural (aesthetic) value (Makiguchi, 1964; Throsby, 2001). 'Creating shared value,' which has been the focus of much attention recently, can be said to reconcile economic and social value (Porter & Kramer, 2011). Also in tourism, pursuing social value has become indispensable for achieving sustainability of natural and cultural assets (UNESCO, 2017).

Tourism related to art projects can be recognised as a kind of cultural event tourism, and their study is a field at the nexus of tourism and event studies (Getz, 2008). Especially with art project events, art is expected to systematically improve the competitiveness of tourism via the benefits of culture-based creativity (Korez-Vide, 2013). As one director of a successful Japanese art project from our surveys observed, art is positioned to clarify the human-nature and human-culture relationships in regional ecosystems (Kitagawa et al., 2015).

Art-project-related tourism can also be interpreted in terms of the service ecosystem concept, which is central to dominant service logic (SDL) analysis (Barrett, Davidson, Prabhu, & Vargo, 2015). In the service ecosystem, organisers and artists act as operant resources (Vargo, Wieland, & Akaka, 2015) and cooperate with other actors to integrate regional resources to achieve mutual value co-creation (Vargo & Lusch, 2015) towards providing unique experiences for visitors (Stickdorn, 2014).

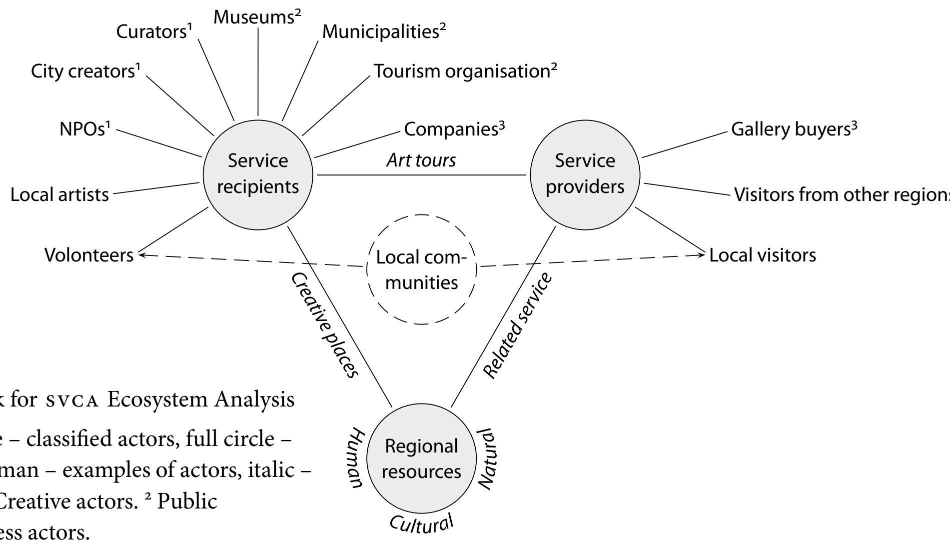

Figure 1 Framework for SVCA Ecosystem Analysis

Notes Dashed circle – classified actors, full circle – zoomed-in actors; roman – examples of actors, italic – interactive venues. [1] Creative actors. [2] Public organisation. [3] Business actors.

The various actors of art projects integrate further regional resources to expand the service ecosystem through networking aimed at regional innovation (Vargo et al., 2015) and new smart tourism destinations (Boes, Buhalis, & Inversini, 2016). According to our observation of Japanese art-tourism projects, the actors in the ecosystem of SVCA described in the first section include not only art-related people and public organisations but also people and businesses with no direct involvement with the arts in the regional community (Maciver & Page, 1949). Local people's participation is important for SVCA outcomes especially in rural areas, because local communities are the base of SVCA in the mobilisation and integration of regional resources (Mair, Robinson, & Hockerts, 2006; Rasoolimanesh, Ringle, Jaafar, & Ramayah, 2017). Particularly in SVCA, the diversity of actors and resources is essential for the development opportunities of the service ecosystem (Letaifaa, Edvardsson, & Tronvollc, 2016).

Framework for Insight of SVCA Ecosystem

Based on the above considerations, we propose the framework for SVCA ecosystem analysis shown in Figure 1. It is an upgrade of the 'service ecosystem' concept, reflecting the specifics of art-related tourism and expresses the actor-to-actor network involved (Lusch & Vargo, 2014). From a narrower tourism-service view, it is a relationship of service providers, service recipients, and related resources, organised in a tourism service network (Shirahada & Fisk, 2013).

However, when expanding the view to the wider surrounding service network, attention focusses on the role of more actors of different types. SVCA actors can be classified in the following four sectors (Peng & Lin, 2016):

- *creative actors:* people of the arts and culture with creative activities,
- *business actors:* individuals and private businesses involved in tourism and/or art and as visitors,
- *public organisations:* local governments, museums, tourism and other associations, etc.,
- *local community:* the local residents and bearers of regional activities.

As will become clear from our examples, in different projects different sectors play the leading role. Each actor is included in the SVCA ecosystem with links to one or more of the above four sectors. Service value is created through the resource integration of local human, cultural, and natural resources, adding new individuals and public entities to the local market economy (Lusch & Vargo, 2014). Each actor engages at various service levels (from operating resource to operators) with one or more other actors as providers of creative venues, guided tours, related services, etc., which become interaction points of value co-creation (Vargo & Lusch, 2004).

Table 1 Case Study Attributes and Insight Points for SVCA Analysis

Why	Who	What	How
Demand Innovation via art	Leader & Organisational form Partners Funding sources	Type of event Duration & frequency Art spots	Promotion center Communication with others
Insight points	Ecosystem Leading parties	Interactive venues Values for main actors	Regional resources Outcomes

Table 2 Outline of the Kanazawa Creative Tourism (KCT) project

Sponsors	Non-Profit Organization (NPO) Kanazawa Creative Tourism Promotion (under NPO Kanazawa Art Group).
Mission	To preserve the cultural heritage and environment of the old town in Kanazawa and to sustain the life of craftsmen and artists through promoting creative tourism under the Creative city brand with the 21st Century Museum of Contemporary Art (called 21 Art by locals).
Co-sponsors	NPO Kanazawa Art Group, NPO Suito Kanazawa, Noetica Inc., 21 Art, the city's art galleries.
Timeline	2004: The 21 Art museum opened. The museum's vision emphasised the city's open spaces as an 'art museum open to the city like a park.' However, there was not enough flow from the museum's 1.5 million/year visitors to the city. 2009: Kanazawa city designated Creative City in the category of Crafts and Folk Art by UNESCO. The city has many art and craftwork ateliers, galleries, tradesmen, etc., but information centralisation was not sufficient, so that there was a need to prepare easy to understand visitor information. Prompted by UNESCO's Creative City designation, NPO Art Group discussed the 'creative tourism' concept on the example of the US city of Santa Fe and decided to establish the Kanagawa Creative Tourism project.
Start	The KCT project was launched in 2008. The 'Cycle-de-Art' project was started in 2009 as a social experiment with the concept of a 'rent-a-bicycle service suitable for touring the city's art spaces. Following the example of foreign cities' community cycling, original fashionable rent-a-cycle was made available. Start of related services, such as distribution of cycling maps introducing the city's art spaces, and 'Pedal Day' guided tours?
Website	http://tour.artgummi.com

Methods

Case Analysis

The basic analytical approach follows the arguments of Hamel (2006) and organises the SVCA attributes in the four groups of *Why, Who, What,* and *How* (Krizaj & Horvat, 2015). The *Why* group identifies the demands which the social value creation in each project and the participating creative actors seek to answer. The *Who* group focuses on the major project actors and on the form of organisation in each case. The *What* group addresses the contents of each project including art and artistic elements. Finally, the *How* group identifies the ways of promotion and communication with visitors and stakeholders. We propose eleven attributes, as shown in the upper part of Table 1, as a basis for analysing SVCA projects. These attributes are used later in the paper for comparative analysis by explanatory description (Eisenhardt, 1989; Yin, 2009; Callaway & Dobrzykowski, 2009) by discussing case studies from Japan and Slovenia. For each case study, all attributes are described individually and in their relationship, with a focus on examining the role of the participating creative actors.

Based on this primary *Why/Who/What/How* analysis, the project's SVCA ecosystem is considered as outlined in the second section, and its dynamic development is examined, with regards to the following six insight points:

Table 3 Outline of the Kinokuni Train Art (KTA) Project

Sponsors	Kinokuni Train Art Executive Committee (under the umbrella of Tanabe City Chamber of Commerce).
Mission	To create high-value artworks by discovering local resources. To collaborate with Japan Railways (JR) Kinokuni Line and the communities around its more than 30 station buildings in operation and promotion of 'art trains,' aiming at the regional prosperity of the more than 10 towns along the line through attracting guests from outside the region.
Co-sponsors	Collaborated by JR West Wakayama Branch. Support: Wakayama prefecture and local administrations, boards of education, chambers of commerce, NPOs, Rotary clubs, around 50 local businesses and individuals.
Timeline	A local art event organised by artist Naoko Hiromoto evolved into the 'Art Tanabe 2013' festival. 29 artists participated in 7 venues centred at the former city library. In 2014, by collaboration with JR West, it grew from small exhibitions in the station buildings to special trains, including JR campaigns '10 Years World Heritage.'
Start	The KTA project was launched in 2014 with the theme of 'Symbiosis with local communities.' In 2015 the regional collaboration with JR expanded: permanently displayed art increased, there was more coordination with regional events in the major stations, JR issued special touring tickets including an art-designed train.
Website	http://trainart.jp/

- *Ecosystem:* which sectors and actors (creative actors, public organisations, business actors, local communities) play a major role in forming the ecosystem?
- *Leading party:* Which sector and who among the actors plays the leading role for SVCA?
- *Interactive venues:* what kind of potential venues for interaction among actors in various events exist (creative places/art tours/related services)?
- *Value for main actors:* What value is co-created for each project actor?
- *Regional resources:* Which regional resources are integrated into the SVCA?
- *Outcomes:* What outcomes are brought out by the results of SVCA?

To summarise the SVCA analysis framework introduced up to now, the analysis attributes and points for insight sought are shown in Table 1.

Case-Study Selection

The projects chosen as case studies were selected considering the following points, which we believe are important for clarifying the role of art and creative activities for SVCA.

- The cases were to cover widely differing cultural, natural and human resources situations, permitting examination of the reflection and role of art.
- The cases were to be still in the developing stage to enable the study of dynamic processes in art-project-related tourism in transition.

In this study, the following two Japanese projects for case studies have been selected:

1. Kanazawa Creative Tourism (abbreviated KCT)
2. Kinokuni Train Art (abbreviated KTA)

The detailed information of both cases is shown in Tables 2 and 3. Furthermore, insights from art-related tourism projects in Slovenia are included in the discussion of the sixth section and compared to the Japanese examples.

Outline of the Kanazawa Creative Tourism Project

Kanazawa Creative Tourism (KCT) is a creative tourism project (OECD, 2014) that takes place mainly in spring and autumn in the town surrounding old castle of Kanazawa city, having its central office based at a local art centre. Organizers offer guided tours customised to guests' requests, including visits to workshops of craftsmen and artists and to the traditional townhouses and gardens where they work, which are

Table 4 Demand and Innovation via Art

Project	Demand	Innovation via art
KCT	Attracting visitors to downtown of cultural heritage city	Learning experience & chances for appreciation
KTA	Visitors to local destinations in rural area	Site-specific art experience & creative venues

all open to the public for the event. The main purpose of the project is preserving the cultural heritage and environment of the old town and sustaining the life of craftsmen and artists working there. A further goal is increasing the recognition among culture fans and patrons of Kanazawa-city as a city certificated in 2009 as a member of UNESCO's 'creative city network' in the traditional crafts category, a certification achieved after the opening of the 21st Century Museum of Contemporary Art there. KCT was launched by full-time museum service staff struggling to cope with rising visitor numbers after the start of the new Shinkansen (bullet train) service from Tokyo in 2016.

Outline of the Kinokuni Train Art Project

Kinokuni Train Art (KTA) is an art project along the Kinokuni railway line running more than 100 km along the southern coast of Japan's rural Kii peninsula. The project features art events taking place for about a month, mainly in autumn, including a three-day main event. With few exceptions of larger cities, the railway has many small old unmanned stations in beautiful locations. Each year the project' organisers plan 'train art' events timed around the days of the special train tours and focusing on artwork created by local artists using each stations' spaces (wall paintings or art displayed at the stations). On art-train days a colourfully designed train travels between the terminal stations staying at each intermediate artwork-decorated station for short art events. The main purpose of the project is to present opportunities for creative activities towards the revitalisation of localities and communities along the railway line. KTA is determined to continue until at least 2020 to achieve their goal of the 'Kinokuni line as the world's first art railway.'

Survey Methods

Our methods of the survey included, (a) interviews with key-persons and participants, (b) field studies, and (c) follow-up surveys and examination of related publications mainly towards obtaining qualitative data for case study and insight for SVCA analysis.

In the case of KCT, we performed an in-depth interview (Kvale, 2007) with one of the executive managers in the spring of 2015. Previously, in 2014, we participated 16 times in various art tours as observers, in the course of one year of multiple meetings. Furthermore, we conducted systematic interviews with artists and project members after a related symposium about KCT in the spring of 2017.

As to KTA, our survey included in-depth interviews with the leading artist among the organisers and with the manager of the main collaborating NPO, as well as systematic interviews at the end of the KTA 2014 and 2015 events (two artists, one local businessman, and one volunteer). After that, we observed the participants and the actual flow of the project for a total of 13 times during 2015–2016. These field observations were followed by a survey of mainly e-mail questionnaires to artists, active supporters and related businesses (6 questionnaires returned in the autumn of 2015). The survey provided qualitative data from the entire 100–130 km KTA project field area along the railway line.

Results: Projects' Attribute Analysis

Why

The attributes of the *Why* group address the demand for SVCA, as shown in Table 4. Such demand is answered by the features of the particular art tourism projects and by cooperation among the creative actors (artists and craftsmen).

KCT answers a social demand for sustaining historic townhouses and the life of craftsmen and artists working there. The local art museum with its concept of 'art museum opening to the city' has been aiming at more links to the city's artists and galleries as potential resources. Thus, KCT aimed to direct part of the

Table 5 Leadership and Organisation

Project	Leader & organisational form	Partners	Funding sources
KCT	Creative tourism promotion including college professors	Artists/group of city planners city museum of contemporary art.	Public and private capital
KTA	Art project committee including active young artists	Railway company & local businesses volunteers & local public organisation.	Public and private capital

Table 6 Art Project Content

Project	Type of event	Duration & frequency	Art spots
KCT	Tours on demand with art fair	Mainly in spring/autumn	Open ateliers: 30 registered spots: 40
KTA	Seasonal events	One month per year, including a 3-days main train-art event	Artists: 42, art spots: 35+ (including 27 railway stations)

great number of museum visitors (1.5 million in 2015) to the downtown of the old cultural heritage city. In doing so, the project provides for visitors a chance to get new learning experience at artwork venues, and for artists, a chance to have their work appreciated and turned into a source of revenue.

KTA is driven by the demand for regional revitalisation along the railway line. The project hopes to establish a sense of unity among not only public and private organisations but also among residents, visitors, and business stakeholders. To achieve this, KTS organisers have joined hands with local communities and railway company staff to organise events for young artists using the railway facilities as creative venues. Another aim is to provide attractive tourism options for visitors interested in 'site-specific art' experience.

Who

The *Who* group of attributes identifies the major individuals and organisations leading the projects, their individual and organisational partners, and the origins of capital, as summarised in Table 5.

KCT has been directed by NPO Kanazawa Creative Tourism Promotion (NPO: Non-Profit Organisation). It consists of leading college professors, craftsmen and artist groups, curators at art museums. NPO Kanazawa Art Group acts as secretariat, while NPO Suito Kanazawa and Noetica Corp. provide auxiliary support. The collaborative network includes the city's art galleries inspired by the example of the city of Santa Fe in the United States. KCT activities are performed jointly with the Shared Workshops Commission (SWC) that provides low-cost atelier space in the city for nurturing young artists. Another partner is Cycle-de-Art Corp. (CDA), a provider of rent-a-cycle service for personal transportation. KCT was initially sponsored by the Japanese Agency for Cultural Affairs, later joined by a regional construction association.

KTA was launched by a female artist, who at the time had just come back from France. The project is now directed by the Kinokuni Train-Art Committee, which includes active local artists. Japan Railway West Inc. is the project's major partner by providing operational support and free use of station facilities. Other KTA partners include volunteering operation staff, regional businesses, local tourist associations, educational organisations such as local high schools, etc. KTA is sponsored by more than 10 local municipalities, several NPOs, and about 50 local businesses and individuals.

What

The *What* group of attributes shows the content of each art project, including the type of events, duration and frequency, and the kind and numbers of art spots, as summarised in Table 6.

KCT mainly conducts guided tours at the request of visitors with appointments, especially during the art

Table 7 Marketing

Project	Promotion center	Communication with others
KCT	Art centre office	Website, social media, events
KTA	City chamber of commerce office	Same as above, traditional media (via railway company)

Table 8 Ecosystem and Driving Actors

Project	Ecosystem	Leading parties
KCT	Creative individuals and public organisations	Art leading organisations/NPOS as promoters of the creative-city concept
KTA	Urban creative individuals, business actors and local communities	Autonomous artists supported by railway company and local communities

fair in the cultural city. Guided tours started in 2009 and take place mainly in spring and autumn. Until now 30 open ateliers/workshops and 40 art spots have been registered. The guided tours include visits to open studios of various ateliers and even to places usually not open to the public.

Since 2014 KTA has been conducting the project as a seasonal event and has decided to continue until at least 2020. The events span over one month and include a special train-art main event running for three days every year as an extension to usual express trains. More than 40 artists have joined the project with 42 art spots including 27 railway stations along the more than 100 km long rail line. Art collaboration workshops attended by residents and visitors include drawing local sea fauna, woodblock painting, making furniture from disposed lumber, etc. Experience events are also popular: live painting, music performances (including jazz sessions with high school bands), tea ceremony with woodblock printing, making Christmas ornaments etc.

How

The *How* group identifies the promotion centre and the communication channel with visitors and stakeholders, as summarised in Table 7. In KCT, the office and exhibition corner of the Art Center located in the gathering hall of the central railway terminal of the city take the role of tour promotion and manage communication. In KTA, the headquarters is officially located in the local Chamber of Commerce office. A leading artists' NPO group together with the railway company maintain advertising and the relationship with other local organisations.

Insights from the Japanese Cases

Tourism Service Ecosystem and Projects' Leading Parties

The tourism service ecosystem underlying the projects and the leading parties of the respective SVCA frameworks are summarised in Table 8. They evolve dynamically with time in response to changing needs and conditions.

In KCT, the project participants initially shared the ambition of city promoters to produce new value fitting to the 'Creative City' concept. The project evolved while being directed by individual activists, such as university professors, architects/designers and city/community planners. Then the project was formalised under public organisations such as the city art museum and the creative city committee. At the operational level, that was followed by active artists/craftsmen engaging as planning and management staff. The KCT project also relies on the participation of visitors, art fans and patrons as active actors interacting with artists in their working places (ateliers/studios), an interaction that is not possible in art museums.

In KTA, the art project was initiated by autonomous artists and supported by a railway company and local communities. Initially, the interest from local municipalities and residents was not high. However, the mood of cooperation arose through the interaction of artists with the local communities around the stations. For example, local people began to appreciate

Table 9 Interaction Venues and Value for Each Actor

Project	Interactive venues	Values for each actor
KCT	(a) open studios, (b) guided tours, (c) related services (concierge, rent-a-cycle)	For visitors: experience value with arts For artists: revenue and chance to get appreciation
KTA	(a) creative places, (b) train tours, (c) related artistic events	For visitors: experience value with arts For young artists: carrier step-up For railway: more guests and image boost

Table 10 Regional Resources and Outcomes

Project	Regional resources	Outcomes
KCT	Artisans/craftsmen, old townhouses	Visitors: not only art fans but also experts (architects & researchers), extended city popular and more city fans
KTA	Old station buildings, coastal landscape	Visitors: train passengers 600+ Event participants: 100–500 per event Participating local business: reached 30+

the project's significance by observing artwork activities gradually cleaning up the station facilities. Then local people began to participate in the collaboration workshops, as described above. On the other side, the railway company continued to affirm their support for the artists' activities at the stations and spread the railway operators' pride of turning 'Kinokuni line into the world's first art railway' beyond the railway sections in the project's area.

Interaction Venues and Value for Each Actor

Interaction venues and the kind of value co-created for each participant are summarised in Table 9. The KCT project uses mainly three types of venues for actors' interaction: (a) Open studios extend visitors perception of the city as a whole. They benefit artists, too, with many new connections among themselves having been established. (b) Guided tours promote deeper recognition of local cultural resources. (c) Art-tourism related services include not only public organisations such as museums but also supporting businesses such as lodging facilities. For example, a concierge service providing art-tour escorts contributes to wider networking for the artists by inviting famous gallerists and curators from the metropolitan area. In such a way, interaction at the project's venues co-creates experience value for visitors, while artists and craftsmen have the opportunity to receive appreciation.

The KTA project, too, has already developed active collaborative interaction: (a) at creative venues mostly between artists and participating local residents, (b) in train tours mostly between artists and art patrons, and (c) at the accompanying events between KTA's project operators, railway staff and local businesses and organisations. With the background of stations and beautiful scenery along the line, lively communication has emerged using various types of arts as a medium. For the mostly young artists, taking part in the events sponsored by the railway company is a useful carrier step as socially engaged art. At the same time, visitors benefit from enjoying unique experience value through such 'site-specific art.' The railway company confirmed that the artists' support brought the results of attracting more guests and boosted the pride of the rail-line operators.

Regional Resources and Outcomes

The regional resources integrated for SVCA and the outcomes resulting from such integration are summarised in Table 10.

KCT activities reaffirmed artisans/artists and old townhouses as important regional resources archiving and sharing valuable knowledge. The KCT events attract not only general art fans, but also expert groups of architects and researchers, whose activities afterwards further extend the popularity of Kanazawa-city as a cultural heritage city and attract new fans. A potential current issue is building a business model that meaningfully distinguishes the project from guided services conducted by other business actors for wealthy art collectors from foreign countries.

KTA activities promote the integration of old station facilities and beautiful coastal landscape as resources for artwork and its appreciation and for the unique experience of train-art. The need for cooperation in the process of planning and running projects along the railway linking major and unmanned stations gradually enabled new 'gap-bridging connections' among localities and organisation divisions extending beyond previous limits. Each art train event brings 600 to 1000 train passengers with 100–500 visitors participating in each of the related events, and the number of local business involved has reached about more than 30. There is room for more advanced director and producer's role in KTA to achieve a better regional balance between autonomous artists' activities and the demand of local businesses and other actors.

Comparative Conclusions for the Japanese Cases

A common characteristic manifested in all insights derived above is the tourism-art projects' reliance on the collaboration of creative actors, such as artists and craftsmen, with some partners (e.g. museum or railway company), in which some of the participants take the more active role of collaboration generators and intermediaries in the running of art-project-related tourism. However, different levels of involvement in driving the underlying SVCA resource integration can be identified.

This reflects the difference between a strategic project towards the promotion of a Creative City image based on traditional cultural heritage, as found in the KCT project, and a community project using regional resources to revitalise a depopulating countryside region, as manifested in the KTA project. In KCT, the artists themselves perceive the potential of regional resources towards achieving sustainability (Anderson et al., 2013). Accordingly, the interaction with visitors is focused on guided tours. As to the KTA project, residents' participation in creative venues around the stations, even on the days without train tours, has more weight. Thus, in KCT, the main SVCA role of art and artists is to be an 'intermediator' for creative city branding, while in KTA the role is more of an 'integrator' of regional resources for co-creation of aesthetic value for all participants.

Discussion Beyond the Japanese Context

In the quest to understand, position and evaluate Japanese cases in the scope of similar cases with different international backgrounds, we have analysed three art and culture tourism related examples from an EU member country, Slovenia.

Art Tourism Planning in Ljubljana

In the first case, we interviewed Ljubljana Tourism representatives, who presented the collaboration situation of the art and tourism sectors in the Slovenian capital. Ljubljana Tourism acts as a regional tourist destination management organisation for the city of Ljubljana and neighbouring municipalities. Recently, they have started to focus on cultural and art tourism more intensively. On the national level, a marketing plan of cultural tourism for the 2017–2020 period is being developed, and a similar strategy is in development at Ljubljana Tourism. In Ljubljana, the year 2018 will be dedicated to cultural tourism, as it is also the European Year for Cultural Heritage. Therefore, Tourism Ljubljana is currently in the middle of the first intensive set of meetings with representatives of art and culture related organisations and venues. In these debates, Tourism Ljubljana is focused on stakeholder's coordination of identification and interconnection of art and tourism services. After the initial quest for means of informing tourists about the available art and culture offers and eventual special deals for tourists, the next challenge is finding opportunities for proactive involvements of artists in tourist products. In such quests and challenges, Tourism Ljubljana is still looking for a 'common language' to be able to discuss the possible associated business models that consider the specifics of both the art and the tourism sectors and feasible ways to monetise joint activities. In this sense, the Japanese cases show how the Ljubljana Tourism can engage in negotiating and planning with art representatives.

Ana Desetnica Street Art Festival

Aside from the destination level of the mutual synchronisation of art and tourism, we tried to identify actual examples that already include or are planning a more intensive involvement of artists in existing tourism products. The first analysed art-related organisation is Ana Monro Theater. According to the representatives, their main annual event is the Ana Desetnica street art festival organised in Ljubljana (and to a lesser extent also in other places around Slovenia), where within a few weeks numerous art groups from around the world attract over 25,000 visitors. The event, taking place on the streets of Ljubljana, affects the whole city and its entire tourism sector. Due to its significant influence, the Ljubljana municipality partially funds it. Currently, the festival does not intensively include any tourism-related bundled offers, but in 2015, the Ana Monro Theatre created its first tourist product, the so-called 'tourist street-theatre walkabout.' It is a combination of artistic expression and storytelling of the history of the city of Ljubljana, where tourists take part in a re-enactment of scenes staged in historic streets and buildings, including a 2nd World War shelter, where they interchangeably find themselves as spectators and as actors in the show.

Slovenian Railways Vintage Train

Another tourist example with (not yet realised) art potential, analysed through an interview, was riding on a vintage train; the route takes tourists through the most scenic train route in Slovenia, organised by Slovenian Railways, the national train company, and ABC rent-a-car and tourism d.o.o, a local tourism provider. On the train, at stations and at places nearby the stations, tourists are served authentic culinary samples. Several scenes are played by actors in historical costumes presenting the history of Slovenia and the history of the picturesque section of the railway line, including local natural and historical attractions. This product has been well established (3,500 passengers annually, 60% foreign guests), but its artistic component focuses only on short historical scenes. Organisers aim for greater involvement of tourism services along the route, which is partially realised through winery visits and tours of natural and cultural attractions. An additional challenge for them remains the more active involvement of local artists and craftsmen.

Comparison and Insights

For the three Slovenian examples, it can be summarised that they still largely deal with the introductory steps in the integration of tourism and the arts, and are not yet as fully integrated as on the Japanese side. Over the past decade, Slovenia has made significant strides in promoting tourism innovation and sustainability (Nakamura, Zakonjsek, & Krizaj, 2015). In both areas (in addition to technical innovation and environmental sustainability), it is also important to innovate in the field of user experiences and social sustainability, for which art can be a notably significant content and collaboration generator. Slovenian tourism, in general, is not yet exploiting these sources of additional tourism content and new destination management approaches to the extent as presented in the Japanese examples.

Conclusion

We performed case study analysis and comparatively discussed two Japanese art tourism projects: a promising cultural heritage city with concentrated human and cultural resources, and a sparsely populated countryside with rich nature. From the discussion of projects' actors, interaction venues and regional resources involved in the creation of social value, we propose a framework for the comprehensive understanding of the value (co-)creation among actors in terms of the service-dominant logic (SDL) theory. Through comparative analysis using the framework's 11 attributes organised in the four groups of Why/Who/What/How, we studied the projects' creative actors such as artists and craftsmen and identified the parties serving as collaboration generators and intermediaries at the various integration levels of art project related tourism.

The insights are extended beyond the Japanese context by including in the discussion a comparison with similar cases in the EU country of Slovenia. This part of the study was added as a first test of the broader usability of the approach. Initial concerns were that countries are geographically and culturally so diverse that the gap between them would be too wide to enable useful study results. As it turns out, both sides of the study are enriched by the initial findings presented above. For Japan, the Slovenian cases position the Japanese art-related tourism evolution steps as steps in the right direction and as already realised steps that another country is still planning for the future in a similar way. For Slovenia, the experiences of the already developed projects can be of great value in adapting and upgrading them to the Slovenian specifics. Apart from the learning from each other, the projects show similarities that could lead to a potential collaboration and mutual (non-competitive and synergetic) promotion in the future.

This study can provide a basis for a lateral interdisciplinary approach to the study of art-based social value co-creation, as well as important conceptualised knowledge applicable to management methods for art projects involving tourism.

The theoretical basis for this study remains in development. In the near future, we plan to refine the theoretical base and include concepts from the broader field of cultural event tourism. For further validation, we plan to perform richer case studies by applying the framework to additional art tourism cases from Japan and Slovenia, aiming to develop a new approach to destination management, with insights and implications for both scholars and practitioners.

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Generalizing of the EDIT Model for Non-Tourism Domains

Lars Brehm
Munich University of Applied Sciences, Germany
lars.brehm@hm.edu

Dejan Križaj
University of Primorska, Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica, Slovenia
dejan.krizaj@fts.upr.si

Petri Pohjola
Tampere University of Applied Sciences, Finland
petri.pohjola@tamk.fi

Integrating design aspects into the developing process of new services is a growing trend. One such attempt has resulted in the experience design, innovation, and touchpoints model, known as the EDIT model designed for the introduction of tourism (re-)innovations (Zach & Krizaj, 2016). The EDIT model employs design thinking and an innovation adoption process approach. In this paper, how the EDIT model can be applied to and adopted for other domains is investigated. The structure and method of this presented research note is the following. The existent EDIT model and its relevance in tourism are presented. Next, all three of the model's axes are analysed for its usage in general business domains in the form of updated EDIT* model. According to the findings, two research & development EDIT* strategies are presented with relevant cases. This paper ends with conclusions, future research, together with identified EDIT*'s weaknesses and strengths.

Keywords: innovation, design, product and service development, user experience
https://doi.org/10.26493/2335-4194.10.205-211

Introduction and Method

Integrating design aspects into the developing process of new services is a growing trend. One such attempt has resulted in the experience design, innovation, and touchpoints model, known as the EDIT model, designed for the introduction of tourism (re-)innovations (Zach & Krizaj, 2016). The EDIT model employs design thinking and an innovation adoption process approach. According to the authors, it is flexible enough 'to accommodate different firm types and new service development skills.'

There is a similar existing and growing trend to enhance physical products with services and new business models. They are described as Product-Service-Systems (PSS) in which service design plays a crucial role in their development. The current massive movement to shift certain physical parts of a product to be digital components reinforces and strengthens this change (Porter & Heppelmann, 2015).

In this paper, we investigate how the EDIT model for designing tourism (re-)innovation can be applied to and adopted for other domains, especially the new development of PSS (Zancul et al., 2016). The traditional New Product Development process (NPD) is also well defined and implemented, but only a few scholars have investigated topics with combined service design elements (Tran & Park, 2014; Ribeiro & Borsato, 2014). Based on current findings in the field of non-technological innovation, (smart) service-dominant logic and service co-creating design, a new version of the existing EDIT model is proposed in this paper. The upgraded EDIT* model will be developed with refined dimension, and the usability of the new model will be explained.

The structure and method of the presented research are as follows. The existent EDIT model and its relevance in tourism are presented in the following chapter. Next, all three of model's axes are analysed for its usage in general business domain in the form of the updated EDIT* model. According to the findings, two research & development EDIT* strategies are presented with relevant cases. The manuscript ends with conclusions, future research, together with EDIT*'s identified weaknesses and strengths.

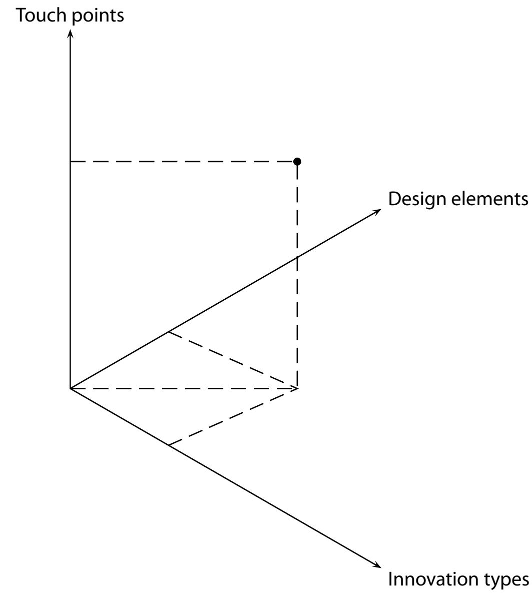

Figure 1 The EDIT Model (adapted from Zach & Krizaj, 2016)

Background of the EDIT Model

In the field of tourism, the current prevailing trends in interconnected products, services and experiences can be confirmed (Larivière et al., 2017). The observed EDIT model (Zach & Krizaj, 2016) therefore also focuses on innovation, design and touchpoints. Touchpoints in this context represent physical or virtual locations where the tourist provider (and her sales purposes) connects with tourists and their purchasing ideas and needs (Vargo & Lusch, 2008; Tax, McCutcheon, & Wilkinson, 2013). At the same time, touchpoints provide a message about the detailed planning of each possible point of contact, because on in their entirety do they provide added value to the goods sold.

In tourism, the usual central observation 'consumption' unit is a tourist destination, that is, the geographical area in which tourists spend their vacation time. In today's globalised tourism services, destinations cannot compete only with the price criterion, but also via offered experiences. Experiences are not necessarily to be expensive or highly sophisticated; it is important that the tourist services offered bring positive feelings and memories (Tan, 2016). The transition from technological observations of the service to the holistic observation of the experience brought by the service is not new (Prahalad & Ramaswamy, 2004), but nevertheless points to a change of focus from the operational-implementation level to the user level; where the user is not only a passive receiver of goods, but an active associate in the process of their consumption.

Based on the presented findings – regardless of whether it is a tourist good or good from any other area –, the 'encounter' of the provider with the user of products and services becomes significant at different points in the business process. The EDIT model adds two additional levels (innovation and design) to this perspective, to which one must pay attention at each of the 'encounter points.' In doing so, EDIT aiding in preventing too much attention being given on the development of a single innovation, as it proposes a multifaceted view of each of the points of the business process and the development potentials that hide in it. The main purpose of this approach is to promote the identification of the actual mental and physical steps of the potential customers, which enable comprehensive care for them.

For each of the identified touchpoints at the first level, EDIT stimulates thinking about ways of optimisation and improvement with regard to introducing innovations, for which at each point all categories of innovation that could be further introduced are to be considered; e.g. (Hjalager, 2010) for tourism. This level is mostly engineering, internal, and therefore focused on the knowledge and technologies that the company (alone or with partners) can further develop or purchase to upgrade the existing performance and service provision at each point. The second level focuses on the user, from an external perspective, where the design-thinking methodology is used for introduction of customer related principles. This methodology provides a wide range of comprehensive sustainable approaches to integrating all the elements that influence customer experience and participation in the production and service process (Zomerdijk & Voss, 2010; Shapira, Ketchie, & Nehe, 2017).

As mentioned, the EDIT model focuses on the tourist specifics of such processes. In the continuation of this article, all three EDIT areas (touchpoints, innovation, and design thinking) are introduced from a general business and user perspective.

The EDIT* Model

In this research note, we suggest an enhanced EDIT* model with the following refined dimensions:

1. consumer/customer/user touchpoints,
2. innovation types as well as
3. customer experience and usage categories.

In the sections below we described these redefined dimensions in more detail.

Dimension: Touchpoints

Earlier in this paper, touchpoints were introduced through EDIT model in which the tourism domain is at the centre. It was established that the user of products and services becomes essential at different points in the business process and includes unlimited new opportunities.

Moggridge (2006) defines touchpoint so that the experience behind every segment of customer journey can be transformed into a touchable product or service. Touchpoints that exist before and after that most obvious part of service, also reflect the important moments in that customer journey. The form of the touchpoint may be an advertisement, a card, a mobile phone, a retail store or a salesman. If a service system has enough touchpoints, they can offer a diversity of designed customer experience, and the touchpoint possesses its unique value. The significance of user touchpoint understanding and design impact to business is highlighted by Brown (2009) claiming that only a few details can provide an opportunity for a company to create a unique, good feeling and memorable client experience.

In the EDIT* model, touchpoints in a general context represent opportunities, physical or virtual places and methods where the product (and its sales purposes) connects, directly or indirectly with user needs and their usage ideas. These user touchpoint opportunities create design requirements and challenges that should be carefully analysed, and solutions should be planned and implemented in design to products and services so that final added value of the goods and services can be delivered to customers and users. This needs to be understood throughout the whole product and service design and delivery process.

Similarly, in other domains, such as the machine industry, touchpoints opportunities and related user requirements need to be described and defined prior to the design process and identified and optimised for every user's experience and satisfaction. Touchpoints need also to cover internal customers and indirect users together with end users and customers. For example, operations such as production and delivery process, product sales and marketing, maintenance and lifecycle management do not have similar user touchpoint opportunities and are not systematically treated with same care as that of the end users' and consumers' specific requirements.

EDIT* model promotes and claims that all user touchpoint opportunities should be investigated regardless of their location in the value chain and role in value creation. The user category needs to be investigated widely. When identifying different users and possible user touchpoint opportunities, multiple points of views should be considered. For exam-

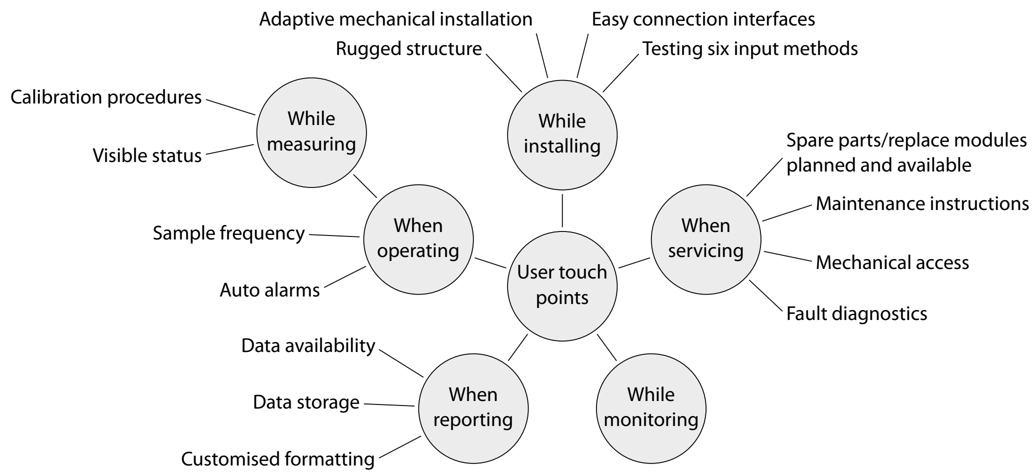

Figure 2 Simple Illustration of Industrial User Touchpoint Opportunities

ple, different touchpoints are found when comparing B2B oriented versus consumer-oriented products and services. Professional users and variations of different business operators are more likely searching for business benefits and total process efficiencies like maintenance and service, and high priority with reliability issues whereas consumer behaviour results in different touchpoints and design needs and priorities.

Dimension: Innovation Types

In the EDIT model, Zach and Krizaj (2017) separated the following five innovation types: (1) product innovation, (2) service innovation, (3) process innovation, (4) managerial innovation and (5) marketing innovation. We see these types as also being relevant for the EDIT* model and suggest adding two further innovation types: (6) market innovation, i.e. pursuing new markets with existing or new product-service offerings and (7) institutional innovation, i.e. developing innovation not only within an organization but also in combination with other institutions (e.g. within an ecosystems).

With the continually increasing trend of digitalisation, product innovations and the service innovations, in particular, need to be analysed in greater detail. First, there is the clear movement in society and economy to transform physical products into digital products. So, instead of purchasing a physical book,

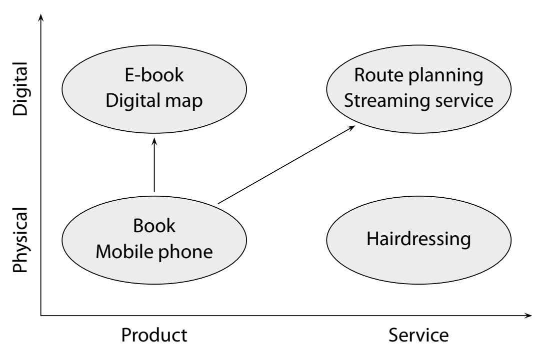

Figure 3 Digital and Physical Products and Services Matrix

the reader uses the digital product: an 'e-book.' Second, existing or newly developed physical products are transferred or enhanced by digital services (Porter & Heppelmann, 2014, 2015). Instead of owning a car it is sufficient to be a member of a car-sharing service. The process of finding, reserving and booking the shared car is facilitated by a digital service: the car-sharing app (Puschmann & Alt, 2016). Figure 3 shows these two developments and further examples of the mentioned product/service types.

Dimension: Customer Experience Design and Usage Categories

Nowadays, new business combinations are being reflected in service systems that can be made up of employees, technology and customers from several business and private entities, and combined in the so-called 'service encounter 2.0' (Larivière et al., 2017). Thus, in (1) internal search for opportunities for improvement as well as in (2) finding 'second-generation' collaboration opportunities, it is vital that organisations no longer focus solely on the current structures in their facilities and on the optimisation of their processes. It is necessary to focus on customer aspects of process design (Tussyadiah, 2014), in which it does not matter where the company's frontier is, but what the entire experience of the targeted customer should be. In following these guidelines, the main innovations of the EDIT* model (compared to the initial EDIT 'tourist' version) on the first level refer to addressing the broader structure of the possible categories of innovation with the additional emphasis on the technological innovations and generic business processes. On the second level, touchpoints are also thoroughly analysed in terms of cross-sections between diverse technological sectors, service aspects and professional and end-user consumption logic.

A similar situation can be described on the third, customer experience design level. This is no longer about tourist- or service design-related aspects, but about general professional and end-user consumption categories, within which it is possible to improve or develop new user practices and consequently address diverse human needs. Max-Neef's (1991) axiological and existential categories have proved to be highly suitable for providing a comprehensive insight into the spectrum of such human needs. They are combined into a two-dimensional 'fundamental human needs matrix' that addresses the potential plethora of human necessities, describing the possibilities for further optimisation or upgrading the user's experience in each touchpoint with the help of a product or service offered.

Existential categories cover activities related to being (i.e. achieving certain qualities), having (certain things), doing (desired actions) and interacting (in different settings). Axiological categories are, according to Max-Neef, derived from ethical and aesthetic values. They include human inclinations to survival, protection, understanding, participation, leisure, creation, identity and freedom. For each of the potential innovations in the set of eventual touchpoints, all these existential/axiological categories and the resulting needs can be used during the development processes. For each of the pairs in the matrix of both types of categories, Max-Neef list examples of human engagement and existence that can be directly used to verify whether one of the examples can be additionally addressed with the observed product or service. At the same time, the proposed examples can encourage developers to generate new ideas and examples about possible interactions with their developed product and/or service.

From this point forward (i.e. after all eventual human needs opportunities are validated), the development process incorporates the design elements contained in the original EDIT model and summarises the various fine-tuning aspects focusing on the ways of using and interacting with the offered consumer goods. Zomerdijk and Voss (2010) propose six such contextual ways: a 'series of cues' leading tourist on the route between distinct touchpoints. 'Sensory design' addresses the customer's perception of products/services past five basic senses. 'Front-line engagement' is focusing on staff in direct contact with customers. 'Dramatic structure of events' is creating a solid and compelling story about the offered goods. 'The presence of fellow customers' focuses on other customers who come before and after, forming a group that interacts with their emotions and responses. Finally, 'Back/front-stage coupling' focuses on the staff in the entire organisation and the opportunities for them to mutually contribute to the overall customer experience.

Current Research Stage: Generic Strategies and Approach on How to Apply the EDIT* Model

To test the applicability of the proposed EDIT* model, a real-life example has been chosen. It came in the form of a wood moisture content measurement device, equipped with an Internet of Things (IOT) technology, developed as the HUMIWOOD prototype at the University of Valencia, Spain. The development coordinator was introduced with the model's principles and shown the possible venues of further innovation and design steps according to identified and suggested HUMIWOOD touchpoints. He found the methodology useful since the development department was specialised in wood moisture measurements and general IOT technologies, but did not have any guidelines on how to approach the new combinations of technologies which might open new consumption and business opportunities. The HUMIWOOD proof-of-concept stage resulted in the Erasmus+ project application with identified stages of educating, using, and testing the EDIT* possibilities.

The development approach in the described case presents a technology push orientation with an existing prototype or invention/innovation for which organisations investigate how to push it into the market. In this case, the possible touchpoints are identified for newly available technologies and tools, and design aspects are studied and applied to each of them. The opposite case from the technology push would be an opportunity pull in which opportunities are derived from existing or emerging markets. The existing touchpoints of products/services already on the market are to be identified and through their design aspects suitable technologies, or inventions/innovations would be chosen or redesigned to more efficiently and effectively address the needs of each of the touchpoints.

These two generic strategies (technology push and opportunity pull) have strong similarities to the analysis and strategy area in the business administration literature. In relationship marketing the situational analysis in the marketing planning process is based on two fundamental views:

1. *Market Orientation View (MOV).* It contains an outside-in perspective and derives results from analysing the external markets: the 'market orientation refers to the organisation-wide generation, dissemination, and responsiveness to market intelligence' (Hollensen & Opresnik, 2015, p. 77).
2. *Resource-Based View (RBV).* It has an inside-out perspective and analysis the internal resources and matches them with existing opportunities: the 'essential factor, however, is that opportunities are seized where the organisation has an existing or potential advantage through its resource base' (Hollensen & Opresnik, 2015, 78).

In addition to these generic strategies, it is relevant to analyse the technology and the solution options for the market opportunities on the different dimensions of the solution architecture intensively. The Business-Technology-Stack proposed by Brehm (2015) could be a helpful tool for this task.

Future Research

This paper has outlined the EDIT* model for the non-tourism domain and has shown some application of the model. Of course, there is a strong need for future research. This can include, but is not limited to, the following proposal:

Field surveys on the current status of product and service innovation in different sectors and countries should be carried out to identify the actual baseline. A detailed application of the EDIT* model to a specific use case is recommended. A highly useful candidate is the HUMIWOOD case or a similar technology, which requires new or enhanced product-service development and market strategy. The development of further application examples in other industries and areas of usage could be pursued. The extensions of this research on the domain side and in regional reach are helpful and could also include funding opportunities, such as the ERASMUS+ program of the European Union.

For the future research, we suggest following a holistic approach to innovation in integrated product and service development.

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Teoretično pozicioniranje lastne in družbenih identitet kot gradnikov dejavnikov motivacije v kulturno-izkustvenem turizmu

Atanu Nath in Parmita Saha

Muzeje pogosto štejemo med kulturne destinacije, vendar se razlikujejo od drugih »ponudnikov« kulture, saj poskušajo zavestno delovati na ciljne skupine obiskovalcev z manj izrazito socialno in kognitivno disonanco. V svojih prizadevanjih za kontinuiteto kot najpomembnejšim ciljem, so se muzeji nujno oddaljili od tega, da so nosilci dediščine in interpretacijski centri, ampak so postali izkustveni centri in se tako soočajo z izzivi, povezanimi z dvojno vlogo muzejev. Zavestna prizadevanja za demokratizacijo in integracijo, ki jih je potrebno vpeljati, da pritegnejo množice, zahtevajo primerne marketinške strategije. Hkrati pa muzeji skušajo nuditi izkušnjo, ki je dejansko osebna. Menimo, da ponujajo muzeji edinstveno in dragoceno priložnost za teoretično in empirično raziskovanje vedenja potrošnikov v turizmu. V ta namen se v pričujoči raziskavi preučujejta konstrukta identitete (osebna identiteta) in projekcije identitete (družbena identiteta) kot dejavnika motivacije v kulturno-izkustvenem turizmu. Motivacija se obravnava po dimenzijah odsevne in rekreativne motivacije. Predlagan je teoretični okvir odnosa med identiteto in motivacijo za razlago oblikovanja odnosa pred in po obisku ter «nakupne» odločitve v kulturno-izkustvenem turizmu. Dodane so tudi metodološke opombe o empirični raziskavi, ki potrjujejo prelagan metodološki okvir.

Ključne besede: osebna identiteta, družbena identiteta, motivacija, vedenjski namen, kulturni turizem, izkustveni turizem
Academica Turistica, 10(1), 115–128

Tipologija podjetnikov v malih hotelih v Sloveniji

Saša Zupan Korže in Sonja Sibila Lebe

Podjetništvo najpogosteje povezujemo z ustanavljanjem novih podjetij, večinoma malih in srednje velikih (MSP); prav tako ga povezujemo s ključno osebo, ki ima najpomembnejšo vlogo v podjetniškem procesu: s podjetnikom. V teoriji najdemo različne kriterije, s pomočjo katerih ugotavljamo tipologijo podjetnikov, kot npr. doba podjetniške aktivnosti, ekonomski ali neekonomski cilji ipd. (Dunkelberg, Moore, Scott in Stull, 2013; Dincer, Yildirim in Dil, 2011; Hisrich, Peters in Shepherd, 2010; Glas, 2002; Smith in Miner, 1983). Namen tega prispevka je (a) ugotoviti tipologijo podjetnikov v malih hotelih (MH) v Sloveniji in (b) rezultate primerjati z ugotovitvami sorodnih raziskav v obstoječi literaturi (Page in Connell, 2014; Lee-Ross in Lashley, 2009). Empirična raziskava je potekala v Sloveniji v letih 2014 in 2015. Podatke smo zbrali pri podjetnikih in direktorjih malih hotelov v 62 intervjujih in s pomočjo 44 anketnih vprašalnikov, ki so jih izpolnili hotelski podjetniki. V intervjujih pridobljene podatke smo analizirali z uporabo kvalitativnih metod (interpretacije, primerjave, združevanja v skupine in kvantifikacije). Numerične podatke smo analizirali z uporabo različnih statističnih orodij (faktorske analize, hierarhične klasifikacije in Wardove metode). Rezultati raziskave so pokazali, da so slovenski hotelski podjetniki po tipologiji podobni tistim v tujini, le da je med njimi manj podjetnikov

življenjskega sloga, kot bi pričakovali glede na rezultate sorodnih raziskav v obstoječi literaturi. To je prva raziskava o tipologiji slovenskih podjetnikov v gostinstvu v Sloveniji. Omogoča jasen vpogled v značilnosti slovenskega gostinskega podjetništva in sočasno v podjetništvo v turizmu.

Ključne besede: gostinsko podjetništvo, mali hoteli, hotelski podjetniki, TMSP (mala in srednje velika podjetja v turizmu)
Academica Turistica, 10(1), 129–140

Preference muzejskih obiskovalcev glede interpretacije kot osnova za prepoznavanje in izbor ciljnih segmentov

Gorazd Sedmak in Aleksandra Brezovec

Številne študije s področja dediščine so pokazale, da je interpretacija vsebin ključna komponenta doživetja. Vendar pa obstajajo razlike med preferencami obiskovalcev glede tipa interpretacije. Te so v strokovni literaturi deležne le manjše pozornosti, a so bistvene za uspešno trženje in upravljanje dediščinskih organizacij. Članek obravnava preference obiskovalcev glede načina interpretacije v muzejih, in kakšne so razlike med segmenti obiskovalcev v zvezi s tem. Raziskava se osredotoča na sedem muzejev, ki so bili vključeni v mednarodni projekt na temo krepitve kulturnega turizma s pomočjo tržno usmerjenih pobud. Za pridobivanje informacij o profilih obiskovalcev in njihovih željah glede muzejske interpretacije je bila uporabljena metoda anketiranja. Z identificiranjem in analiziranjem interpretativnih spremenljivk in značilnosti obiskovalcev, povezanih s preferencami glede interpretacije, je bil razvit okvir, ki omogoča razvoj pobud za muzejsko interpretacijo, ki so prilagojene ciljnim tržnim segmentom.

Ključne besede: interpretacija, muzej, obiskovalci, segmentacija, Jadran
Academica Turistica, 10(1), 141–150

Izkušnje v turizmu zaposlenih imigrantov

Alja Žigo, Janja Gabruč in Emil Juvan

Raziskava proučuje izkušnje imigrantov, zaposlenih v turizmu v Sloveniji. Pregledana so bila štiri področja zaposlitvene izkušnje; (1) področja formalne urejenosti dela in bivanja, (2) zdravstveno in socialno varstvo, (3) zadovoljstvo na delovnem mestu ter (4) integracija v slovensko okolje. Povod za raziskavo so bili nedavne zgodbe o tujih zaposlenih v Sloveniji, ki so se širile po medijih ter le malo ali celo nič raziskav na to temo s področja turizma. Namen naloge pa je bil prikaz zaposlitvene izkušnje delovnih migrantov na področju turizma ter oblikovati predloge za izboljšanje zaposlitvenih izkušenj v prihodnje. V začetku je bila preštudirana teorija na izbrano temo, kasneje pa je bila sestavljena in izvedena kvalitativna raziskava, kjer so bile s pomočjo intervjujev raziskovane izkušnje štirih sodelujočih imigrantov različnih držav in poklicev. Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da je splošna zaposlitvena izkušnja imigrantov tako pozitivna kot tudi negativna, saj so se na vseh področjih raziskovanja identificirali pozitivni in negativni dejavniki izkušnje. Namen raziskave

ni podati posplošeno oceno stanja, pač pa gre za prikaz mnenj in izkušenj, s katerimi lahko stvari izboljšamo. V zaključnem delu študije so podani predlogi za izboljšanje izkušenj na treh ravneh; država, zaposlovalec in družba. Temeljni predlog je izboljšanje pretoka informacij, katere bi v večji meri preselili na splet. Naša družba naj si prizadeva za strpnost, da se bodo tujci pri nas počutili sprejeto.

Ključne besede: delo v turizmu, imigranti, zaposlitvena izkušnja
Academica Turistica, 10(1), 151–165

Trajnostni razvoj turizma v ruralnih okoljih: vloga lokalnih deležnikov

Marjetka Rangus, Boštjan Brumen, in Jasna Potočnik Topler

Članek obravnava vlogo lokalnih deležnikov pri razvoju trajnostnega turizma v ruralnih okoljih. Pri načrtovanju trajnostnega lokalnega prostorskega, gospodarskega in socialnega razvoja se v zadnjem času ponovno soočamo s problemom vključevanja t. i. deležnikov. Osnovna demokratična premisa, da bi morali o zadevah, ki se tičejo vseh, tudi vsi odločati, v konceptu trajnostnega regionalnega razvoja dobiva enakovredno mesto kot okolijska in družbena ozaveščenost. Skladno s tem načelom je treba v razvoj lokalnih skupnosti, ki so na svojem območju odgovorne tudi za turistični razvoj, vključiti čim širšo skupino predstavnikov prebivalstva, podjetnikov, društev, zvez, in posameznikov, ki jih le-ta tako ali drugače zadeva. Živahna turistična dejavnost ne kaže svojih učinkov le v gospodarstvu, pač pa vpliva na prostorski razvoj kraja, njegovo družbeni strukturo, družbeno življenje in psihološki odtis. S pomočjo strukturiranih intervjujev, opravljenih z več kot 20 posamezniki, ki so zaposleni v turizmu na širšem območju Brežic, ugotavljamo, kako se širša lokalna skupnost odziva na turistično dejavnost v občini in njeni okolici.

Ključne besede: razvoj podeželja, turizem, lokalno prebivalstvo, odnos, Brežice
Academica Turistica, 10(1), 167–173

Inoviranje poslovnega modela v turizmu: kako preživeti v visoko konkurenčnem okolju

Robert Ambrož in Doris Gomezelj Omerzel

Cilj naše raziskave je bil predstaviti vlogo in pomen uporabe koncepta poslovnega modela v turizmu. Prav tako smo želeli predstaviti pomembnost spreminjanja poslovnega modela pri ohranjanju konkurenčnosti. V ta namen smo uporabili Osterwalderjev Canvas devet segmentni koncept poslovnega modela, na osnovi katerega je bil pripravljen in izveden poglobljeni intervju z managerjem slovenske turistične agencije. Ugotovili smo, da organizacija brez spreminjanja posameznih segmentov in še pogosteje sklopov segmentov poslovnega modela ne bi več obstajala, kar je nazorno potrdil tudi njen manager: »Brez izvedenih sprememb segmentov poslovnega modela ne bi več obstajali in prepričani smo, da brez nadaljnjih sprememb v bodoče ne bomo obstali na trgu.« Članek sicer predstavlja študijo primera, zato smo v tem primeru omejeni pri posploševanju. Neprestane spremembe v visoko konkurenčnem globalnem okolju lahko dosegamo z inoviranjem poslovnega modela.

Turistične organizacije pri tem niso izjema, zato morajo artikulirati njim imanenten poslovni model in ga neprestano inovirati v kolikor želijo preživeti na hitro razvijajočem se trgu. Obstaja veliko študij, ki se nanašajo na inoviranje poslovnih modelov v turizmu. Po drugi strani pa so študije, ki se nanašajo na področje turizma v Sloveniji zelo redke, zato želimo s tem člankom vsaj delno zapolniti to vrzel. Posebno vrednost študiji našega primera daje dejstvo, da smo z njo opozorili na pomen konsistentnega spreminjanja segmentov poslovnega modela. Prav posebno vrednost pa ima študija v nazornem prikazu artikulacije poslovnega modela. S tem smo pokazali, da je poslovni model dejansko že prisoten v vsaki organizaciji tudi v turizmu in korak do tako pomembnega orodja za pomoč pri preživetju organizacije v visoko konkurenčnem okolju je le njegova artikulacija.

Ključne besede: turizem, poslovni model, poslovni model Canvas, inoviranje
Academica Turistica, 10(1), 175–183

Prenos potovalnih navad iz otroštva v odraslost

Anja Lazar in Janja Gabruč

Namen te raziskave je ugotoviti, ali se potovalne navade in vzorci turistov prenašajo iz otroštva v odraslost in kateri elementi počitnic se najpogosteje ponavljajo v odrasli dobi. Ta pojav smo preverjali s pomočjo anketnega vprašalnika, na katerega je odgovarjalo 111 anketirancev, ki se redno odpravijo na počitnice. V anketi smo predstavili dva sklopa enajstih parnih trditev, ki se navezujejo na naslednje potovalne elemente: destinacija, prostorska ponovitev, pogostost, trajanje, čas, organizacija, družba, tip počitnic, aktivnosti, namestitev in prevoz. Prvi sklop enajstih parnih trditev se je nanašal na sedanjost, drugi sklop pa na otroštvo. Ponavljanje smo preverjali s pomočjo izračuna korelacij med parnimi trditvami. Ugotovili smo, da obstajajo šibke korelacije med večino parnih trditev, kar kaže na ponavljanje vzorcev in navad iz otroštva. Najvišjo stopnjo ponavljanja smo zaznali pri elementih prevoz, aktivnosti in čas, medtem ko korelacije nismo zaznali pri elementu pogostost.

Ključne besede: turizem, turist, vzorec, navada, potovanje
Academica Turistica, 10(1), 185–188

Ustvarjanje socialnih vrednosti v turističnih projektih, povezanih z umetnostjo: vloga ustvarjalnih projektov v različnih nacionalnih in mednarodnih okoljih

Kotaro Nakamura, Hideyuki Sakamoto in Dejan Križaj

Za pojasnitev vloge umetnosti in umetnikov kot akterjev ustvarjanja v umetnostnih turističnih projektih, se študija z vidika ustvarjanja družbene vrednosti, osredotoča na umetniške projekte, ki so v fazi razvoja in katerih cilj je spodbujati trajnostnost na lokalni ravni. Predlagamo okvir za celovito razumevanje ustvarjanja družbene vrednosti v smislu teorije logike prevladujočih storitev (SDL). Okvir vključuje enajst atributov, razvrščenih v štiri kategorije (zakaj-kdo-kaj-kako), ki omogoča šest vrst

vpogleda v mrežni ekosistem akterjev projekta. Okvir je apliciran na študije primerov z Japonske: projekt Kanazawa Creative Tourism (KCT) v mestu kulturne dediščine in projekt »Kinokuni Train« (KTA) vzdolž železniške proge, ki teče skozi obalno območje z bogatimi naravnimi viri, ter podobne projekte v Sloveniji. Z intervjuji deležnikov, terenskimi raziskavami in teoretičnimi raziskavami smo analizirali in primerjali te projekte v smislu atributov, ki so vključeni v predlagani okvir. Študija omogoča vpogled v prepoznavanje glavnih tipov ustvarjalnih akterjev, vključenih v turistične projekte, ki so povezani z umetnostjo: večinoma so to lokalni umetniki in obrtniki, ampak tudi člani, ki sodelujejo predvsem kot sodelavci in posredniki na različnih ravneh integracije. Da bi validirali pridobljene vpoglede upravljanja destinacije v širšem mednarodnem okolju, se v razpravi sklicujemo na podobne primere iz Slovenije, države EU, ki imajo različna kulturna in geografska ozadja in/ali so v različni fazi zrelosti.

Ključne besede: turizem, umetniški projekti, SDL, integracija virov, soustvarjanje vrednosti
Academica Turistica, 10(1), 191–203

Posplošitev modela EDIT za neturistična področja

Lars Brehm, Dejan Križaj in Petri Pohjola

Na področju razvoja novih storitev postaja vedno pomembnejše vključevanje oblikovalskih (dizajnerskih) vidikov. Eden od takšnih pristopov je model EDIT, ki prepleta oblikovanje doživetij, inovacije in kontaktne točke (Zach & Križaj, 2016). Model pri tem vključuje oblikovalsko razmišljanje ter teorijo usvajanja inovacij. V tem prispevku avtorji raziskujejo možnosti prenosa in uporabe modela EDIT na drugih, ne-turističnih področjih. Struktura in metoda tega kratkega znanstvenega prispevka je naslednja. Uvodoma je predstavljen obstoječi model EDIT in njegov pomen v turizmu. V nadaljevanju so vse tri osi modela analizirane z vidika splošnih poslovnih področij in prilagojene v t. i. modelu EDIT*. V skladu z ugotovitvami sta predstavljeni dve razvojno-raziskovalni strategiji z ustreznimi primeri. Prispevek se zaključi s sklepi, predlogi za prihodnje raziskave in ugotovljenimi prednostmi in slabostmi modela EDIT*.

Ključne besede: inovacije, oblikovanje, razvoj izdelkov in storitev, uporabniška izkušnja
Academica Turistica, 10(1), 205–211

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Indexed in Centre International de Recherches et d'Etudes Touristiques (CIRET), CAB International, Erih Plus, and EconPapers.

Published by University of Primorska Press
University of Primorska
Titov trg 4, SI-6000 Koper
E-mail: zalozba@upr.si
Web: http://www.hippocampus.si

Editorial Office Academica Turistica
Faculty of Tourism Studies – Turistica
Obala 11a, SI-6320 Portorož, Slovenia
Telephone: +386 5 617-70-00
Fax: +386 5 617-70-20
E-mail: academica@turistica.si
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Subscriptions The journal is distributed free of charge. For information about postage and packaging prices, please contact us at academica@turistica.si.

Copy Editors Shelagh Hedges and Terry Troy Jackson
Cover Design Mateja Oblak
Cover Photo Iztok Bončina
Printed in Slovenia by Birografika Bori, Ljubljana
Print Run 100 copies

Academica Turistica – Revija za turizem in inovativnost je znanstvena revija, namenjena mednarodni znanstveni in strokovni javnosti; izhaja v angleščini s povzetki v slovenščini. Izid publikacije je finančno podprla Agencija za raziskovalno dejavnost Republike Slovenije iz sredstev državnega proračuna iz naslova razpisa za sofinanciranje domačih znanstvenih periodičnih publikacij. Revija je brezplačna.

ISSN 1855-3303 (printed)
ISSN 2335-4194 (online)

UNIVERSITY OF PRIMORSKA

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TURISTICA

FACOLTÀ DI STUDI PER IL TURISMO

FAKULTETA ZA TURISTIČNE ŠTUDIJE