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Approaches and Methods in Tourism Research

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REVIEWS, COMMENST, SCIENTIFIC CONTROVERSY, MEMORIES

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FROM THE EDITOR

Dear Readers,

We present to you the next issue of our journal, hoping it be in accordance with your interests, which may result, on the one hand, from important issues, as well as from the excellent group of authors who have sent us their works. This issue is generally devoted to the methodology of research in tourism, including, in particular, considerations on paradigms and research approaches, as well as methods and techniques used in research on various tourism phenomena, conducted within various fields and disciplines of science. It is published 15 years after one of the most important debates on tourism research, which took place in Poland, i.e. the several-day *Tourism in Scientific Research* conference. This conference in 2005 was organised jointly by two universities where I was working at the time, and I had the pleasure of being its organiser and scientific secretary. About 200 researchers from over a dozen countries all over the world presented their papers on various aspects of scientific research, including several specially invited scientists worldly renown, who are true scientific masters and research leaders in their fields[1]. The result of this day-conference (combined with the award of the world's second honorary doctorate for research on tourism, which was awarded to Professor Krzysztof Przecławski), was six volumes of conference materials (including bilinguals, published both on Polish and English). During the conference, both in speeches and backstage discussions, the dominant view was that the level of methodological advancement of tourism research was rather low. The prevailing opinion was that while quantitatively developing very quickly, there was little progress in terms of quality. One of the main reasons for this situation is considered the methodological short-

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[1] Apart from myself, the conference was attended by two authors of works published in this issue of "Folia Turistica". The first – Professor Josef A. Mazanec, who then presented a paper on the possibility of applying new approaches and concepts developed in marketing and management among tourism research, including causal reasoning and typological mapping of research results in tourism (title: *Marketing and Management Science Applications to Tourism Research: Selected Examples*). The conference was also attended by Dr. D. Ujma, who gave a paper written together with Prof. Dimintrios Buhalis on the impact of modern technologies regarding the functioning of the tourism market, considered in terms of new methods of intermediation and dynamic creation of tourist packages (title: *Tourism Intermediaries and Value Creation*). Both articles were published in the book: *Tourism in Scientific Research* (edited by Wiesław Alejziak and Ryszard Winiarski), University of Physical Education in Kraków, University of Information Technology and Management in Rzeszów, Krakow-Rzeszów.

comings of research on tourism, regardless of the fields and disciplines in which they are conducted. It was emphasized that compared to other fields (especially the so-called traditional sciences), research on tourism had not yet developed into its own paradigms and was forced – "sometimes with better, sometimes with worse effect" – to use approaches and research methods adopted from other fields.

It seems that despite the progress that has been made in this matter since then, research on tourism is still classified as being at the early stages of its development. One may wonder whether one of the reasons is the fact that the discussion on the general science and research methodology of tourism is undertaken in our tourism environment quite rarely, which also applies to journals. Therefore, we have decided to devote this issue of "Folia Turistica" to that issue. The entire volume consists of five scientific articles, one recent review and a very interesting two-volume book, and one article in memory of a scholar who had only just passed away, presenting his contribution to tourism research, a scholar who can undoubtedly be counted among the real scientific masters in our field.

The considerations on the methodology of tourism research presented in this issue open with the article written by a three-person team of authors, representing two universities in Great Britain (London Metropolitan University and Bournemouth University) and the Mohammed bin Rashid School of Government in Dubai. **Peter Mason**, **Marcjanna M. Augustyn** and **Arthur Seakhoa-King** take up the topic of applications that may now be found in tourism research and those of mixed methods which may be used in the future (Mixed Methods of Research). The authors provide interesting descriptions of these methods, showing readers insight into the detailed aspects of such an approach in tourism research. One of the main contexts of the research described in the article is the question as to what tourists associate with the quality of a tourist destination (TDQ study). In the article, a detailed description of how the research presented in it was designed (including the development of research tools and testing techniques as part of pilot studies). The authors suggest that the initial systematic qualitative phase of research can be used as part of an overall mixed-methods approach. The authors emphasize the superiority of individual in-depth interviews over questionnaire studies and group interviews, especially in terms of obtaining detailed (and often unique) data. It is worth adding that in addition to emphasizing the advantages of mixed research methods, their disadvantages are also presented in the article, which makes this a kind of methodological guide for scientists interested in using them in their research projects.

The issue of the first article, to some extent, corresponds with the second paper, in which the team of authors representing two academic centres in Austria: **Claudia Bauer-Krösbacher** (IMC University of Applied

Sciences Krems) and **Josef A. Mazanec** (Modul University Vienna), deals with modelling the perception and authenticity of museum-goer experiences. In the research described in this article (i.e. with the use of the Finite Mixture Model), which was carried out at the Sisi Museum in Vienna and the Guinness Storehouse in Dublin, the authors were particularly interested in how the research procedures may be influenced by the unobservable heterogeneity of the research subject, i.e. case perception and authenticity of experiences). They present several variants of the experience of authenticity and analyse how they are related to each other and how they affect the satisfaction of visitors. The result of the research is the theoretical Authenticity Model, reflecting the experience of authenticity by tourists visiting the studied museums. The authors used a multi-stage model fitting and validation procedure, applying causal inference methods and the Finite Mixture Model, which has not been practiced so far in research on the authenticity of tourists' experiences (especially in terms of detecting unobserved heterogeneity).

In another work, **Marica Mazurek** (Zilinska University, Žilina, Slovakia) attempts to explain the changes that have taken place in the research on tourism with regard to brand management. The author tries to reflect on the epistemological dimension of brand knowledge as one of the elements and tools of innovation used in the marketing of tourist services. The author analyses various methodological approaches used in research on tourism and destination branding, considering this issue in conjunction with new trends in research on innovation. According to the author, such an approach may be important within the context of the necessary change in methodology regarding research on tourism branding, which should, to a greater extent, implement research methods as a result of combining different disciplines ("research methods as a result of blending different disciplines").

In yet another work, **Marian Gúčik** and **Matúš Marciš** (both representing Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica, Slovakia) analyse the development of tourism research in Slovakia. They focus their attention on the last 10 years (the second part of the article), but the work also contains (in the first part of the article) characteristics of research undertaken earlier (starting from the interwar period) as well as interesting analyses of changes that took place in this area (including the issue of academic education in the field of tourism), along with the socio-political changes in this country. Particularly interesting are the analyses concerning the problems of doctoral and postdoctoral dissertations based on tourism research, which were defended at various universities in Slovakia. The article also contains postulates concerning further directions of research on tourism.

The final article is an in-depth theoretical study, largely based on the analysis of many years of observations made by an experienced tourism researcher – it is an excellent summary of the considerations presented earlier, because, on the one hand, an attempt is made to find a specific diagnosis of research on tourism in connection with academic education, and on the other, the directions of their further development were indicated. The author is **Geoffrey Wall** (University of Waterloo, Canada), who – based on personal experiences and observations gained during almost 50 years of his academic career (apart from Canada, the professor also worked in many other countries, including Indonesia and China) – puts forward a thesis about the need to expand research and educational programmes in tourism. In his opinion, progress in tourism research is also hampered by administrative procedures, which should be more flexible to facilitate the creation of greater synergy between teaching, research and scientific publications.

The last two publications are in the section "REVIEWS, COMMENTS, SCIENTIFIC CONTROVERSY, MEMORIES", and concern the first and last category of works published in this part of our journal. The author of the first one is **Piotr Zmyślony**, who undertook the difficult – I believe – reviewing the monumental work, which is the two-volume book (over 1,300 pages in total) by Armin Mikos von Rohrscheidt, *Cultural Tourism Management*. The entire issue ends with an article in which a team of three authors, **Wiesław Alejziak**, **Dorota Ujma** and **Richard Sharpley**, present the life and work of an outstanding and highly valued tourism researcher, the recently passed Professor Philip L. Pearce. The article describes the contribution of Ph. L. Pearce to the development of world tourism research, enriched with personal memories of both authors and of other tourism researchers who spoke about this True Master in the field of tourism research and knowledge[2].

Wishing you a pleasant reading experience and new scientific inspiration.

Wiesław Alejziak

[2] Professor Philip Pearce was amazingly able to combine the best features of all three basic types of scientific masters – "Coryphaeus/guide", "Interpreter/defender of the canon" and "Scholar/educator" – described in W. Alejziak's typology, being a scholar of outstanding intellectual, scientific and moral values of Cf. W. Alejziak (2011), *Who is an Academic Mentor*, *and what is his/her Role in Contemporary Study*? *Some Thoughts Based on Tourism Research*, "Folia Turistica": "The Master Classes" – Special Edition Published on the 35th Anniversary of the Tourism and Recreation Faculty at the University of Physical Education in Kraków (ed. W. Alejziak), Vol. 25 (1), pp. 399-451.

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MIXED METHODS RESEARCH IN TOURISM: A SYSTEMATIC SEQUENTIAL APPROACH

Peter Mason, Marcjanna M. Augustyn**, Arthur Seakhoa-King****

Abstract

Purpose: This article discusses the use of mixed methods research in tourism. It provides the rationale for the use of mixed methods and discusses the context in which this was chosen and used. It outlines the major research philosophies, and their advantages and disadvantages, and discusses the systematic, sequential, step-by-step research processes that were employed. The article also analyses the potential usefulness of specific qualitative data collection techniques.
Method: The context of the article was a study investigating what tourists associate with tourism destination quality (henceforth referred to as the TDQ study). The article indicates the nature of the phases of research in the TDQ study, beginning with the qualitative exploratory research involved. It discusses how questions were designed, and the pre-testing and piloting of questions and research techniques. It provides details on the main qualitative and subsequent quantitative phases of the research.
Findings: The article argues that an initial systematic qualitative phase of research can be used within an overall mixed methods approach to precede a quantitative phase with a successful outcome in terms of robust and rigorous research findings. Additionally, the results of the pilot study data indicate the superiority of the in–depth interviews technique over focus group interviews and open-ended questionnaires in terms of the technique's effectiveness, efficiency, and ability to generate in-depth, detailed and unique data.
Research and conclusion limitation: The article discusses only one case study in detail.
Practical implication: Although not intended to be prescriptive, this article could be used as a blueprint for those involved in research involving similar methodology.
Originality: This article advances knowledge of the effectiveness of mixed method methodologies and techniques in tourism studies. By providing a detailed account of a systematic sequential mixed method approach, the paper provides insights into and a potential blueprint for researchers interested in conducting such research.
Type of paper: research methodology article.

Keywords: mixed methods, pragmatism, exploratory research, qualitative research, quantitative research, systematic sequential research design, tourism destination quality.

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Introduction

The use of mixed methods, although not new, is a fairly recent phenomenon in tourism research [Khoo-Lattimore, Mura, Yung 2019; Mason, Augustyn, Seakhoa-King 2010; Seakhoa-King, Augustyn, Mason 2021] and there have been relatively few articles employing mixed methods compared with the use of just one research philosophy, be it either quantitative or qualitative [Khoo-Latimore *et al.*, 2019] Early research in tourism, going back to at least the 1960s, was largely quantitative [Mason 2017]. The starting point for such quantitative research was often government or company documents, and this approach was frequently supported by the primary research technique of the questionnaire survey, which usually sought generalisable results from a sample of respondents who provided mainly short answers, via closed–ended questions, that could be statistically analysed.

Reaction against this quantitative approach in tourism research was appearing during the 1970s in the work of sociologists and anthropologists such as E. Cohen [1972] and G. Dann [1977] For such researchers, the use of interviews and focus groups was relatively common [Lincoln, Guba 1985], as they were interested in views and opinions and these can best be expressed in depth and detail using the words of respondents themselves, rather than responses generated via the use of author–designed, closed–ended questions, such as those on a questionnaire, it was argued [Cresswell 2018; Mason 2014].

Although the paragraphs above refer briefly to the nature of the two predominant research traditions used in tourism research over the past fifty years, a third approach was being applied during the last thirty years or so. This, mixed methods research, is less well known than either of the two other approaches, partly because it is relatively new [Teddlie, Tashakkori 2009]. As it is less well known, it is defined below. A. Teddlie and A. Tashakkori, major authors discussing mixed methods, have indicated it presents an alternative to the quantitative and qualitative traditions by:

> 'advocating the use of whatever methodological tools are required to answer the research questions under study' [2009, p. 6].

In terms of research design, A. Tashakkori and A. Teddlie [2003] defined mixed methods research as where both quantitative and qualitative approaches are used in types of questions, research methods, data collection and analysis, while A. Tashakkori and J. Cresswell, [2007] also stressed the links between the two main research traditions, when defining mixed methods as research where the investigator collects and analyses, and integrates findings, using both qualitative and quantitative approaches.

However, the use of mixed methods is frequently viewed as controversial [Teddlie, Tashakkori, 2009; Timans, Wouters, Heilbron 2019] and for some researchers combining quantitative and qualitative design, data collection and analytical processes is regarded as inappropriate, as the underlying philosophies are incompatible [Guba 1987; Smith, Heshusius 1986]. This issue of potential incompatibility is discussed later in this section, and in more detail in that following this one, which focuses on research philosophy.

Nevertheless, it is appropriate here to indicate the thinking that took place in relation to the main context for this article, where mixed methods were used. Whilst questionnaires may be appropriate where pre–existing published work can be used to create questions for a new context, there is much that is still unknown, or little understood in the relatively new field of tourism studies. This means that the type of questions to be asked are not necessarily obvious, and there is little or no guidance from previously published work. In this context, question design may not be straightforward, and the use of a questionnaire survey is probably unsuitable. Hence, a quantitative approach is not necessarily viewed as appropriate.

This was the context for the study discussed later in this article. The focus of this (the TDQ study) was tourism destination quality, a topic with some research already that had used the services marketing conceptualisation of quality, but where there was a lack of research on tourists' views on what tourism destination quality is. By definition, any research that investigates new topics, is likely to be of an exploratory nature [Mason *et al*, 2010]. However, there appears to be little guidance on how to conduct exploratory research in the tourism field [Stebbins 2001].

This situation poses a significant dilemma for researchers who wish to push back the boundaries of tourism knowledge and yet conduct research that is valid, reliable and robust. The preference may be for quantitative techniques but creating questions for a new topic, with hardly any prior research, could be difficult. On the other hand, researchers are likely to be aware of the criticisms of qualitative techniques, as for examples interviews are criticised for lacking rigor and being not scientific and the results not being generalisable to the whole population [Timans *et al*., 2019; Cresswell 2018; Mason 2014]. As indicated briefly above, for many researchers there is potentially an even more important dilemma: each of the two main research approaches, the quantitative and qualitative, has a different philosophy, as well as using different techniques. Hence for some, the two research philosophies are incompatible. So, a researcher who has only ever used quantitative techniques will not only have to learn about alternative techniques but may need to change their perspective on the nature of research itself, as well as the underlying principles that guide it.

This article therefore discusses the rationale for the use of mixed methods. Although, this paper is largely concerned with practical steps to achieve mixed methods research, rather than focusing on the philosophical issues, the paper briefly outlines the major research philosophies, and their advantages and disadvantages.

2. Research Philosophy

According to T. Eldabi, Z. Irani, R.J. Paul and P. E. Love [2002], research philosophies can be grouped into two general categories: positivism and interpretivism, with each representing different, if not competing views on how to conduct research. As J. Phillimore and L. Goodson [2004] note, any research philosophy adopted in a study should fit the research problem that the researcher intends to investigate, implying researchers need to choose one or other research category.

The research philosophy of positivism, until fairly recently regarded as the dominant approach in tourism research [Khoo-Lattimore *et al.,* 2019; Riley, Love 2000; Walle 1997], views reality as singular and independent of the researcher [Creswell 2018; Decrop 1999; Lincoln, Guba 1985]. It also regards reality as something which can be measured objectively, for example, by using a quantitative research instrument [Teddlie, Tashakkori 2009; Davies 2003].

However, the research philosophy of interpretivism rejects the idea of a single objectively measurable reality, positing instead the existence of subjective, multiple constructed realities [Cresswell 2018; Davies 2003; Lincoln, Guba 1985]. The individuals involved in the research situation here, including the researcher, those being investigated, and the reader or audience interpreting the research, are regarded as the creators of these realities [Creswell 2018]. Interpretivists contend that multiple realities can only be captured through the employment of less rigid data collection techniques than generally used in quantitative research [Cresswell, Plano Clark 2007; Bernard 2000].

The research philosophies of positivism and interpretivism also differ in their assumptions about the relationship between reality and the researcher [Creswell 2018]. Interpretivism has its roots in 'Verstehen' or the empathetic understanding tradition of Max Weber. Here, it is argued that to understand peoples' behaviour, researchers need to put themselves in the place of the enquiry subjects [Jennings 2011]. Therefore, interpretivist researchers try to minimise the distance between themselves and respondents [Creswell 2018]. So, the interpretivist tries to get inside the respondents' minds and see the world from their view [Jennings 2011]. Interpretivists have been described as observers 'from the inside', the term used is 'emic' [Teddlie, Tashakkori 2009; Phillimore, Goodson 2004; Walle 1997]. However, positivist researchers try to provide an independent, outsider's account of the research process, known as an 'etic' approach [Teddlie, Tashakkori 2009; Phillimore and Goodson 2004; Walle 1997] to ensure that the researcher's biases are excluded [Creswell 2018].

Although, the two research philosophies may seem incompatible, they are being increasingly combined in the social sciences, including in tourism research [Timans *et al.*, 2019; Mason *et al.,* 2010; Seakhoa-King *et al.*, 2021] and what makes it possible to use them together in one study, is the underlying philosophy of the majority of mixed methods research, that of pragmatism [Teddlie, Tashakkori 2009]. Pragmatism has been defined as a research approach that:

> debunks concepts such as 'truth' and 'reality' and focuses instead on 'what works' as the truth regarding the concepts under investigation. Pragmatism rejects the either/or choices of the paradigm wars (and) advocates for the use of mixed methods in research [Tashakkori, Teddlie 2003, p. 713].

Despite mixed methods being a fairly new research approach, a number of different types can be identified. For example, J.W. Creswell and V. Plano Clark [2007] identified 12 different classification systems in mixed methods, drawn from several fields in the social sciences, including nursing, health, education and behavioural studies. J.W. Cresswell [2009, based on Cresswell, Plano Clark, Gutman, Hanson 2003], suggested there are six types of mixed methods research. There are two major groupings in this sixfold typology, based on whether different research approaches are used *sequentially* or *concurrently* [Cresswell 2009]. In relation to sequential research, one approach begins with qualitative research and is then followed by a quantitative phase, and this is termed *sequential exploratory research* by J.W. Cresswell [2009]. Research starting with a quantitative approach, followed by a qualitative phase is termed *sequential explanatory research* [Creswell 2009]. The third type of sequential research uses a specific theoretical perspective from the beginning, which shapes the direction of the research, and the sequence of the two-phase research can begin with either a quantitative or a qualitative approach and J.W. Creswell terms this *sequential transformative research*. In terms of the second major grouping, Cresswell indicates there is *concurrent triangulation*, where both qualitative and quantitative data are collected concurrently. In this approach, the intention is to give equal weighting to each of the qualitative and quantitative approaches. However, in contrast, in the *concurrent embedded approach*, there is one predominant approach, and the secondary supporting approach (quantitative or qualitative) is embedded within the main approach. Finally, in this six-fold typology, there is the *transformative concurrent* approach where the research is guided by the use of a specific theory in the collection of both quantitative and qualitative data, concurrently [Cresswell 2009]

However, the major purpose of this article is not to focus on the philosophical issues of the different research paradigms, but instead to show 'what works' [Tashakkori, Teddlie 2003] by indicating the practical steps of mixed methods research, through a discussion of the sequential stages of the TDQ study, and reasons for the methodological choices made. This involves discussion of the selection of the overall research approach, data collection techniques, sampling procedures and analytical techniques. Nevertheless, it does not discuss the results in any detail [for an in–depth discussion of these see Seakhoa–King *et al.*, 2021].

3. The TDQ Study: Systematic Sequential Mixed Methods Approach

This section of the article indicates the nature of the phases of research in the TDQ study, beginning with the exploratory research involved. It discusses how questions were designed, and the pre-testing and piloting of questions. It provides details on the main qualitative and subsequent quantitative phases of the research.

At the start of the research process for the TDQ study, two significant questions required answers. These were:

a) What type of research problem/issue was being investigated?
b) How should research be conducted once the nature of the research problem/issue had been clearly identified?

The response to Question (a) depended on whether this was a problem/issue that had been previously well–researched or a new/relatively un–/under researched one. Once Question (a) had been answered, then Question (b) could be. In relation to Question (a) a literature search indicated little was known about the issue of destination quality from the tourists' perspective, this was a new topic and hence the research was regarded as exploratory. As there was no known pre–existing literature on the issue, an attempt to gain insights into and a clearer understanding of it, would require results to be in depth and detail, it was decided. However, the intention of the research was not to just gain depth and detail, which would almost certainly mean obtaining views from a relatively small number of tourists, but also to gain a broader understanding from a larger population of tourists.

Therefore, in relation to Question (a) above, attempting to gain depth and detail concerning the issue, but also a wider understanding of it, had implications for the conduct of the research, specifically in terms of the nature of the underlying philosophy and the data collection techniques to be used. It was clear from what was required, that two philosophical and practical approaches to conducting the research would be required, but also that they would need to be sequenced. Therefore, of particular importance, in terms of the practicalities of actually doing the research, a decision on how the two approaches would be sequenced was required. Figure 1 shows the questions in chronological order that were created once the two initial questions, (a) and (b) above, were answered. This article discusses responses to Questions 1–14, as these are the key methodology questions.

1) What research philosophy should be used in the first phase of research?
2) Which research techniques should be used in the first phase of research?
3) What specific questions should be asked in the first phase of research?
4) How should pre-testing take place in the first phase of research?
5) How should a pilot study be created and used in the first phase of research?
6) How should the results of the pilot study be used to help design the main research instrument in the first phase of research?
7) How should the research in the first phase be conducted?
8) How should results of the first phase of research be used in the second stage?
9) Which research philosophy should be used in the second phase?
10) Which research techniques should be used in the second phase?
11) What specific questions should be asked in the second phase?
12) How should a pilot study be created and used in the second phase?
13) How should the second stage research be conducted?
14) How should the results from the second stage be analysed?
15) What were the overall findings of Phase 1 and Phase 2?
16) What conclusions could be drawn from the findings?
17) What recommendations (if any) could be made, based on the findings?

Figure 1. Sequential research questions in the TDQ study
Source: based on Seakhoa-King *et al*. [2021].

In relation to Question 1 in Fig. 1, what research philosophy would be appropriate for use in the first phase, a literature search had indicated little was known about the issue of what tourism destination quality is from the tourists' perspective, and hence the research was regarded as exploratory [Stebbins 2001; Cresswell 2009]. As far as was known there was no pre–existing literature on the topic, so any attempt to gain insights into this unexplored issue, would require results to be in depth and detail, it was decided. However, the intention of the research was not to just gain depth and detail, which would almost certainly mean obtaining views from a relatively small number of tourists, but also to gain a broader understanding from a larger population of respondents. Attempting to gain depth and detail, but also a wider understanding of the issue, had implications for the conduct of the research in terms of the nature of the underlying philosophy and the data collection techniques to be used [Teddlie, Tashakkori 2009]. However, once it was clear that two approaches to conducting the research would be required, of particular importance, in terms of the practicalities of actually doing the research, was deciding how it would be the sequenced.

The choice of the research philosophy in the first phase of research was primarily guided by the nature of the problem to be researched [Mason *et al* 2010]. Given that the detailed and in–depth views of tourists were required for the initial part of the research, the philosophy of interpretivism was regarded as appropriate and this underpinned the first phase.

To briefly outline the meaning of later questions (Questions 9–17) in Fig. 1, having conducted the research in response to Questions 3–8, the second phase of the research could then begin with an answer to Question 9, and proceed through, in sequence, up to Question 14, prior to a consideration of the entire research process in terms of overall analysis, conclusions and recommendations (if required) (see Questions 15 to 17 in Fig. 1).

4. The TDQ Study: Designing the Qualitative Phase of Research

The design of the qualitative phase of the TDQ studies followed several stages, which are discussed sequentially in sections 4.1–4.6.

4.1. Selecting Qualitative Data Gathering Techniques

In response to Question 2 in Fig.1, in terms of how this initial phase should be conducted, with exploratory studies much literature suggests that the qualitative research approach is appropriate [see e.g. Patton 1990; Sekaran, Bougie 2016]. Hence, qualitative methods were regarded as most suitable in this initial phase, and it was considered appropriate to use qualitative techniques to capture individual tourists' views on their understanding of tourism destination quality [Maykut, Morehouse 1994; Patton 2014]. Once Question 2 in Fig. 1 had been answered, then it was possible to consider subsequent questions (Questions 3–8 in Figure 1) and how responses would be achieved.

However, to return to the first stage of the planned research, it is accepted that qualitative research can have flexible research design, where researchers have freedom to experiment, before establishing the most appropriate technique(s) for the study [Bernard 2000]. Therefore, in an attempt to answer Question 2 in Fig. 1, it was necessary to ascertain which techniques would be most appropriate. As a starting point, previous exploratory studies [Minjoon, Peterson, Zsidisin 1998; Echtner, Ritchie 1991; 1993] were reviewed, leading to the identification of three possibilities: an open–ended questionnaire, an in–depth interview, and a focus group interview. These three techniques are also recommended by several other researchers [Finn, Elliott-White, Walton 2000, Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias 2008; Krueger 1994] in this type of context and each is discussed briefly below.

An open–ended questionnaire is a technique where respondents are required to answer questions in their own words, rather than in pre–determined categories [Finn *et al.* 2000; Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias 2008].

An advantage of an open–ended questionnaire is that respondents can be asked to complete it themselves, unaided by a researcher [Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias 2008], which can eliminate researcher biases to which other qualitative data gathering techniques can be prone [Berg 1995]. However, a disadvantage is that open–ended questionnaires may be very time–consuming to complete [Frankfort–Nachmias, Nachmias 2008].

A focus group is a planned group discussion intended to obtain participants' views on a topic [Krueger 1994]. The participants for focus groups are selected on the basis that they share certain characteristics relevant to the research issue but have not previously been in contact [Bernard 2000; Krueger 1994]. Full agreement on the size of a focus group is lacking, but somewhere between 6 and 12 is usually considered appropriate [Marshall, Rossman 2014; Sekaran, Bougie 2016]. However, focus groups consisting of fewer than five and larger than twelve participants are frequently reported in literature [Marshall, Rossman 2014].

The advantages associated with the technique, are that it is able to generate a good deal of information, particularly when participants 'spark each other off' [Berg 1995; Morgan 2006], and its relatively flexible nature provides the freedom to explore unanticipated issues that may arise [Krueger 1994]. Furthermore, as there are more participants in focus groups than in much qualitative research, this can overcome issues of small sample size, as well as save time [Morgan 2006].

However, a major weakness of this technique is that it can be prone to bias, particularly if researchers lead participants to say what they think the researcher wants to hear [Kruger 1994; Morgan 2006]. This technique can create false consensus wherein participants with strong personalities and / or similar views may dominate the discussion, while others may remain silent [Kruger 1994]. A researcher will have less control when gathering data, than in the context of an interview, meaning focus groups can be time–wasting, as irrelevant issues are discussed [Morgan 2006].

There are various definitions of the in–depth–interview. However, N. Lincoln and E. Guba [1985] indicate that it is a purposeful conversation, and R. Bodgan and S. Biklen [1982] concur, adding it is usually between two people. The term 'in–depth' here means to go into detail and to get more understanding of a topic [Wengraf 2001]. This technique can maximise the amount and variety of information obtainable from each interviewee [Wengraf 2001]. It also has the advantage that trust can be built, making it possible to gain information that would not be obtained otherwise [Adams, Schvaneveldt 1991].

A major disadvantage is that the technique can be time consuming [Jennings 2011; Wengraf 2001]. Bias, arising from the verbal and non–verbal actions and reactions of the interviewer can also be a problem [Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias 2008; Jordan, Gibson 2004].

The next section outlines the process of constructing each of the three data collection techniques adopted in the first phase of the research process.

4.2. Designing Qualitative Data Gathering Techniques

The process of designing the data collection techniques commenced with the formulation of questions (see Question 3 in Fig. 1). This is crucial, as the nature and quality of the questions have significant effects on the overall research findings, and the relevance of information collected depends on the questions [Belson 1986; Foddy 1993]. As there is a risk that questions containing errors can be incorporated in data collection instruments [de Vaus 2013], preventative measures to reduce risk were incorporated in the design. Literature provides strategies for reducing the risk of formulating questions with errors [e.g. Foddy 1993; Sudman, Bradburn 1982] and these consisted of five steps.

- Step one: determine precisely what information is needed. A major source of what information is required is the research question/research aim (s) [Foddy 1993; Sudman, Bradburn 1982] and reading and re–reading this was the approach used in the TDQ study.
- Step two: decide on questioning strategy. Generally, the choices are whether to use open–ended or closed–ended questions, or possibly both [Oppenheim 1992]. As open–ended questions are more suited for qualitative studies [Patton 2014], this strategy was selected. However, it was decided that some questions in this first phase would be closed–ended, to identify the socio–economic and travel characteristics of respondents [Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias 2008].
- Step three: formulate suitable questions. The questions formulation process resulted in
  a) five open–ended questions concerned with tourism destination quality, and
  b) six closed–ended questions, plus two open–ended questions, concerned with socio–economic and travel characteristics.
- Steps four and five: pre–tests, revising and confirming the questions. Generally, it is suggested questions should be pre–tested [Foddy 1993], to detect any errors [Foddy 1993; Zikmund, Carr, Griffin 2013]. To enable ‘pre–testing’ of the questions, a questionnaire divided into Sections A and B was developed, where Section A consisted of the five open–ended questions concerned with tourism destination quality, and Section B comprised six closed questions and the two open–ended questions to gather respondents’ profile.

Pre-testing of questions (see Question 4 in Fig. 1) is usually conducted with small numbers of respondents drawn from the target population [Foddy 1993; Belson 1986; Zikmund *et al* 2013]. However, in the TDQ study, a preliminary step was added that involved pre-testing using students from the researchers' University Business School. This led to the elimination of some minor errors prior to the main pre-test of questions conducted with a sample of tourists at a UK shopping mall and twenty questionnaires were distributed. Each questionnaire was completed in the presence of the researcher, with respondents being encouraged to comment on the quality of questions, to help make improvements [see Belson 1986]. Based on the respondents' comments, changes were made to the wording of some questions in Section A, resulting in six open–ended questions. The six closed–ended questions and two open–ended questions in Section B did not require any changes.

The second stage in the designing of the techniques involved the construction and pre–testing of each of the three techniques. Using the questions trialled in the pre–test, first the open–ended questionnaire was developed, following guidelines particularly from A.N. Oppenheim (1992] and A.J. Veal [2011]. The resulting questionnaire consisted of Section A, made up of six open–ended questions concerned with destination quality, and Section B comprised six closed–ended questions and two open–ended questions concerned with the respondent's profile.

Regarding the in–depth interviews and the focus group interviews, it was decided to use the same questions as used in the open–ended questionnaire to enable comparisons to be made, and separate pre–tests were conducted for each technique, using five respondents, and no problems emerged.

Pre–testing of the focus group interview was conducted with eight University Business School students who had had no previous involvement in the research. The problems that occurred were respondents often spoke to two or three people at the same time, which created a problem when transcribing, and some respondents spoke quietly, so could not be heard well. Improvements were then made for the planned pilot study.

4.3. Piloting Qualitative Research Techniques

It was difficult to anticipate whether the three techniques would work in the TDQ study, and as D.G. Miller [1991] noted, techniques of data collection are useful if (and only if) they are appropriate within the context of the study in which they are employed. As a result, it was decided to conduct a pilot study, to try out the suitability of each. For this to be meaningful, criteria for assessing the suitability of each collection techniques were established in advance [see Mason *et al.,* 2010; Patton 2014; Seakhoa-King *et al.,* 2021]. These criteria were: (1) effectiveness, (2) efficiency, (3) depth and detail, and (4) the uniqueness of data generated.

Effectiveness of data collection techniques was assessed in terms of the technique's ability to generate required data, while efficiency was assessed in terms of the amount of data each technique could generate per respondent [Patton 2014; Seakhoa-King *et al.,* 2021]. Regarding depth and detail, each technique was assessed in terms of the meaningfulness of data [Patton 2014]. Uniqueness of the data was assessed in terms of the ability of a technique to generate information no other technique generated [Patton 2014; Seakhoa-King *et al* 2021].

A detailed plan of the pilot phase of the TDQ study was created (see Question 5 in Fig.1) with the intention of involving a relatively large number and variety of participants, spread across several different locations. This sample was intended to gain a deep and detailed understanding of tourists' understanding of destination quality and the type of sampling used was purposive [Mason 2014; Patton 2014]. This means that the selection of subjects ensured that 'information rich' [Patton 2014] individuals were included – i.e. those with the potential to provide the greatest insights into the research questions [Devers, Frankel 2000].

'Information rich' subjects are usually identified against criteria relevant to the study, pre–determined by the researcher [Patton 2014]. As tourists from different backgrounds could have different views on destination quality, respondents from diverse demographic origins were to be included. As a result, socio–demographic and travel characteristics were the pre–determined criteria for selecting respondents. Data was then collected in locations in England and South Africa, as part of a strategy of triangulation of locations of data collection [Decrop 1999]. This was intended to ensure that potential differences in views, based on different locations, were captured. The places were chosen by means of convenience sampling [Henry 1990], but in the case of South Africa, one of the team of researchers was co–incidentally visiting the country.

There were some issues in relation to the piloting of each technique. In terms of the open–ended questionnaire, not all respondents understood the questions concerned with destination quality and the questionnaire was improved and four new open–ended questions created and then pre–tested at a UK shopping centre, before being successfully piloted at Stansted Airport with a sample of 40 respondents completing the questionnaire.

The piloting of the in–depth interviews was conducted after the completion of the open–ended questionnaires, using convenience sampling. This sequence enabled the questions developed previously to be used for the in–depth interviews [Patton 2014]. The same location was used for the piloting of the open–ended questionnaire. The major issues in this case were related to recording techniques. Initially, manual written recording was conducted, but this took too long, and subsequently an electronic recorder was used, but some respondents were not happy with this. Additionally, interviewing in public spaces led to problems, as this setting was uncomfortable for some participants. In terms of the piloting of the focus group, no major issues occurred.

The data gathered in the pilot study of all three techniques was analysed using the constant comparison technique developed by B. Glaser and A.L. Strauss [1967]. Constant comparison is a process whereby data is coded into emerging themes and then repeatedly revised until it is apparent that no new themes are emerging, and the themes are then categorised (this process is discussed in more detail in section 4.6). The analysis of pilot study data enabled the assessment of the suitability of each three data gathering techniques.

4.4. Learning from Qualitative Pilot Study Results

A total of 92 respondents, spread over the three techniques, were involved in the pilot and there was a wide range of characteristics. There was an almost equal proportion of male and female respondents, all ages from 18 to 55+ were well represented, a range of different income levels from low to high took part, education of respondents ranged from just post–primary up to postgraduate levels, and just under a half of the sample had travelled with children.

The suitability of each technique was assessed based on the four criteria discussed in Section 4.3: (1) effectiveness, (2) efficiency, (3) depth and detail, and (4) the uniqueness of data generated. While the data generated by each data collection technique was evaluated separately, the results of the pilot study conducted in various places have been combined, since there were no significant differences in the results from different data gathering locations.

The effectiveness of each data collection technique was assessed in terms of whether it could generate the type of data that was required. The amount of relevant data was measured in terms of the number of units of meaning [Maykut, Morehouse 2002]. The results indicated each data collection technique produced some relevant data. However, the largest amount, 104 units of meaning, was obtained from in–depth interview data, whilst the focus group produced 10 units of meaning and the open–ended questionnaire 56. The results indicate that the in–depth interview technique was the most effective technique employed.

The efficiency of the techniques was assessed in terms of the amount of data that each technique could generate, divided by the number of respondents involved with each. The in–depth interview technique generated an average of 9.45 (104/11) units of meaning per respondent, while the focus group interviews generated only 1.10 (11/10) units of meaning per respondent and the open–ended questionnaires produced just 0.79 (56/71) units of meaning per respondent. Therefore, the in–depth interview technique was the most efficient technique employed.

The depth and detail of the data generated by each technique was assessed in terms of the meaningfulness of data. The results of the pilot study indicated that in-depth interviews generate more in-depth and detailed data than focus group interviews and open-ended questionnaires.

The uniqueness of the data generated was assessed in terms of the ability of each technique to generate data that no other had generated. A comparison of the units of meaning generated by each technique indicated that the in–depth interviews were the source of most unique data.

A summary of the results of the evaluation of the pilot study data is presented in Table 1, and this indicates the superiority of the in–depth interview, which can be attributed to some of the strengths inherent in this technique. In particular this relates to the use of probes that can be used to get explanation of answers from interviewees [Bernard 2000], which is not possible with the open–ended questionnaire technique. Also, probes can mean respondents add depth and detail to answers [Mason *et al* 2010; Patton 2014] and can be used to raise related points, thereby improving the overall efficiency and effectiveness of this technique.

Table 1. Comparison of the Usefulness of Data Collection Techniques in the TDQ Pilot Study

Techniques	**Criteria for Assessing the Data Collection Techniques***			
	Effectiveness	**Depth and Detail**	**Efficiency**	**Uniqueness**
In–depth Interview	✓	✓	✓	✓
Focus group	✓	✓		
Open–ended questionnaires	✓			

Source: [Seakhoa-King *et al* 2021].

Pilot study data was also used to evaluate the potential usefulness of the open–ended questions designed for the qualitative phase of the TDQ study. Each of the open–ended questions was analysed in terms of the total number of units of meaning per question to determine the most suitable questions to be used in the planned exploratory study. Two questions that generated the highest number of units of meaning: 'In your own opinion, what are the characteristics of a quality tourism destination?' and 'In your own opinion, what makes a quality tourism destination?' were selected to be used in the first phase of the qualitative exploratory TDQ study.

The pilot study had several implications for the design of the planned qualitative phase. In relation to the site for conducting the study, the pilot study revealed that the site of data collection, had little, if any, impact on the results. Hence, collecting data at multi–sites would not be necessary. It also indicated that the site chosen should be a place frequented by a wide spectrum of tourists, in terms of e.g. ethnicity, gender and age group backgrounds, but also where there were no distracted e.g. shopping.

Concerning the choice of data collection techniques, the in–depth interview was found to be the most appropriate technique in the pilot study, and it was decided that this would be employed for the main qualitative phase of the TDQ study.

Regarding the choice of questions to be used, the questions: 'In your own opinion, what are the characteristics of a quality tourism destination?', and 'In your own opinion, what makes a quality tourism destination?' showed the most potential to generate the data required.

As for the research strategy for recording responses to be used, the pilot revealed that each recording technique had advantages and disadvantages. The implications for the exploratory study were that both techniques could be employed, to make use of the advantages of each. This meant the interviews would be recorded and notes would also be taken.

4.5. Designing Sampling and Interviewing Procedures for the Qualitative Research

Given the results of the pilot study, it was decided that the in–depth interviews would be conducted between July and August at Trafalgar Square, in London, an attraction visited by a wide spectrum of tourists and where activities were not likely to discourage tourists from participating.

The sampling frame was composed of tourists who were present at Trafalgar Square during the period of data collection. Although sample sizes of between 15 to 40 have been proposed as adequate [de Ruyter, Scholl 1998], consensus on the number of interviews in qualitative research is yet to be reached. A strategy for determining an appropriate sample size, suggested by B. Glaser and A.L. Strauss [1967], known as theoretical sampling, was employed. The researcher continued interviewing until a point of 'saturation' was attained, i.e. when no new information was being obtained [Glaser, Strauss 1967], which in the TDQ study was when 41 interviews had been conducted.

The procedures for selecting respondents for the qualitative exploratory phase of the TDQ study, and for interviewing, were similar to those used in the pilot study. The formal interviewing process began with the researcher asking the question: 'In your own opinion, what are the characteristics of a quality tourism destination?'. Once the discussion was underway, the researcher relied mainly on the use of probes to stimulate further discussion and asked the remaining questions. Interviews were completed with the question 'Are there any other points you can think of?' [Bernard 2000; Ryan 2000]. All interviews were electronically recorded.

4.6. Selecting Techniques for Analysing the Qualitative Research Results

Given the exploratory nature of the research, the approach to analysing the qualitative data was to 'let the data speak for itself' [Jordan and Gibson 2004], which means results are grounded in the data. Since the constant comparison method [Glaser, Strauss 1967] that had been used in the pilot study proved to be suitable, it was employed to analyse the TDQ study's in-depth interview data. There were five major steps involved in analysing data using the constant comparison method [Maykut, Morehouse 1994].

Step one: preparing the interview data for analysis. The in–depth interviews were transcribed, and the transcripts labelled. After labelling, the transcripts were photocopied and the original transcripts stored for safekeeping, to ensure the original material was not lost. Photocopies of the transcripts were then used in subsequent stages of data analysis.

Step two: unitising the interview data. The next step was to unitise the data [Maykut, Morehouse 1994]. This is the process of searching for meaning through identifying '…chunks or units of meaning in the data' [Maykut, Morehouse 1994, p. 127]. In the initial stages, small units of meaning were identified, and these would then form the '…basis for defining larger categories of meaning' [Maykut, Morehouse 1994, p. 127]. This led to a total of 175 unitised index cards.

Step three: developing and assigning units of meaning to provisional categories. All 175 unitised index cards were pasted to a wall. The first higher–level category was developed in vivo (i.e. from the data itself) by randomly selecting a unitised index card and by assigning a name to the category that conveyed a wider sense of the unit of meaning presented on the unitised index card. The name of the category was written on a blank category index card. The unitised index card was placed under the category index card. If subsequent index cards did not fit the existing higher–level category, a new one was created. This process continued until all 175 index cards had been checked.

Step four: transforming the units of meaning to attributes. An index card consisting of a unit of meaning belonging to a specific category was selected. Using wording as close as possible to that in the unit of meaning, the first attribute of tourism destination quality for that particular category was created. To develop a second attribute, a second unit of meaning from the same category as the first unit of meaning, was selected to formulate the second attribute, and entered under the category where it belonged. This process was repeated until all the index cards falling within a given category had been exhausted, before moving on to the next category. This process then resulted in an initial list of attributes that were then allocated to respective categories (dimensions) of tourism destination quality.

Step five: refining the categories and attributes. Two tourism academics, not connected to the study, were asked to: (a) critique the categories and attributes developed, and (b) suggest the categories or attributes which could be further merged to try to eliminate duplicates [Echtner, Ritchie 1993]. Involving researchers to critique, comment or make suggestions during qualitative data analysis, is a widely employed strategy [e.g. Echtner, Ritchie 1993] to bring external scrutiny to the process, thus enhancing the validity of the outcomes [Perreault, Leigh 1989; Sinkovics, Penz, Ghauri 2005].

Subsequently, on the basis of the two experts' comments, some categories and attributes were merged and then a revised list of the categories and attributes of tourism destination quality was produced. The revised list of attributes was shown to experts again for comment. This process was then repeated. At each stage of this process, the researcher discussed with the experts the changes they were recommending. The final result was a list of 75 attributes, linked to 12 dimensions of destination quality, which were then used to inform the second (quantitative) stage of the TDQ study (see Question 9 in Fig.1).

5. The TDQ Study: Designing the Quantitative Phase of the Research

The use of quantitative research in the second phase of the TDQ study provided an opportunity for findings from the qualitative phase to be assessed, using a larger, more representative sample of the population of tourists. Also, a quantitative approach would enable an assessment of whether there were any significant differences in responses among tourists, based on their socio–economic and travel characteristics. Therefore, a quantitative survey research approach was adopted (see Question 10 in Fig.1), which involved collecting data about respondents' characteristics, experiences, and opinions [Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias 2008].

A self–administered (or self–completion) questionnaire technique [Bernard 2000] was employed in this phase (see Question 10 in Fig.1), as this type of questionnaire has certain strengths in that respondents give answers without the help of a researcher [Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias 2008]. This has the advantage of reducing the researcher's bias [Oppenheim 1992]. In addition, this technique is regarded as appropriate where a researcher intends to ask a relatively large number of questions [Bernard 2000], which was the case in this phase of the TDQ study. In addition, with this technique, the researcher can use questions that are difficult to ask using other methods [Bernard 2000]. For example, spoken questions involving a list of response categories, e.g. such as a Likert scale, can be difficult for respondents to follow (Bernard 2000). However, disadvantages associated with this technique include misinterpretation of questions by respondents [Oppenheim 1992]. The commonly used strategy for identifying and rectifying questions that could be misinterpreted, involves subjecting the questionnaire to pilot testing [de Vaus 2013]. Hence, this strategy was employed in the TDQ study.

5.1. Designing the Quantitative Self–administered Questionnaire

The design of the quantitative self–administered questionnaire followed a systematic process involving four steps [de Vaus 2013].

Step one: development of questions. Tourists' opinions provided and analysed in the qualitative phase of the TDQ study were used to develop questions for the self–administered questionnaire (see Question 11 in Fig. 1). Specifically, each of the 75 attributes identified in the qualitative phase was converted into a scale item, which is a statement designed to allow respondents to give their opinion [Oppenheim 1992; de Vaus 2013]. The intention was to enable respondents to provide their opinion on each attribute and this required a measurement scale. The most widely scales used are the Likert, Guttman and Thurstone Scales [Judd, Smith, Kidder 1991]. In the TDQ study, it was decided to adopt the Likert–scale as this is considered to be more reliable than others, respondents find it easier to use than the Guttman and Thurstone Scales [Judd *et al.*1991], and it can be used to measure multi–dimensional constructs (such as quality), unlike Guttman and Thurstone scales [Judd *et al.,* 1991]. A seven–point Likert–type rating scale was employed, as this is considered to facilitate better discrimination of responses than other interval scales [Ryan 1995]. The scale used intervals ranging from 1=Strongly Disagree to 7=Strongly Agree, although no labels were used for the numbers between 1 and 7. In line with a number of researchers [e.g. Moser, Kalton 1975; Ryan 1995], an option of 'No Opinion', denoted by a zero (0), was also provided for respondents that did not have an opinion.

Step two: draft design of the self–administered questionnaire. A draft version of the questionnaire, comprising Sections A and B, was then developed. Section A contained 75 scale items based on the findings of the qualitative phase, and respondent opinions were to be provided on the seven–point Likert scale. Section B comprised questions concerned with respondents' demographic and socio–economic profile.

Step three: pilot test of the self–administered questionnaire. The draft version of the questionnaire was piloted at Stansted Airport (see Question 12 in Fig.1) mainly because this was a lengthy, self–administered questionnaires, which could be prone to a low response rate. Hence, the site of an airport was selected to ensure it was suitable for a relatively long questionnaire. An airport was also considered as appropriate, as it offered a potential pool of 'captive' respondents [Echtner, Ritchie 1993] with time to complete the questionnaire.

The pilot study was conducted in the lounge areas of the main terminal buildings of Stansted Airport, and respondents were informed that it was a pilot test [de Vaus 2013]. Declaring the pilot test had been used successfully at the qualitative phase, so was repeated here.

Examination of the completed piloted version of the questionnaire, revealed areas requiring further improvement, specifically relating to respondents giving many high scores (six or seven on the scale) to questions in Section A. This is termed ‘acquiescence bias’ and is not uncommon. Another area of improvement was related to font size, which some respondents felt was too small to read. It was therefore decided to conduct a second pilot test in an attempt to rectify these problems. As ‘acquiescence bias’ can be caused by the sequencing of questions [Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias 2008], those in Section A were revised, resulting in random question presentation, in an attempt to reduce this bias.

The second stage of the pilot test was intended to be a complete simulation of the actual main fieldwork and was therefore undeclared [de Vaus 2013]. In total, 50 questionnaires were distributed to tourists at Luton Airport and 50 questionnaires at Stansted Airports and all questionnaires were returned, completed.

The data from the pilot test was analysed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) for Windows, which provided an opportunity to create a plan for data analysis, i.e. to devise a coding scheme and make decisions on data analysis techniques ahead of the main fieldwork of the quantitative phase [see Saunders *et al.,* 2009].

Step four: final design of the self–administered questionnaire. Modifications in earlier stages of the pilot study showed that there were no longer problems with the questionnaire, which meant that it could be employed in the main quantitative phase of the TDQ study.

5.2. Designing Sampling Procedures for the Quantitative Research

As with the pilot study, Luton and Stansted Airports were selected as sites for data collection in the quantitative phase of the TDQ study due to the length of the questionnaire (see Question 13 in Fig.1). Of significance also was that an airport offered a ‘neutral’ location – it was not an actual tourism destination, thereby avoided contextualising the study. Before collecting data, the researcher contacted the management of both airports in writing, seeking and gaining permission to conduct the research.

The population for the quantitative phase of the TDQ study was tourists selected by convenience sampling [Patton 2014], involving people at the airports at the time the study was conducted. Data collection was between 9 am and 4 pm (Monday–Sunday) for a period of one week.

In terms of sample size, studies of this type usually restrict themselves to no more than 200 respondents, but this brings into question the reliability and the validity of results [Kozak 2000]. Literature indicates a positive relationship between the number of scale items and the sample size, suggesting a ratio of at least 1:4 [Tinsley, Tinsley 1987] or more acceptably 1:10

[Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson 2014; Nunnally 1967]. Given that there were 75 scale items in the questionnaire, the target sample was 750 questionnaires i.e. ten times the number of scale items.

5.3. Selecting Techniques for Analysing the Quantitative Research Results

Descriptive data analytical techniques using SPSS for Windows were employed to indicate which attributes and dimensions tourists most strongly associated with tourism destination quality (see Question 14 in Fig.1). The most commonly used descriptive statistics, mean and standard deviation scores [Cooper, Schindler 2018; Sekaran, Bougie 2016], were calculated for each attribute and dimension, and they were then ranked in a descending order, based on mean scores values. The mean score values were interpreted as follows: the lower the mean score, the less tourists were considered to associate that particular attribute, or dimension, with destination quality, whilst the higher the mean score, the greater the extent to which tourists were considered to associate the attribute, or dimension with destination quality.

Statistical data analytical techniques for comparing groups were employed to investigate a number of hypotheses that had been established to investigate relationships between dependent and independent variables. Here, the dependent variable was what tourists associated with tourism destination quality (represented by the twelve dimensions), while the independent variables were the tourist demographic factors such as age, gender and education level.

The main goal for investigating these hypotheses was to establish whether there were any significant differences in tourists' responses based on their socio–economic and travel characteristics. Two types of statistical data analytical techniques for comparing groups were used. They were: (a) tests to establish whether groups were significantly different, and (b) tests to ascertain the strength of association between the dependent and independent variable.

Both major types of statistical tests, namely parametric and non–parametric tests were used [Zikmund, *et al.*, 2013]. Parametric tests are regarded as more powerful than non–parametric tests [Tabachnick, Fidell 2007] as they are more sensitive in detecting a relationship or difference between groups than non–parametric tests [Tabachnick, Fidell 2007]. For this reason, it is usually recommended that parametric tests should be used, where possible [Tabachnick, Fidell 2007]. However, parametric tests usually require data that is to be analysed to meet certain stringent assumptions in terms of: independence of observations; the sample coming from a normally distributed population; the sample coming from a population of equal variance; and that the measurement scales used to collect data are interval scales [Cooper, Schindler 2018; Zikmund *et al.,* 2013]. The main reason for using both types of test is that there is debate about whether self–administered questionnaires using a Likert scale, meet the requirements of parametric tests, as some researchers argue Likert scales are 'ordinal' whilst others that they are 'interval' [Pallant 2013; Sekaran, Bougie 2016]. Given the significant amount of controversy, where possible both parametric and non–parametric tests were employed. The use of both parametric and non–parametric techniques can also be viewed a part of a strategy of triangulation of methods. Parametric tests were the primary statistical techniques on which the interpretation of the results of this phase were based.

Depending on the hypothesis being investigated, the following tests were used to establish whether groups were significantly different: t–test for independent samples, the Mann–Whitney U test, the one–way between–groups Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the Kruskal Wallis test.

The t–test and the ANOVA test, referred to above, can only reveal whether group differences are statistically significant. They do not provide any indication as to the magnitude of the difference [Cohen 2013]. Such information is particularly important given that small differences can be statistically significant, especially where relatively large samples are involved [Tabachnick, Fidel 1996]. According to J. Pallant [2013], although small differences can be statistically significant, they may have no practical or theoretical value. Consequently, where t–tests and ANOVA tests detect statistically significant differences, it is necessary to conduct additional tests to assess the meaningfulness of such differences [Cohen 2013].

One way of assessing the meaningfulness of statistically significant findings is to calculate the 'effect size' [Cohen 2013; Tabachnick, Fidel 1996]. This is a set of statistics which indicate the relative magnitude of the differences between mean score values. There are a number of different 'effect size' statistics that can be computed. In the TDQ study one of the most frequently used 'effect size' statistic, eta squared [Cohen 2013], was employed to ascertain the strength of association between the dependent and independent variables.

6. Conclusions

This article has discussed the methodology employed in the TDQ study, revealing a sequential mixed method research process, which involved a qualitative phase that explored what tourists associate with tourism destination quality, followed by a quantitative phase that examined whether the emergent results could be generalized to the whole study population. Hence, this methodology can be seen to fit within J.W. Cresswell's [2009] sixfold typology, under the sub-heading of sequential research, and more precisely can be termed *exploratory sequential research*.

Although the overall findings have not been discussed in this article, they indicated that the results obtained in the qualitative phase were strongly backed up by the outcomes of the quantitative phase, providing significant evidence for the successful use of mixed methods in the TDQ study [for an in–depth discussion of the results, see Seakhoa-King *et al.*, 2021]. The article has demonstrated that an initial systematic qualitative phase of research can be used within an overall mixed methods research approach to precede a quantitative phase. Such an approach generated robust and rigorous research findings. This supports the claim of A. Teddlie and A. Tashakkori [2009] that mixed methods research is primarily focused on 'what works', and less concerned with arguments about different philosophical positions.

Additionally, the results of the qualitative pilot study data indicate the superiority of the in–depth interviews technique over focus group interviews and open-ended questionnaires in terms of the technique's effectiveness, efficiency, and ability to generate in-depth, detailed and unique data. Similar findings, concerning the superiority of in-depth interviews in other fields, particularly marketing, have been revealed, when different qualitative techniques have been compared [see for example, George, 2010 and Granot, Brasher, Motta 2012]. This is an important finding for future researchers considering alternative qualitative data gathering methods, as well assisting those engaged in types of similar mixed methods research.

This article provides confirmation of the growing use of mixed methods in the social sciences and specifically in tourism [see Khoo-Lattimore *et al.,* 2019; Timans, *et al.*, 2019], and it advances knowledge of the effectiveness of mixed method methodologies and techniques in the field. The original aim was to indicate how the research was conducted and it was not intended to be prescriptive, but by providing a detailed account of a systematic sequential mixed method approach, the paper may, it is hoped, provide a blueprint for researchers who are intent on conducting similar research.

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MODELLING MUSEUM VISITORS' PERCEPTION AND EXPERIENCE OF AUTHENTICITY: EXAMINING HETEROGENEITY WITH A FINITE MIXTURE MODEL

Claudia Bauer-Krösbacher*, Josef A. Mazanec**

Abstract

Purpose. In this study, the authors explore the role of museum visitors' perceptions and experiences of authenticity. They introduce several variants of authenticity experience and analyse how they are intertwined and feed visitor satisfaction.
Method. The authors apply a multi-step model fitting and validation procedure including inferred causation methods and finite mixture modelling to verify whether the visitors' perceptions of authenticity are subject to unobserved heterogeneity. They elaborate an Authenticity Model that demonstrates out-of-sample validity and generalisability by being exposed to new data for another cultural attraction in another city. Then, they address the heterogeneity hypothesis and evaluate it for the case study with the larger sample.
Findings. In both application cases, the Sisi museum in Vienna and the Guinness Storehouse in Dublin, the empirical results support the assumed cause-effect sequence, translating high quality information display – from traditional and multimedia sources – into Perceived Authenticity and its experiential consequences such as Depth and Satisfaction. Accounting for unobserved heterogeneity detects three latent classes with segment-specific strength of relationships within the structural model.
Research and conclusions limitations. The combined latent-class, structural-equation model needs validation with another sample that would have to be larger than the available Guinness database. Future studies will have to complement the purely data-driven search for heterogeneity with theory-guided reasoning about potential causes of diversity in the strength of the structural relationships.
Practical implications. Cultural heritage sites are among the attractions most typical of city tourism. History tends to materialise in the artefacts accumulated by the population among the urban agglomerations, and museums are the natural places for preserving exhibits of cultural value. Authenticity must be considered an important quality assessment criterion for many visitors, whereby, the distinction between object authenticity and existential authenticity is crucial.

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Originality. In addition to making substantive contributions to authenticity theory, the authors also extend previous research in terms of methodological effort. Authenticity research, so far, has neither exploited inferred causation methods nor combined latent variable modelling with detecting unobserved heterogeneity.
Type of paper: Research article.

Keywords: authenticity, museum, finite mixture model.

1. Introduction and Objectives

Museums are among the most significant tourist attractions [Ambrose, Pain 2012]. History tends to materialise in the artefacts accumulated by the population, and museums are the natural places for preserving and showcasing objects of cultural value. This study explores museum visitors' perceptions and experiences of authenticity. Particularly, it introduces several variants of an authentic experience and analyses how they are intertwined and feed visitor satisfaction. In addition to making substantive contributions to authenticity theory, this paper seeks to extend previous research in terms of methodology. A multi-step model fitting and validation procedure is followed by an attempt to verify whether the visitors' perceptions of authenticity and its effects are subject to unobserved heterogeneity. The paper briefly summarises the working steps leading to an Authenticity Model that demonstrates out-of-sample validity. The model is specified, refined, estimated and validated with a hold-out sample of empirical data collected in the Sisi Museum, Vienna. Furthermore, for even more rigorous validation and assessing the generalisation capacity, the model is exposed to entirely new data from a different type of attraction. These new data originate from a sample of visitors to the Guinness Storehouse, Dublin. Finally, the heterogeneity hypothesis is addressed and evaluated by means of a finite mixture model for the Vienna case study with the larger sample.

2. Literature Review

Museums form an important part of a destination's tourism resource [Timothy 2011, p. 325]. As a reflection of a society's cultural identity [Wohlfromm 2005], they significantly coin the image of a destination [DuCros, McKercher 2015]. Countless museums, in their various types and guises, are publicly available on a global scale where world famous ones exist *vis à vis* small local ones serving as a primary, secondary or tertiary attraction on the visitor's agenda [Leiper 1990]. At the same time, the museum realm has witnessed dramatic transformations over the last two centuries. Not only have museum buildings designed by prestigious architects become attractions in their own right, but cafés, shops and the application of multimedia technology also constitute an important component of the museum experience [Krösbacher 2010; Tufts, Milne 1999]. Experiential values and visitor engagement have become a key to success [Falk, Dierking 2002]. Providing experiences as the fundamental product in tourism arises, among others, from experiences related to museums and their special authenticity within the destination product. Authenticity as a concept originated within the context of museums from the need to assess objects of art with respect to "what they appear to be or are claimed to be", and therefore, justify their market value and artistic status [Trilling 1972, p. 93].

M. Varutti [2018] notes that the authentication process involves several actions with a focus on authorship, materiality, techniques of production and ownership of an artefact. The term 'authenticity' derives from the Greek word '*authentes*', which means originator or creator. By definition, something that is authentic is genuine, real or true in substance as opposed to something imaginary, imitated, simulated or forged [Golomb 1995]. 'Authentic', therefore, implies an original as opposed to a copy or a reproduction. It should be noted that there is a difference between the characteristics 'original' and 'authentic'. The former refers to intrinsic features of an object or place, whereas the latter comprises extrinsic qualities [Ritter 1971; Ritter 1984]. Thus, authenticity is an externally ascribed status [Feifan Xie, Wall 2003]. The special purpose of a museum lies in retaining remembrance which is achieved with the aid of various objects – real, material and tangible [Waidacher 1999]. The strength of a museum, hence, lies in the 'authenticity' of its objects – in its 'originals' [Lötsch 1999]. Thus, a dialogue with the artefact is only possible when visitors are assured that it is an original. Authenticity and the aura of the 'real' produce this effect on visitors. Authenticity leaves behind a feeling of uniqueness [Benjamin 1963] and fascination [Seipel 2002]. However, it can be argued that there is a role for 'authentic reproductions'[1] in that they serve to protect the 'original' and give visitors the chance to handle and touch them as is the case with the Lascaux Caves in France. This also applies to cases in which the original is no longer available, such as the famous Amber room. G. Sarial-Abi *et al*. [2020] found that visitors enjoy replica touristic experiences more than genuine ones if the latter have restrictions. But, while replicas and copies are important as educational tools, the emotional experience caused by an object's authenticity is clearly lost in the reproduction. Seipel [2002] reported a visitor who was emotionally so touched when seeing Mozart's original sheet music that she started crying. Needless to say, that she would not have had this experience with seeing a copy. Hall [2007] regards replications not as intrinsically bad but emphasises the different experiential depth between an original and the replication.

[1] The term 'authentic reproduction' is a typical oxymoron, as a reproduction is, by definition, the opposite of an authentic object. However, the term is widely used in literature.

Despite widespread criticism against reproductions and recreation of the past because of their dubious authenticity, C. Holtorf and T. Schadla-Hall [1999] highlight that they only exist due to public demand. For D. Löwenthal [1992], today, the factitious is for many as appealing as the authentic. It should be noted at this point, that there are many different shades of museums and heritage attractions with different orientations towards authenticity [Chhabra 2008]. Some heritage attractions occupy the 'high moral ground' and present heritage as 'historically accurate', whereas others appear to work with a different value system in which emphasis is given to what is 'attractively authentic' (Burnett 2000, p. 40). The latter create an illusion of authenticity by referring to original ambiences and looks [Löwenthal 1992] and present the spectacle and sensation of the authentic (Burnett 2000, p. 51) – even if this constitutes defamation of the site in many experts' eyes. The show-factor these new attractions offer – often with the help of modern technology – bespeaks tourists' predisposition for playfulness, their readiness to ludically accept 'contrived' attractions as if they were real [Burnett 2000, p. 20 drawing on Cohen 1988]. Hence, it is for their enjoyment that tourists accept contrived attractions as real – although they do not do so wholly or seriously. E. Cohen [1988] sees postmodern tourists participating in an 'as if' game, where they pretend that a contrived product is authentic even though they know or are not convinced that it really is [Cohen 1995]. Therefore, in line with changes and developments in the (cultural) attractions sector, visitors' concepts and their demand for authenticity have also changed, and *vice versa*.

It is the function of the museum professional to attest or to deny the authenticity of an object or site. The recognition of an artefact's authenticity thus requires particular (scientific) knowledge. Without knowing the 'code' (having the knowledge), the visitor cannot recognise the authenticity of the object. This implies that without any authoritative marking, the visitor is unable to identify authenticity. E. Cohen [1988] argues that tourists hold concepts of authenticity that are much looser than those entertained by intellectuals and experts such as curators, anthropologists or archaeologists. How authentic, for instance, an historic site appears to be is "an evaluation made relative to a concept the tourist holds of what it might possibly have looked like back in the time period this historic site (via its markers) purportedly depicts" [Jamal, Hill 2002, p. 97]. Visitors use their personal 'catalogues' to authenticate cultural presentations. E. Cohen [1988] contends that authenticity is negotiable. He goes on to argue that judgements on authenticity will differ according to the number and kinds of traits visitors apply and what authenticity they demand. This is based on their individual levels of knowledge about the objects and the site [Chhabra 2008], previous experiences with cultural sites, (stereotypical) images about the site produced by the media and/or word of mouth and, ultimately, on their self-concept, including views, beliefs and ability to imagine [DeLyser 1999; Herbert 2001; Grayson, Martinec 2003]. In addition, cultural background [Bryce et al. 2015], as well as motivation [Kolar, Zabkar 2010] and interest [Zou *et al.,* 2013] in the site also play a role in the perception process. Hence, it can be argued that the perception of authenticity is constructive [Wang, 1999]. It is, in other words, in the eye of the beholder [Lego *et al.* 2002]. Q. Zhou *et al.* [2018] point at the concept of negative authenticity introduced by K. Martin [2010], relating to authentic phenomena and elements which cannot be accepted by tourists and residents and are, therefore, considered not valuable enough to be preserved. In their research, they revealed that authenticity construction is not a neutral procedure but has value orientation towards modern mainstream values including, for example, hygiene, antipoverty and respect.

Intermediation adds another dimension to a museum experience. Today, visitors are no longer satisfied with just looking at objects, and the use of multimedia has become a popular part of the museum experience. Modern technology, including digital media, videos and audio-guides, offer completely new possibilities in heritage presentation and interpretation. It can facilitate engagement and the understanding of complex issues, often in a more playful manner. As digital engagement is an area of increasing significance to heritage sites [Savage, Wyeth 2020], modern technologies should support the message and, thereby, enrich the experience, while neither overwhelming visitors nor distorting the atmosphere of a site.

Another angle towards the authenticity debate comes from existential philosophers (e.g. Heidegger), whose fundamental question is that of the existential self of a human being. In contrast to the application of authenticity with respect to objects and sites, existentialist philosophers discuss authenticity in relation to human beings. Existential authenticity signifies "being one's true self or being true to one's essential nature" [Steiner, Reisinger 2006, p. 299]. C.J. Steiner and Y. Reisinger [2006] note that to be oneself existentially is deeper than being oneself - behaviourally or psychologically. For N. Wang [1999], an authentic self is a state of being that transcends everyday social norms and regulations. For him, existential authenticity is activity-related and implies active, first-hand experiences. It is the case that an authentic experience can be caused by the recognition of an object as authentic [Wang 1999]. However, an authentic experience may occur independently of whether the objects are real or not by referring to the authentic - self-activated through the liminal process of the activity. N. Wang [1999] argues that, when engaging in such tourism activities, individuals feel themselves more authentic and more freely self-expressed than in everyday life. Freed from the object as source, it is the activities from which people can derive authentic feelings [Handler, Saxton 1988; Kim, Jamal 2007; Kolar, Zabkar 2010].

T. Selwyn's [1996] and D. Brown's [1996] distinction between "authenticity of the real world and its objects" and "authenticity as feelings" were ground-breaking in the authenticity debate. Building on their work, N. Wang [1999] was able to introduce a framework regarding different dimensions of existential authenticity, namely, intra- and inter-personal authenticity. Intra-personal authenticity refers to bodily feelings and self-making, whereas inter-personal authenticity denotes social authenticity and the collective sense of self. With respect to the latter, an object/site or experience can serve as a tool to bring individuals together for authentic, interpersonal relationships [Leigh *et al.,* 2006]. It is the joint participation in an experience and sharing as well as communication of the enjoyment of it that marks this type of authentic experience in which individuals may experience their true selves [Wang 1999]. Ultimately, the quality of the experience and visitors' satisfaction with the experience is also determined by the (emotional) depth of their experience. This depends on visitors' openness towards the museum experience [Krösbacher 2010] and their level of engagement [Bryce *et al.* 2015]. Their level of involvement, in turn, has an effect on how memorable the experience will be [Zatori *et. al.* 2018]. K. Kirillova and X. Lehto [2015] note that some vacation experiences offer a lesser boost in existential authenticity while others may prompt truly transformative changes. They point out that this depends on vacation-specific characteristics as well as tourists' personal dispositions. Hence, they suggest studying tourists in the context of their complexity as human beings [Kirillova *et al.,* 2017a] and to take self-congruence 'onboard' [Kirillova *et al.,* 2017b].

Various authors have attempted to measure perceptions of authenticity and the experience thereof, as well as other dimensions of authentic experiences in different tourism contexts and forms of tourism such as medical tourism [Cook 2010], agri-tourism [Daugstad, Kirchengast 2013] or volunteer tourism [Kontogeorgopoulos 2017], pilgrimage [Moufahim, Lichrou 2019], religious tourism [Lee *et al.* 2020] and backpacker tourism [Canavan 2018], to name but a few. Some researchers have integrated authenticity dimensions into their models when, for example, measuring customer loyalty towards Airbnb accommodation [e.g. Liang *et al.* 2018; Shuqair, Pinto, Mattila 2019] or heritage experiences [Chhabra *et al.* 2003; Lu *et al.* 2015; Zatori *et al.,* 2018]. Using authenticity as the central construct, interesting comprehensive measurement models are introduced by several scholars: from a visitor perspective [e.g. Zhou *et al.* 2013; Bryce *et al.,* 2015, building on Kolar, Zabkar 2010; Yi *et al.* 2017; Yi *et al.* 2018; Park *et al.* 2019] or through the lens of hosts [e.g. Zhou, *et al.,* 2015]. Measuring existential authenticity, T. Kolar and V. Zabkar [2010], Q. Zhou *et al.* [2013] as well as D. Bryce *et al.* [2015] focused mainly on the connection with the site, immersion into the historical atmosphere and experienced feelings, but did not include social authenticity. In more comprehensive experience models suggested by Zatori *et al.* [2018], authenticity is included, but measurement is reduced to the benefit of other constructs. The model proposed by E. Park *et al.* [2019] is notable but does not provide the actual measurement items. X. Yi *et al.* [2017] suggest a revised model, which, however, is estimated on the basis of the same data set as the original one. Performing estimations twice with the same data, i.e. after tinkering with the model specification, is statistically unclean because it implies adapting theory to data.

The current study suggests an alternative model is proposed for museums and heritage attractions with different and more fine-grained measurement items. Based on N. Wang´s [1999] differentiation, a conceptual model was developed that combines constructs for measuring satisfaction with site attributes (Tangibles, Information, Responsiveness, Multimedia) and site authenticity, experience dimensions (experienced Object, Personal and Social Authenticity, Depth of experience), and satisfaction with the site. Based on a review of the literature, visitors' general idea of authenticity (Concept of Authenticity) and previous knowledge about the site were identified as important constructs that should be included. The resulting twelve constructs were incorporated into a system of relationships and transformed into a causal model, as illustrated by the path diagram in Figure 1. The operationalisation of the authenticity constructs was informed by the findings of previous qualitative research in the form of ten expert interviews and two focus group discussions with visitors to museums and heritage attractions.

3. Method

Figure 1 introduces the conceptual model that initialises the search for meaningful structural paths among authenticity, quality perception and satisfaction constructs. For brevity and ease of display, the focus is on the structural model; the 50 manifest variables proposed for measuring the twelve latents are suppressed. Empirical data were collected on the visitors' experience at the Sisi Museum, one of Vienna's most popular heritage attractions, which can be jointly visited with the Imperial Silver Collection and the Imperial Apartments of Emperor Franz-Josef and his wife Elisabeth (Sisi). The self-administered draft questionnaire was pilot-tested among 31 visitors of the Sisi Museum to ensure reliability and content validity. After final amendments in the wording, structure and layout, the questionnaire was ready to be used for data collection. At both sites data collection took place at different days of the week. In order to get as close to the stimuli that triggered the experience, the survey was administered *in situ* immediately after visitation of the site, i.e. at the exit point. The survey was conducted by researchers who received special training for being able to answer questions on the subject matter. To encourage participation, respondents received a small gift.

The initial attempt to expose the structural equation model based on Figure 1 to the data used the first of two halves of a randomly split master sample of 780 respondents. This subsample was then exploited for purifying the measurement sub-models and modifying the structural model to gain acceptable explanatory power. The second subsample remained untouched until the refined version of the Authenticity Model was ready for inferential testing with fresh data. It is important to emphasise that model refinements were not primarily data driven. In particular, fit-enhancing modification indices were only considered to account for very large intercorrelations among the error terms for indicators within the same measurement sub-model. In the refinement process, the applied analytical instruments provided by Inferred Causation Theory [Spirtes, Glymour, Scheines 2000; Pearl 2001] were used as an advanced tool. The Build module of the Tetrad software system [Spirtes et al. 1996] was used for generating hypotheses about causal relationships. The diagnosis relies on partial correlations and covariance structures. A graph that is equivalent to a causal model imposes a number of restrictions on each pair of covariances regarding two variables ('tetrads'), according to the Tetrad Representation Theorem proposed by P. Spirtes, C. Glymour and R. Scheines [2000]. Considering a simple example of two variables, y_1 and y_2 are hypothesised to be correlated and would, therefore, imply a vanishing tetrad:

$$\begin{array}{ccc} x_1 & & x_3 \\ \downarrow & & \downarrow \\ y_1 & \longleftrightarrow & y_2 \\ \uparrow & & \uparrow \\ x_2 & & x_4 \end{array}$$

$$\sigma_{13}\sigma_{42} - \sigma_{14}\sigma_{32} = 0$$

A non-vanishing tetrad, i.e. a difference in the covariance products significantly deviating from 0, would reject the hypothesis [Bollen, Ting 1993].

The Tetrad analysis is designed to operate on the structural level. Hence, the scores of the twelve latent constructs of Figure 1 are computed first and then subjected to the causal detection algorithm. Only one piece of elementary prior knowledge is fed into the analysis. All constructs except for Satisfaction are assigned to the same causal tier. This means that directed causal paths originating from Satisfaction and pointing to any other variable are not permitted. At the structural level, Satisfaction is conceived as a dependent-only construct. All the other variables are allowed to influence the state of Satisfaction as well as others.

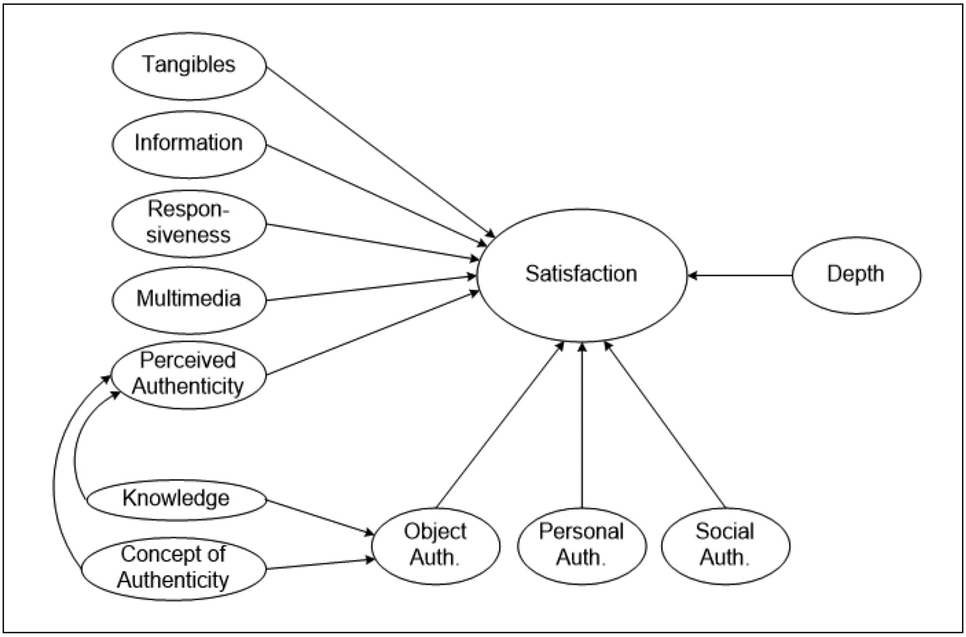

Figure 1. Conceptual model
Source: by the authors.

4. Results and Discussion

Exploratory Estimation

The Tetrad analysis produced twenty-one relationships, thirteen of them unambiguously directed. Within this set, five paths already specified in the starting model were supported: Tangibles → Satisfaction, Responsiveness → Satisfaction, Multimedia → Satisfaction, Object Authenticity → Satisfaction, and Depth → Satisfaction. It is further suggested that there is indirect influence of Information and Multimedia on Satisfaction rather than a direct one. On theoretical grounds, propagating the effect of Information, conventional or multimedia, through one or more Authenticity constructs, is highly plausible. The Depth construct appears to be associated much more strongly with the experience-related Authenticity constructs than with the technical Multimedia factor.

A series of exploratory estimation runs with Bengt Muthén's Mplus system [Muthén, Muthén 2004] lead to the revised structural model outlined in Figure 2. The diagram shows the standardised path coefficients of the structural model with their standard errors in parentheses. The coefficients of the measurement sub-models (not shown) are all significant ($p < .01$).

Modification indices were considered for introducing correlated error terms within one and the same measurement model only. Multimedia, Concept of Authenticity, Perceived Authenticity, Depth and Satisfaction each now produce one pair of error-correlated indicators. Among the five indicators of Personal Authenticity, two pairs have correlated errors. No correlated error terms are introduced for indicators dependent on different latents. While it is likely that indicators for the same reflective construct meet with similar answering behaviour of the respondents (and hence, correlated errors), there is no theoretical justification for assuming this across substantively different constructs. All intercorrelations within the set of exogenous constructs are free and their estimates ranging between .32 and .85 are all significant ($p < .01$).

In Figure 2, structural relationships estimated for the revised model are exhibited. Compared with the starting model in Figure 1, the two constructs Knowledge and Social Authenticity had to be removed. If two modelling alternatives showed negligible differences in the goodness-of-fit criteria (BIC, RMSEA), the parsimony principle ('Occam's Razor') came into force and the simpler system was adopted. Take Object Authenticity as an example. A direct influence on Satisfaction in addition to an indirect – Depth mediated – effect is not implemented as it would only generate a very marginal improvement in goodness-of-fit.

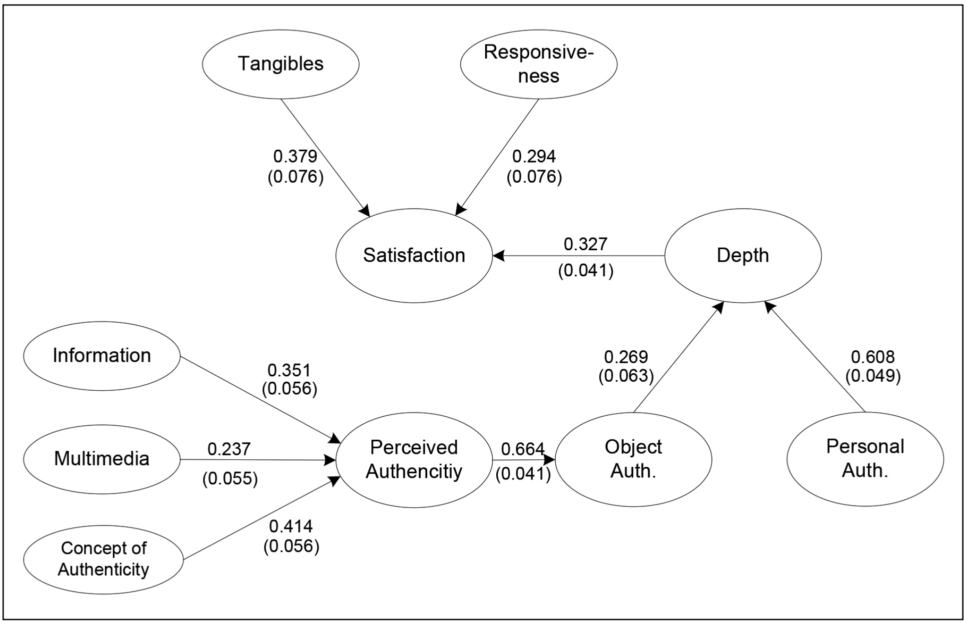

Figure 2. The revised Authenticity Model (structural relationships)

Source: by the authors.

The overall fit indices: CFI, the Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) and the RMSEA, amount to .888, .877 and .056, respectively. The variance explained for the major endogenous construct – Satisfaction – reaches .72; the R squares for Perceived Authenticity, Object Authenticity and Depth amount to .78, .49 and .62, respectively.

The crucial test of the revised model now turns to the validation sample comprising 391 respondents. The estimates of the overall goodness-of-fit criteria confirm the values obtained for the final model with the analysis sample. The CFI (.871) and the TLI (.859) fail to exceed a commonly desired .9 level. With .059, well below .08, the RMSEA is satisfactory. Considering the recent doubts expressed *vis-à-vis* general cut-off criteria and substantiated in Monte Carlo simulation [Xitao, Sivo 2007], these values are not overemphasised. The 66% of variance explained by the major dependent construct – Satisfaction – is encouraging, if assessed in light of comparable results of numerous satisfaction studies in tourism and leisure, as well as other service industries. The same applies to the newly introduced authenticity variables (Perceived Authenticity: 73%; Experienced Object Authenticity: 44%) and the Depth construct (65%). All measurement models and the intercorrelations assumed among exogenous constructs (see Table 1) are confirmed ($p < .01$). The validation run supports the error-term correlations found in the exploratory analyses (six with $p < .01$, two with $p < .05$). All structural coefficients are statistically significant ($p < .01$), except for the weakest relationship identified in the analysis sample, i.e. the directed path from Responsiveness to Satisfaction.

Figure 3 shows the standardised path coefficients with their standard errors in parentheses. All of them are highly significant apart from the effect of Responsiveness. One may think of Tangibles as an orthodox example of a service quality component acting on visitor satisfaction. Relative to the strength of this direct influence, the experience-based impact of Depth turns out to be particularly important. Further, and at least from an historic museum's point of view, the role of authentic impression becomes obvious. There is fairly strong support for assuming an intricate cause-effect sequence translating high quality information display – from traditional plus multimedia sources – into perceived authenticity, and its experiential consequences when being exposed to the artefacts on exhibition. Visitors have seemingly normative beliefs about what authenticity means (Concept of Authenticity) and use it in their judgments (Perceived Authenticity). Personal Authenticity is equivalent to an intense feeling of immersion and significantly promotes the state of Depth. The function of Social Authenticity, originally conceived as an inhibitor and later withdrawn from the model, is not yet well-understood. It remains unclear whether it contributes negatively or positively to Depth, if not to Satisfaction directly.

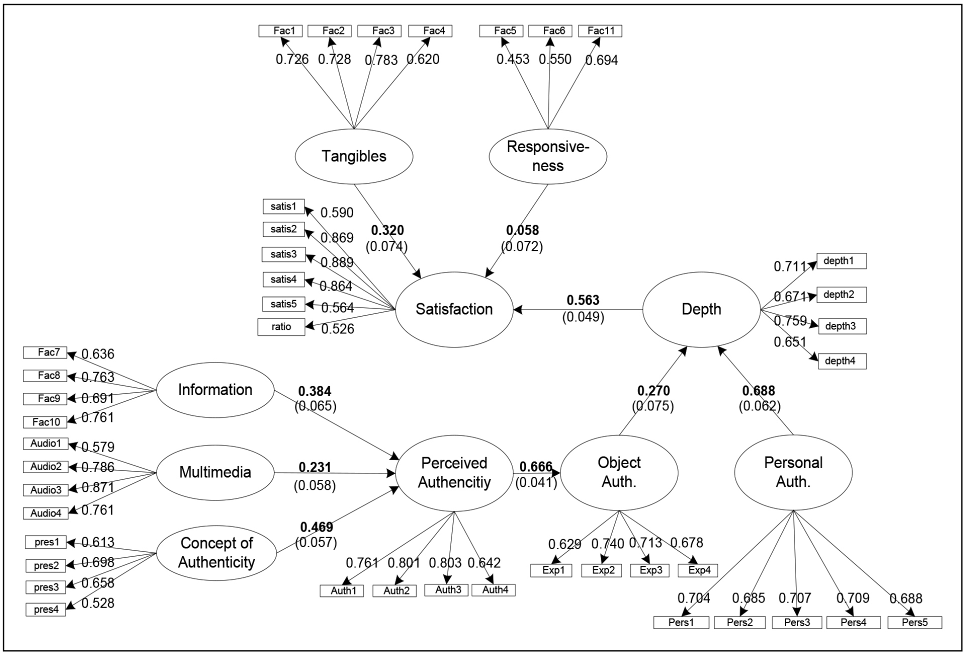

Figure 3. Model validation (Sisi Museum hold-out sample)

Source: by the authors.

Table 1. Intercorrelations among exogenous constructs

	Resp.	Inform.	Multim.	C. of Auth.	Pers. Auth.
Tangibles	.64	.62	.57	.47	.58
Responsiveness		.80	.55	.50	.45
Information			.55	.38	.47
Multimedia				.31	.33
Concept of Authenticity					.39

Source: by the authors.

A further step of more rigorous testing is added. Out-of-sample results are sought for entirely new model application. Testing the revised Authenticity Model with the hold-out portion of the randomly split Sisi sample does not yet expose the system of the authenticity hypotheses to a new environment. However, the model's capability of being generalised cannot be judged unless it performs reasonably well in a different setting. The new setting for applying the Authenticity Model differs in two major respects: the type of attraction changes from a historic museum to a visitor centre combining heritage with contemporary aspects; the scene moves from central Europe (Vienna) to western Europe (Dublin); the structure of the visitors' sample is totally different in terms of nationalities, as the majority of visitors to the Viennese site came from Germany and other neighbouring countries such as Switzerland and Italy, whereas visitors to the Dublin site originated mainly from neighbouring Great Britain areas as well as the United States and Canada. The new test site is The Guinness Storehouse situated in Smithfield Village and, among others, famous for its multi-storey building constructed in the famous Chicago school style. The Storehouse was decommissioned in 1988 and later converted into a visitor centre. Fieldwork with an identical questionnaire yielded sample data for 484 respondents.

The same model specification used so far is subjected to parameter estimation with the Guinness data. All the measurement models produce significant coefficients for reflective indices (p = .05) and need not be replicated here. The overall fit criteria reach approximately the same level as the values achieved for the Sisi Museum samples (CFI = .896; TLI = .887; RMSEA = .061). Table 2 summarises the results for the structural model.

Table 2. Structural model for the Guinness Storehouse application (standardised path coefficients and std. errors)

Row → Col.	Perceived A.	Object A.	Depth	Satisfaction
Tangibles				.180 (.131)*)
Responsiveness				.557 (.121)
Information	.463 (.049)			
Multimedia	.211 (.050)			
Concept of Authenticity	.368 (.038)			
Perceived A.		.738 (.028)		
Object A.			.374 (.047)	
Personal A.			.504 (.043)	
Depth				.180 (.038)
R^2	.80	.54	.45	.65
*) p < .10				

Source: by the authors.

With the exception of the Tangibles → Satisfaction path, all coefficients including the intercorrelations among the exogenous variables are significant with p < .05 or less. A cautious interpretation may claim that the Authenticity Model offers the potential of being applicable to a wider range of historic and cultural heritage museums.

A finite mixture model for examining visitor heterogeneity

A critical analyst still not convinced of the encouraging results may think of a further and particularly challenging empirical test. In tourism research, as well as in any other social science application, covariance-based models are subject to unobserved heterogeneity among respondents. By aggregating over inhomogeneous sub-groups of respondents, the achieved estimates may reflect spurious results the analysts had never become aware of, therefore, a combined model specification connecting SEM with Latent Class Analysis (LCA) is estimated with the Sisi master sample. With 790 respondents it is large enough to warrant estimation attempts with two and three classes.

LCA aims to capture discrete heterogeneity by providing separate and class-specific sets of parameter estimates. It should be noted that heterogeneity is analysed in a data-driven manner. There are no prior hypotheses about what may be relevant criteria for decomposing the sample into homogeneous sub-groups. Additionally, the procedure relates to what marketing scientists call 'response-based segmentation', as it is implemented in finite mixture models [Wedel & Kamakura 1998]. In other words, this means that heterogeneity is expected to govern the direction and strength of how the explanatory variables influence the dependent constructs within different sub-groups (classes) of respondents.

The foremost concern regarding heterogeneity refers to the path coefficients in the structural model. Hence, the 'mean structure' analyses [Muthén, Muthén 2004] specified for ML estimation runs with two and three classes assume identical measurement sub-models for each class and free the structural parameters. In a pictorial representation of the model, one may think of the path diagram in Figure 2, where an additional (discrete) latent variable named Class exerts influence on each directed path. As the information criteria are markedly better for three than for two classes (e.g. the BIC improves from 73418.0 to 73175.6), the three-class solution is chosen. Given the small size of Class 2 (6%) and the limits of sample size, no further extension was considered. Table 3 shows the class-specific path coefficients. The majority Class 3 (71% of the sample) neatly follows the pattern of coefficients previously estimated in the validation runs. The minority Class 1 (23%) deviates from this pattern in one of the paths as the Depth construct strengthens Satisfaction but receives significant input from Personal Authenticity only. The tiny Class 2 is to be handled with caution, as it may not be trustworthy. It appears to support particularly strong relationships linking the visitor's Concept of Authenticity with Perceived Authenticity and further with Object Authenticity, and Personal Authenticity with Depth and Satisfaction.

The situation encountered in the 71% majority Class 3 and the moderately deviating results for the much smaller Classes 1 and 2 suggest that

Table 3. Three-latent-classes structural model for the Sisi museum application (standardised path coefficients for classes 1/2/3 sized 23%/6%/71%)

Row → Col.	**Perceived A.**	**Object A.**	**Depth**	**Satisfaction**
Tangibles				$.30^{+)}/.03^{-)}/.26^{*)}$
Responsiveness				$.38^{+)}/.17^{-)}/.16^{+)}$
Information	$.36^{+)}/.35^{*)}/.40^{*)}$			
Multimedia	$.16^{-)}/.31^{*)}/.22^{*)}$			
Concept of Authenticity	$.61^{*)}/.53^{*)}/.51^{*)}$			
Perceived A.		$.76^{*)}/.91^{*)}/.76^{*)}$		
Object A.			$.05^{-)}/-.14^{-)}/.29^{*)}$	
Personal A.			$.77^{*)}/.72^{*)}/.56^{*)}$	
Depth				$.39^{*)}/.84^{*)}/.46^{*)}$
R^2	.77/.79/.73	.57/.82/.58	.62/.43/.54	.76/.85/.53
$^{*)}\ p < .05$; $^{+)}\ p < .10$; $^{-)}$ not signif.				

Source: by the authors.

the Authenticity Model is not plagued by notable unobserved heterogeneity. At the same time, this indicates that there are no omitted variables of high enough relevance to invalidate the findings. Certainly, this is not to say that modified attempts of considering antecedents such as museum/domain knowledge or past experience were superfluous. This will be one of the missions of future research work.

5. Conclusions

Cultural tourist attractions and their characteristics underlie continuous change, bringing forward new directions and contents marked by the spirit and ideology of a certain period of time. The visitor experience has changed from merely looking at objects to a more hands-on approach, and has culminated in experiences of virtual environments. Therefore, managers continuously need to monitor the needs and wants of their visitors to provide satisfying experiences – especially for today's experience-hungry visitors. Tourism researchers are challenged by enriching long-established visitor/customer satisfaction models with experiential aspects. The traditional satisfaction models also need to integrate a multimedia dimension as today, in many attractions, it constitutes an integral part of the experience. Hence, there is a need to capture the visitor experience in a refined and subtle manner. The proposed model may be regarded as a modest step in this direction.

It has been established that cultural attractions have different orientations towards authenticity. Today, more and less serious institutions exist side-by-side. They both have their value and right to exist as they cater to differing visitor segments with distinct attitudes and demands. Authenticity, however, must still be considered an important quality assessment criterion for many visitors, whereby, the distinction between object authenticity and existential authenticity, according to N. Wang [1999], is crucial. The two types of authentic experiences should be explored concurrently [Yi *et al.* 2018, referring to Bryce et al. 2015 echoing Kolar, Zabkar 2010]. The authenticity debate has not yet concluded but will be influenced by developments in digital presentation and the interpretation of cultural heritage, raising interesting new authenticity-related questions. A heritage experience, and the visitor satisfaction accompanied by it, contain several components along with authenticity. More comprehensive measurements will need to take intermediation as well as other services and offers 'on board'. On the other hand, the rich 'surplus meaning' of authenticity and its antecedent and subsequent constructs may entice researchers to overburden their models. The exploratory step in this study assisted in reaching a compromise between parsimony and explanatory power. Knowledge and Social Authenticity, two of the twelve constructs originally proposed in the conceptual starting model, were eliminated after examination with inferred causation instruments. In further applications, the exogenous variable Tangibles, which missed the .05 significance threshold in the Guinness Storehouse validation run, may turn out to be a candidate to be sacrificed for the sake of parsimony.

One major lesson can be drawn with regard to the procedures for empirically testing the Authenticity Model. The authors strictly distinguished between explorative and inferential stages in developing and testing the model. In addition to testing with a 50% hold-out sample, a third dataset gathered from another cultural attraction in another city was processed. This additional step represents not only out-of-sample validation but an empirical test lying out-of-sample and also out-of-context. The Authenticity Model performed remarkably well when exposed to survey data collected in an attraction that combines historical and contemporary elements, while significantly differing in terms of theme, presentation style and visitor profile. Given the rigorous testing of the Authenticity Model, a number of practical interpretations and recommendations are justified. From a managerial point of view, visitor satisfaction certainly attains primary attention. This is unsurprisingly influenced by tangible (Tangibles) and intangible (Responsiveness) determinants of visitor comfort. These requirements are rather trivial to fulfil with straightforward practical measures. The authenticity-dominated influences on satisfaction, however, represent an intricate causal chain. Visitors process information input of any form (conventional, multimedia) with respect to presentation and object-related authenticity criteria. Last but not least, they attend with some level of personal predisposition and preparedness for letting Authenticity work through the strength of experiential impact (Depth). As a consequence, managers who want to count on their site's authentic profile must focus not solely on optimising the 'supply-side' of museums and attractions. Without intimately knowing the psychographics of their potential audience, drafting tailored communication content and meticulously targeting visitor segments, they will not achieve sustainable success. Accordingly, regular monitoring of the variables in the Authenticity Model is a necessary prerequisite.

Despite the encouraging results of inferential model testing, a further step was added. The master sample of Sisi Museum visitors was examined with regard to unobserved heterogeneity. This final test was intended to explore the consequences of mixing two or three visitor sub-groups that do not exactly follow the same set of parameter estimates. The findings allow to suggest that a minority group may be subject to a different Authenticity-Depth mechanism. For these 23% of the visitors, the Depth experience is fully governed by Personal Authenticity, while Object Authenticity loses its relevance. Addressing the limitations of the study, it is important to emphasise that the combined LCA-SEM model still requires validation with another sample that would have to be larger than the available Guinness database. Moreover, future studies will have to complement the purely data-driven search for heterogeneity with theory-guided reasoning about the potential causes of divergence in the strength of the structural relationships. If the heterogeneity hypothesis turns out to be of general relevance, the monitoring task recommended for management in the previous paragraph becomes even more demanding. On the other hand, starting with classification results, as exemplified in Table 3, offers a 'natural' access to refined market segmentation strategies.

While early discussions on authenticity helped to establish and develop a theoretical framework, in more recent publications, the question has been tackled of how authenticity dimensions can be measured. In some publications, measurement items that are rather general have been suggested, and it is therefore questionable if they really measure what they intend to measure. Thus, face validity and content validity merit further attention in the future.

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Appendix:

Operationalisation of the major constructs [English language (Guinness) version]

Knowledge		
Visitation of this attraction before ☐ No ☐ Yes ➔ approx. ……. times		
Visitation of similar attractions within the last two years ☐ No ☐ Yes ➔ which attractions?..		
Knowledge before visiting this attraction:		
Brewing Process	**History of the Company**	**Guinness Advertising**
☐ very little knowledge	☐ very little knowledge	☐ very little knowledge
☐ some knowledge	☐ some knowledge	☐ some knowledge
☐ extensive knowledge	☐ extensive knowledge	☐ extensive knowledge

1-5 scale; 1=strongly agree, 5= strongly disagree

Concept of Authenticity
I accept changes to an original site and modern parts as long as they look credible.
Reproductions of objects are legitimate.
Reproductions of objects are as appealing to me as originals.
The commercial/business aspect of a cultural site is legitimate.
Tangibles
The design of the attraction is aesthetically pleasing.
There are a lot of unique objects to see.
The exhibits are arranged in an appealing way.
There is a special atmosphere at this attraction.
Information/Communication
Signs/floor maps facilitate orientation within the attraction.
Text panels are visually appealing and the scripts easily readable.
Text panels provide an adequate depth of information.
Information on text panels is easy to follow/understand.
Responsiveness
Staff is helpful and courteous.
The number of other visitors is acceptable.
There are enough seating possibilities at this attraction.
Multimedia Devices (audio-visual, touch screens, etc.)
Multimedia devices worked properly.
The multimedia devices are easy to use.
Information is easy to follow/understand.
Information is detailed enough.

Perceived Authenticity
Reproductions are well/faithfully done.
The modern-type presentation of objects is credible.
Interpretation of history/objects is reliable.
The commercial/business aspect of the attraction is unobtrusive.
Experienced Object Authenticity
The significance and importance of particular exhibits became very clear.
Exhibits and information stimulated my imagination/fantasy.
I was thoroughly fascinated by the uniqueness of some exhibits.
I was emotionally touched when seeing particular objects.
Experienced Personal Authenticity
Exploring this attraction has stimulated all my senses.
Visiting this attraction was also a physical experience.
I felt free from everyday life problems, pressure and constraints.
I felt a sense of self-realisation.
I felt connected with my inner Self.
Experienced Social Authenticity
Exhibits fostered communication and exchange of views with my family/partner/companion(s)/other visitors.
I experienced sharing a sense of community with other people at the attraction.
I experienced togetherness with my family/partner/companion(s).
Depth of Experience
I felt transferred into the world of Sisi/beer brewing and drinking.
I forgot about the outside world.
I was deeply immersed in the experience.
I lost sense of time.
Satisfaction
This is one of the best museums/attractions I have ever visited.
I am pleased to have visited this museum/attraction.
It was a good idea to visit this museum/attraction.
I really enjoyed myself at this museum/attraction.
I do not regret having visited this museum/attraction.
This museum/attraction provides good value for money.

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TOURISM EPISTEMOLOGY, INNOVATION AND BRAND KNOWLEDGE

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Abstract

Purpose. The aim of this paper is to explain changes which have been implemented into research on tourism studies and brand management as one tool of innovation in marketing and branding during a period of time, and especially, to discuss the reason why a more holistic approach to tourism studies is in demand.
Method. The methodological approach to this study is based on secondary research of existing literature, dealing with different methodological approaches to tourism studies and destination branding as well as the innovative literature focused on the methodological questions and new trends in research on innovation.
Findings. A synergy of different viewpoints regarding economic, social and environmental development, which is embedded also in tourism development, has to be taken into account. Tourism development needs to accept the rules of socially responsible activity, not only considering it a phenomenon of value creation and economic growth. This fact influences studies on tourism and the approach to tourism, competitiveness, management and branding.
Research and conclusions limitations. The diffusion of new knowledge, approaches, changes in a society, has impact on the shift of paradigms, methods and methodologies applied for branding in tourism. It significantly influences the paradigmatic and methodological approaches, as well as the applied research methods as a result of blending different disciplines. The limitations might be in an approach from a different cultural point of view and their contribution to this field.
Practical implications. A new approach to managerial practices in tourism destinations and to research on tourism managerial practices may be an avenue for improving the competitiveness of tourism destinations.
Originality: This paper is based on an attempt to look at tourism development, destination branding and innovations in a more complex and holistic manner, the originality being in this innovative view.
Type of paper: Research paper.

Keywords: tourism competitiveness, tourism epistemology, destination branding, brand knowledge, innovations.

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1. Introduction

The pressure "to innovate or die" [Baumol 2002] has radically changed tourism at the macro (international and country), mezzo (tourism destination) and micro (tourism businesses) levels. The question arises as to how success can be defined and whether "to innovate or die" means "to innovate in a highly focused way" [Williams, Hall 2008, p. 34] through the creation of added value. Innovation does not mean the activity that would lead to the growth of some forces in a society, but the destruction of other forces or values. For this reason, the innovation should be understood within the framework of the whole system and respect the principles of systems theory. Values, culture, ethics and norms (VCEN), as have been discussed by J. Knez-Riedl and M. Mulej [2008], mean the implementation of a more holistic approach and meaning in human activity as well as in their words – "less selfishness for selfish reasons". Although government and a human society expect that innovation should lead to the growth of value or economic profit in a society, there also exist values, which are not economically based (image, reputation, values, ethics, norms). They are called soft factors of competitiveness. The authors (ibid) clearly defined the main problem of innovation. Innovation needs to be focused on the improvement of human society and for this reason, it has to be done in a socially responsible way. This has been stated in the ISO 9001, which contains an innovative approach to products, services and processes. In November 2010, the International Standard ISO 26000 (http://ec.europa.eu) was prepared, providing guidelines for social responsibility. This standard is not certifiable and does not concern a management system standard in comparison to the ISO 9001. The implementation of quality standards in tourism forces this industry to act with a stronger competitive content and goal, which requires more innovations.

2. Paradigmatic development in innovation and tourism competitiveness

The holistic approach to innovation and tourism competitiveness stems from Schumpeter's Theory of Economic Development [1911], but the first roots of innovation had started in the industrial development of the 18^{th} and 19^{th} centuries (Smith and Ricardo). Tarde, a French sociologist, developed numerous important concepts and ideas of innovation. It was agreed, similarly as in the case of Schumpeter, that entrepreneurs as individuals create change in a society and for this reason, innovative processes are individually based [Pinchot, 1985]. Thus, the role of consumers is not as important as the role of producers or individual entrepreneurs, especially inventors. Tarde and Schumpeter considered innovation to be a main source of wealth and a reason for the accumulation of capital. J. Sundbo added that both authors believed in "the inventions – the new ideas – solve problems and add elements that either make it possible to save on costs or constitute added value in a society" [Sundbo 1998, p. 51]. Rooted in Tarde's claim on the importance of cycles and the holistic understanding of the process and developments in a society, which is also influential for competitiveness studies in tourism, Kondratiev created a background for innovation theory by stressing the significance of 4-stage (prosperity, recession, depression, recovery) economic cycles that begin every 45-60 years. Innovations occur most often in the period of recovery; however, innovation has to be understood holistically, leading to\global improvement in a society, not only the improvement of some aspects concerning the life of society.

Crucial to further discussion on innovation, competitiveness and knowledge importance is understanding of the present state of development (1994 – ?), which has been determined by certain authors as a phase of prosperity (a part of what Kondratiev called the 5th wave). This understanding helps to clarify which potential paradigms are dominant regarding this period in approaches to innovation. The question might have a real meaning of uncertainty due to the economic turmoil during the last couple years. J. Knez-Riedl and M. Mulej explained the problem with the economic system and its free market, consumerism and the growing power of money (monetocracy) [Knez-Riedl, Mulej 2008]. The authors (ibid) added that even Adam Smith warned humankind against this unbridled market. On the one hand, a desire to compete and benefit from every situation exists, but on the other, the human side of every evolution must be taken into account, where the sustainability of our resources and tourism resources are not the exception when discussing the process of depletion. For this reason, it is important to understand the forces which led human society to innovation, but also to carry out innovation in a proper manner. One of the solutions is sustainability as a holistic concept in tourism. G. Wall and A. Matthieson explained, "… when a single-sector approach is adopted, such a sustainable tourism or sustainable agriculture, it is conceivable that that system may be sustained but at the expense of other systems to which it is connected" [Wall, Matthieson 2006, p. 292]. Tourism and its development cannot be practiced separately from the macro and micro environment, a society, political and environmental forces, economy and this also influences the way how tourism should be studied and researched. This can be explained by the rapid changes in a society.

In accordance to Kondratiev´s theory of changing cycles (waves), the 20th century has embraced the development of technology, inventions and innovations. In the first phase (the 3rd Kondratiev wave), as explained by J. Sundbo [1998], the entrepreneurship paradigm signified research on innovation. Empirical research (in the 3rd decade of the 20th century) contained topics predominantly dealing with the negative consequences of the industrialization and the economic crisis of 1929. The ideas on economic interventions (Keynes) and social problems topics (Durkheim, Weber) have embraced the major themes in a society influencing also the research on innovation. Keynes introduced, for instance, the need of interventions in economic development due to the imperfections of the market and the existence of negative externalities. This may be visible in the area of environmental protection or the existence of economic crises, where the public sector cannot fully overcome the negative consequences. Tourism is a typical sector, which needs to approach its development by understanding the whole cycle of its activities, services and environment. Tourism is a highly vulnerable activity, which depends on the whole system in a country, but also the human society and innovations in tourism taking place simultaneously with other economic and social activities in a society. The majority of social problems in this period of time was not concerned with tourism development, but mostly with the economic problems existing after World War 1 and the Great Depression.

For tourism and innovation topics, the second innovation phase (the 4th Kondratiev wave) was more important because a rapid technological development occurred. A shift from sociological topics to technology, economy paradigms and engineering themes occurred in the research with increased interest in the theory of knowledge, methods and methodology in innovation in general topics, but also in tourism. The paradigmatic influence of technical and natural sciences, engineering and the incremental growth of innovations led to enormous growth of the economy. Technical developments and innovations, as well aseconomic growth boosted the development of tourism resorts and infrastructure. Fordism and Taylorism shifted the paradigmatic focus to the positivist and post- positivist theory of knowledge. A majority of innovations was focused on the increase of productivity, effectiveness and efficiency in industry, and on the creation of new destinations and mass development in tourism. Competitiveness, for this reason, became an indicator of quantity and productivity, and significantly influenced the mass development of tourism resorts and the use of comparative advantages without strict rules of planning and regulating. Mass tourism development without regulations would be damaging for the natural environment. Without regulations, a destination might become stacked in the stage of "decline" [Butler 1980] for a longer period of time and in some cases, may be without any chance to rejuvenate. The public sector regulations and planning with strict control of pollution, crowding, waste disposal and negative impact elimination were important decisions in this phase, which influenced tourism practices and tourism studies. This might led to the growth of the significance of responsible tourism. A typical brand, focused on the sun, sand and beach, has become old-fashioned even in countries that were known as the Mecca of tourism, for example, Spain. For this reason, an innovative approach to marketing of destinations based on more distinctive principles has to be implemented.

Tourism had crucial impact on the third, innovation phase, shifting the paradigms of innovation to behavioral sciences [Sundbo 1998]. A change in consumer thinking and preferences, and growth in the importance of positioning and segmentation in marketing was typical for this period. The changes in consumer behavior, which were characterized by a predominance of the service sector businesses and the growing interest in tourism, leisure and recreation, influenced the importance of the service sector in economies of predominantly developed countries. The service sector development was focused on disciplines, such as marketing, management, sociology, psychology and culture. In 1970, T. Kuhn introduced innovative themes in tourism studies embracing a multidisciplinary rather than interdisciplinary approach [Jenings 2007; Leiper 1981; Echtner, Jamal 1997; Tribe 1997, Walle 1997], which significantly influenced the nature of the paradigms in tourism studies. Innovation, in this case, was introduced as a valid approach to tourism studies. The shifts from the technological and engineering paradigms, and mass development to behavioral science paradigms, service development and more sustainable topics as well as paradigms, are incremental for this period, especially for the exploration of innovations and competitiveness in tourism. Disciplines, such as marketing [Kotler 1984; Cooper 2005], strategic management or dynamic management [Shipley, Newkirk 1998] and innovation management [Katz 1988; Mintzberg 1989; Andersen 1990] became dominant in this period. The creation of strategic alliances, networks (clustering), quality of services, visioning, branding, environmental protection, crises and disasters, sustainability, community participation significantly embraced the innovation and competitiveness paradigms in tourism. The former industrial nature of development at the beginning of the 20th century has been transformed to a phenomenon focused on the consumer's well-being and needs. A society started to be more interested in social responsibility concepts, importance of image, reputation and such themes as peace, safety and prosperity. The former strong marketing and push-factors, which influenced concepts even in tourism, started to shift to the greater pull and softer factors. These trends may be strongly visible in some highly developed societies and countries as for example Scandinavian countries in Europe or Canada. The European Union is strongly influenced by this development and strength. The needs of a society have to be fully implemented into the competitiveness concept. D.J. Wood [1991] stated that business and society are not distinct entities, and this means that we cannot perceive business and society, or its goals and development, separately. Corporate social responsibility, for this reason, is an important innovative example, especially a type of the societal or procedural innovation.

Recently, these new trends in the innovative processes and techniques influenced innovation perception in tourism as well. The experience economy [Pine, Gilmore 1999] embraced the ideas of competitiveness through an innovative approach to consumer behavior and consumers as a part of human society. The authors discussed the problem of service substitution as a main driving force of consumption and experience. Based on the concepts of cultural behavior in a different milieu, a new paradigmatic trend moved the experience to represent the central attention of consumers. J. Sundbo [2008] especially mentioned the ability to create a profit based on novelty in consumer behavior and the approach to segmentation based on psychographic factors. B.J. Pine and H.J. Gilmore [1999] mentioned 4 economic stages in economics demarcating a need to innovate. The former agrarian and industrial stage has been transformed into service, and later into knowledge economy. Similarly, Kondratiev explained the concept of change through the cycles. In tourism, the experience economy influences marketing and branding strategies and leads to stronger acceptation of differentiation and positioning.

A changing lifestyle and the psychological needs of consumers will resonate even more in the future. Therefore, the innovative approach of tourism destinations will need to satisfy consumer demand and expectations by applying originality. Z. Ženko *et al.* [2008] explained the diffusion process of the holistic dialectical system. In the holistic thinking and competitive market approach, the need of complexity and understanding of the perceptions of customers as well as creators of marketing strategies has to be taken into account especially. For this reason, it might be interesting to explain how these concepts have been implemented into tourism studies and if the holism could also be found in the paradigmatic approach to tourism studies and the use of research methods in order to explain tourism as an economic and social phenomenon. Concerning marketing and branding, the idea of persuasion and diffusion of knowledge and attracting the attention of consumers, the brand equity building process and brand loyalty creation are crucial for the achievement of stronger competitiveness. The minds and hearts of customers would be a real target in future tourism marketing practices. Experience economy offers the opportunities to succeed. Moreover, the customer's psychographic characteristics, preferences and patterns (more socially and environmentally oriented) confirm the necessity to be more socially responsible.

Even now, research in tourism as well as competitiveness and innovation are still dominated by the post-positivist paradigms, despite the existing critique of the mono-disciplinary approach. As has been discussed in the tourism competitiveness context, a complexity of forces influencing competitiveness in tourism consists of a range of different paradigms. For example, in the research on destination policy as a factor of the competitive advantage, the “explication of multidimensional philosophies” [Crouch, Ritchie 2003, p. 178] designates the epistemological content, which means the evaluation of economic and managerial conditions as well as environmental assessment.

A question in the research on tourism competitiveness is not only about the use of a dominant paradigm, but how to reflect to the global forces influencing competitiveness and innovation. Tourism, in a new millennium, is of totally different nature as tourism in 20th century, and new forces (improving or destructing) have significantly influenced tourism research. For example, global forces originated a need for tourism research and innovative responses of governments and tourism destination representatives to the growing threats of inflicted crises such as terrorist attacks. The new situation in a society and global world also influenced tourism, and researchers focused on crisis and disaster management to apply a new paradigmatic approach to competitiveness in their research of practice [Paraskevas, Arendell 2007; Prideaux, Laws, Faulkner, 2003] and to apply different methods in research. Social responsibility, in this case (in practical as well as in researched topics), might be concerned with such topics as the responsibility of the society for safety, security, the role of mass media and the ability to cope with the negative consequences of such events. The significance of image and reputation has been even more deeply validated.

The changes of environment, society, economy, and especially the internationalization, growth of ICT and information as well as saturation of knowledge, opened up opportunities to compete and innovate, but also created controversy. This fact also influenced the nature of research on competitiveness and innovation, especially the transfer of focus from the dominant western epistemologies to more insightful and multicultural approaches, as discussed by J.J. Scheurich [1997], A. Matias *et al.* [2007] and G.R. Jennings [2007]. For this reason, new types of socially responsible tourism research were conducted in scientific journals as well, and they reported or studied specific cases of socially responsible forms of tourism, for example, pro-poor tourism in Africa or Asia and volunteer tourism. The new topics in tourism, new target countries and the way tourism has been studied enabled gaining a more broad perspective and to see tourism through the lenses of different cultures. Similarly, new methodological approaches have been applied and more case studies as well as mixed-method approach studies appeared in scientific journals.

G.R. Jennings [2007], however, criticized that the post-positivist approach still predominates, for example, modeling (linear models, chain-link models, life cycle models, etc.). A possible tandem in the methodological approach was admitted by M. Kozak and M. Rimmington [1999, p. 275], stating that “the destination competitiveness can be evaluated both quantitatively and qualitatively”, depending on the type of posed research question.

For instance, in the research focused the statistical evaluation of success-related factors of a destination (arrivals, revenues), a quantitative methodological toolkit will be more suitable for research. Mixed-methods or the qualitative method approach are applied when a destination tries to develop a scale of attributes contributing to competitiveness or to find new ideas for the innovative approach. Nonetheless, this type of research can be also approached by using quantitative methods, via the implication of the existing scale or the constructed Likert scale. One side could be the approach to tourism research and other tourism in real settings and how tourism influenced the life of society or how tourism as a phenomenon has been studied. Here, we wanted to underline its multidisciplinarity and the problem of tourism as a scientific discipline as well as the societal phenomenon with its positive or negative consequences. The holistic understanding of tourism as a phenomenon and perception of one part of tourism research, brand management might be a real complication for this reason. Despite this, we will try to find some connectivity of brand management with socially responsible tourism development and explain why tourism epistemology has changed in the last two decades.

3. Tourism epistemology and brand knowledge

Tourism, as a phenomenon or a subject of study, has been discussed in several academic sources [Tribe 1997; Echtner, Jamal 1997; Cooper, Fletcher, Gilbert, Shepperd, Wannhill 1993; Jafari, Ritchie 1981], and the main focus of their inquiries was the sources of tourism knowledge and the characteristic of tourism as a discipline.

J. Tribe [1997] distinguished two main sources of knowledge about tourism as **“**propositional knowledge”**,** in which truth has to be validated against the criteria provided by academic disciplines, for example, psychology, sociology or geography. The second epistemological source of tourism, based on J. Tribe’s proposal [1997], which highlights the professional practice of tourism management and marketing (e.g., branding from a managerial perspective), is the “procedural knowledge” that leads the managerial activities in tourism. Thus, branding, as a part of managerial studies in tourism, belongs to procedural knowledge, which lacks the nature of a discipline due to a deficiency of theoretical underpinnings. However, even in branding research, a blurry boundary between both concepts – prepositional and procedural knowledge – exists. For example, if a researcher is interested in consumer image, and attitudes, the source of knowledge is based on theoretical underpinnings of the first concept - procedural knowledge or “knowing that”, e. g., psychology (consumer psychology). Blending of methods and approaches also means a different point of view concerning the same phenomenon. For instance, economists can see the same problem differently than natural scientists, which can create a problem. For this reason, a society has to look at the same problem through the lenses of multiple players, partners and in a complex way. In this, the social responsibility in entrepreneurship and business approach as well as in the studies of phenomena dealing with these topics might be also explained.

The epistemological and ontological groundings of branding as the professional practice of management in tourism seems to be a challenge, not only due to a dual view of epistemological sources, but also because of scholarly disagreement regarding the disciplinary nesting of tourism knowledge and questioning tourism's status as a field or an entire discipline. For example, J. Jafari and B. Ritchie [1981] presented a model of tourism studies, which includes only part of the entire tourism knowledge.

P. Hirst [1974] introduced a model of tourism knowledge creation, demonstrating the epistemological origins of such professional practices as tourism marketing and management, while branding is part of marketing and management practices in tourism. Tribe (1997) explained that the knowledge claims require a specific methodology for each discipline. Blending knowledge claims for different disciplines is a reason why researchers are unsure whether tourism is a discipline. The interdisciplinary nature of tourism complicates the holistic understanding and unified research approach.

Interdisciplinary nature generates knowledge, which is based on the ideas proposed by M. Gibbons, M. Trow, P. Scott, S. Schwartzman, H. Nowotny and C. Limoges [1994] – "characterized by the explicit formulation of a uniform discipline – transcending terminology or a common methodology" [p. 651]. In other words, an interdisciplinary approach requires possible mutual agreement about common methodological approaches and borrowing methods from other disciplines. The question involves not only being able to generally define brands and their position in management and marketing practice, but also in tourism, which may be significantly different in comparison to products.

A constraint might be to grasp the main theoretical approaches to how brands are understood and studied, and this epistemological distinction could contribute to the explanation of a blurry boundary between the forms of knowledge in tourism. For example, branding concerns not only business and management studies, but also non-business research, which are not linked together, but through tourism, as discussed by Tribe [1997]. This fact enlarged the cultural scope of branding, especially by the implication of such perspectives as anthropology (cultural differences) or biology, and sociology (gender differences in consumption patterns, place branding). Place branding could be one example of the interdisciplinary approach, where the main focus is not only on brand equity, but place brand equity as has been discussed by M. Florek and M. Kavaratzis [2014]. In the complexity of brand equity sources proposed by K.L. Keller [2002], 3 sources of brand equity were defined – “consumer psychology, economics, or biology and sociology” [p. 12], and the complexity of sources, research purposes and research questions embrace a theoretical perspective, philosophical stance, methods and methodological strategy.

Discussing the sociology and sociological paradigms, for instance, M.C. Jackson [2003] mentioned that “creative holism conceives the different systems approaches as being used in combination, ensuring for the managers the benefits of both – creativity and holism”. He explained that even in some sociological approaches and theories, for example, a combination of different paradigms (the functionalist, interpretive, emancipator, postmodern) has been used. The complication of existing perspectives and paradigms might complicate systematic and complex approaches to branding. The same author (ibid) stated that “holism gained a foothold in many different academic disciplines, benefiting from the failure of reductionism to cope with problems of complexity, diversity and change in complex systems”. Here, we can find some good examples of the need of a holistic approach to tourism studies. S. Božičnik and M Mulej [2008] underlined the importance of systemic thinking in the holistic approach, which is based on the following characteristics: interdependences, relations, interconnectedness, complexity, synergy, the big picture, networking, interaction as the opposite of simplicity, isolation, without mutual influences. Similar characteristics could be found in the approach to studies of tourism and especially the application of the community approach, sociology and social economy (well-being, consumer responsibility, image creation, reputation, etc.). The topics studied in the field of tourism research and the applied methods embraced the new changes in society, which started to be more oriented towards social issues and responsibility. This may be a building block of the existing interest in the topic of social responsibility, also in tourism settings in this period of time. For example, the socially responsible community approach encompassed such new topics as respect towards host communities, nature, and sensitiveness to the culture of host communities, socially responsible planning (in order to avoid gentrification and displacement of local people from tourism resorts, etc.).

The development of paradigms in branding has been strongly influenced by the philosophy of T. Kuhn [1970] and later, D. Bernstein [1991], especially by the fact that they highlighted the interdisciplinary nature of tourism and its incommensurable nature, meaning that the process of understanding and communicating might be complicated due to different perspectives and incongruence of the content. The incommensurability creates obstacles in the measurement of branding as a result of insufficient common indicators or standards.

D. Bernstein [1991] criticized that tourism is predominantly approached from a post-positivist stance, based on strict adherence of scientifically accepted methods. Changes, which were needed in the approaches to marketing and management research, have been discussed by G.R. Jennings, who noted that "… research in tourism economics and management has been predicated to western-based epistemological lenses and positivist/post positivist hegemony" [Jennings 2007, p. 10). However, there have been significant changes recently, and the following discussion sheds light on some of the developments in branding research during the past 20 years in order to explain the changes in epistemological stances, new methodological approaches and problems with the application of certain methodological tools influencing efficacy of research.

4. Branding paradigms and shift in methodological approaches

The development of paradigms in brand management during the last 20 years has been influenced by a significant paradigmatic shift from post-positivist to constructivist or interpretive perspectives. However, these paradigmatic approaches have been applied according to the focus and intent of specific researchers. The focus might be a tourism destination with its attributes (and the owner and creator of a brand) or the consumer with certain motives, attitudes, perceptions and beliefs. T. Heding, C.F. Knudtzen and M. Bjorke [2009] explained that "the positivistic stance implies a notion of the brand being owned by the marketer, who controls the communication to a passive recipient/consumer" [p. 21]. Thus, brand management and brand equity research is focused on the supply side – destination, and the post-positivist paradigms are more frequently implemented. Nevertheless, research on the relationship between the creator of the brand and the consumer more frequently implies constructivist paradigms. The dominant rule of post-positivist approaches is rooted in classical branding theory based on relational and network marketing. Brands represent the ownership of brand owners – the creators of brands - a tourism destination and its entrepreneurs.

More recently, a different approach to brands has been implemented, and the sensual and emotional content has been recognized in the form of a so-called decomposition approach to brands [Doyle 1994], which is a methodological approach used to analyze consumer perception of brands where they evoke senses and emotions of consumers. The approach can be explained by the implementation of concepts of decision heuristically based on A. Tversky's [1972] concept used in psychology and focused on human decision-making behavior. Recognition of heuristic approaches and the importance of individual differences in human decision-making behavior, for example, perception, risk-taking propensities and social value orientation, mean an enormous step forward in branding management and an epistemological approach to branding. Respecting social values and needs is a big step onward in the approach to branding and its perception in tourism. Especially respecting the image and perceptions of customers and looking for their desires, fulfilling the promises given by brands, is a real move ahead regarding this concept in accordance with needs of a society. The continual change of consumer expectations and their roles in tourism offer (more co-creative participation), which has been shifted from the mass tourist role to the individual mass tourist role and continually to the role of the explorer and drifter (active member of tourist society responsibly participating in their life and creating social connections through tourism activities), have originated new types of tourism product offers and the new roles of tourists in these offers. A typical example of the last role is pro-poor or educational volunteer tourism [Lebe, Vrečko 2014].

As a consequence, from a managerial perspective, but also in academic research, perception of brands has been shifted from the brand owner and creator of a brand (a destination) towards the relationship between the brand owner and consumer. The mind of consumers, expressing human behavioral differences in decision-making processes, has become a target in brand management research, especially in brand equity inquiries. Understanding how consumers decide and where their decision is rooted, emerges as a need in a competitive environment.

A continual shift from brand-centric to customer-centric brand equity building [Keiningham, Perkins-Munn, Vavra 2005] followed by a change of epistemologies came with the creation of 2 different equity structures because the classical type of marketing contains stronger tangible features, and consumer-based branding requires stronger measurement capabilities due to the intangible nature of brand equity model variables.

M.J. Louro and P.V. Cunha [2001] explained that 4 ruling paradigms and 2 discriminators are crucial for systematic research of brand equity: “the role of the consumer in the branding process (customer centrality) and whether the brand should hold a tactical or strategic position (brand centrality)” [Louro, Cunha 2001, p. 251]. Figure 1 visually documents the dimensions and brand management paradigms, which enables better understanding concerning the necessity of different approaches to the studies of brand management. In Table 1, the categorization of taxonomies of brand management are compared, and methodological approaches to branding, and especially to brand equity are clarified. T. Heding, C.F. Knudtzen and M. Bjorke [2009, p. 85] stated that the “consumer is seen and analyzed through a lens grounded in cognitive psychology and information economics”, which is again the evidence of blending disciplines and methodologies while studying tourism from a specific point of view (or by applying the comparative advantage technique – branding into force). This fact confirms our opinion that effective marketing and branding strategies have an enormous effect on consumer preferences and consequently, on brand equity. Although this process is one-dimensional, (consumer-based), the marketer's role and the congruency between the intent of a marketer (sensory input) as well as the mind of the consumer (brand choice) are also important. The taxonomy of brand management and evolution of branding has been proposed by several other authors, including

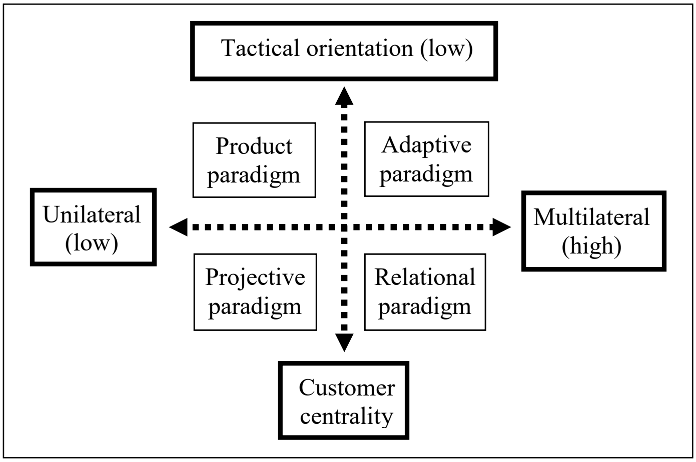

Fig. 1. Two dimensions and four brand management paradigms
Source: [Louro, Cunha 2001 as used in Hedding et al., 2009].

Tab. 1. Comparison of brand management categorization

Categorization	**Taxonomy**	**Goodyear (1996)**	**Louro and Cunha (2001)**	**Holt (2004)**
Discriminators	Kuhnian analysis of research papers	Macro-level analysis of market evolution	Customer centrality and strategic priority (in lit.)	Widely used branding models (in literature and practice)
Comparable brand categories	Economic approach	Brand as reference	The product paradigm	
Comparable brand categories	Identity approach	Brand as company	The projective paradigm	
Comparable brand categories	Consumer-based approach	Brand as personality	The adaptive paradigm	Mind-share branding
Comparable brand categories	Personality approach	Brand as personality	The relational paradigm	Emotional branding
Comparable brand categories	Relational approach	Brand as personality	The relational paradigm	Emotional branding
Comparable brand categories	Community approach			Viral branding
Comparable brand categories	Cultural approach	Brand icon + brand policy		Cultural branding

Source: [Hedding, Knudtze, Bjerre 2009].

M. Goodyear [1996], M.J. Louro and P.V. Cunha [2001], as well as D. B. Holt [2004], A. Hampf and K.H. Lindberg-Repo [2011], and in some concepts of Kuhn's approaches and Louro and Cunha's paradigms. The following discussion will allow to evaluate the typology of data used in branding depending on methods and methodology.

5. Evaluation and typology of primary and secondary data sources for destination branding

The type of theoretical perspective, embedded in the methodology, requires a new approach to the study of destination brands, branding and the evaluation of used methods and methodologies. Some of these methods have been strongly implemented and recommended in order to conduct acceptable research. The changes and attempt grasp the holistic view of the searched phenomenon requested some changes in methodological approach. Although qualitative methods are generally more suitable for capturing the holistic nature of branding model constructs; for example – image, research conducted by S. Pike [2002] revealed the predominance of quantitative research methods and a post-positivist approach to branding (a theoretical perspective).

Empirical research in branding and consumer behavior is a commonly applied technique, and the inductive approach – through collection of data, information and observation, is dominant in most branding studies. This type of research involves both types of questions: academic and practical. The theoretical model developed from research questions stems from the body of existing literature and contains theoretical constructs as well as observed variables. In the first stages of research, qualitative methods are more appropriate (e.g., surveys containing open-ended question, experiment observation, case studies, focus groups). Quantitative methods (experimental research and surveys) are still the most common research method in empirical research, even for branding.

The variety of disciplines shaping knowledge of branding requires a holistic approach, which is based on a dual approach to research. Of concern to outcome are the implications of the methodologies (strategies of linking methods to the result) and methods (techniques of research) used. To understand the epistemological shift and the appropriateness of new methodological approaches, M. Goodyear [1996] explained the concepts of classical and post-modern branding. The former is rooted in the creation of logos and slogans; and a brand owner acquires the dominant role. The post-modern approach allows brands to develop complex identities and a consumer to own a brand.

In the literature on branding it is revealed that names, symbols and logos are not sufficient representations of a tourism destination, while a holistic approach, combining qualitative and quantitative approaches and mixed methods, can be more usefully applied. Inductive analysis means that researchers search for multiple realities and qualitative research allows researchers to search for those realities.[Lincoln, Guba 1985].

This critical approach is novel to the methodological approach, and mixing different paradigms (concepts) as well as methods and methodologies, for example – those sociological, geographical, psychological paradigms and methods, which helps researchers to avoid a subjective approach. Researchers tend to borrow particular techniques from different disciplines used in clinic settings (health care and leisure studies), and the business environment. These techniques can be valuable, especially at the first stages of image research for branding and imply a qualitative research approach. The disciplinary mosaic is one typical characteristic of branding research. This is also a good case of practice where reduction of research to one discipline cannot provide the whole picture. Holism and the holistic approach also could be seen in the methodological approach. The interdisciplinary approach and co-operation, as stated by M. Mulej, Š. Kajzer *et al.* [1999], could also be found within this concept of the methodological approach.

The dual approach to research requires implementation of such quantitatively structured methods (primary research) as survey, the Likert scale and semantic differentials, which allow researchers to explore image and attitude perception among visitors (demand side) and a qualitative approach using unstructured methods for the research on attitudes of potential visitors, visitors and post-visitors. Such methods include in-depth interviews, focus groups, projective techniques, repertory grid techniques, content analysis, case studies, clustering methods and triangulation techniques.

Triangulation allows the implication of common ontology and epistemology. However, such authors as N.G. Fielding and J.L. Fielding [1986] have questioned the validity of results obtained by researchers using triangulation techniques. B. Davies [2003] added that the image may be more complete, but definitely not more objective. The complementarity of quantitative and qualitative data obtained through a combination of research techniques has been praised by M. Uysal and J.L. Crompton [1985] and M. Opperman [1995]. In qualitative and quantitative research, the timing and order of methods is important. L.W. Miller and B.F. Crabtree [1994] suggested the simultaneous use of both approaches (concurrent design possibility), with the implementation of qualitative methods first and quantitative methods later (sequential approach).

Content analysis is suitable for the initiation of research, especially more comprehensive empirical research. It involves the analysis of secondary data, such as academic journals and books on branding, conference materials, documents, marketing materials, websites, guidebooks, brochures, academic sources, government materials, statistical information and photographs. The most important seems to be a combination of verbal and visual techniques, for example, the use of photographic media. A. Bryman and E. Bell [2007] agreed that photographs are also suitable for interviews. The content analysis method can help researchers avoid one-sided visioning by respecting different stances. In content analysis, the results of primary research are also applied to evaluate research outcomes of focus group trials, consumer surveys and Dephi methods in branding. O.H. Jenkins [1999] noted that by the implication, this method of categorization process needs to be transparent, and the subjectivity of a researcher and his/her personal impact on the research must be avoided. Evaluation of primary research results involves various methods of coding and measuring of reliability. Authors, such as M. Oppermann [1995] and D. Pearce [2001], discussed the possible use of an innovative approach to collecting data and measurements, which does not mean simply combining quantitative and qualitative techniques, but improved coding and measurement of data. Cross-validation and linkage between systematic planning and collection methods (primary and secondary data) have been stressed by M. Opperman [1995] and B. Davies [2003].

A method of using case studies in a mixed-method approach is also common in branding research. The majority of case study authors of agree that just as important as the creation of brands, is the ability to see a holistic image of them, for example the image in gestalt. In the study of images, this fact is crucial because it allows researchers to monitor the consonance of specific branding constructs with the images created in the minds of consumers.

For case studies from a multicultural perspective, M. R. Mullen [1995] recommended the application of standardized constructs and scales valid in different settings. Thus, brand measurement techniques could be applied as the implication of international measures regarding brand equity for the assessment of multivariate attitudes. However, applying standardized constructs in primary research might be a challenge because the cultural specifics of countries differ, which complicates the application of standard scales or models. Some authors, including Blain, Levy, Ritchie 2005 and Ekinci, Hosany 2006, have recommended applying such methods as cultural psychology for the improvement of research results.

The case study method provides variable results, and different contrasting cases might be studied similarly [Veal 1992]. The advantage of the case study method is the existence of plentiful data sources and the creation of a vivid picture of a scene. Case study research can be conducted in multiple stages. For example, in later stages, case study research can be either a survey based on a random sample dispersed in the destination among visitors or focus-group interviews.

In addition to the structured or semi-structured interviews, E. Laws, N. Scott and N. Parfitt [2002] recommend an indirect (projective) approach to motivation measurement, which has also been discussed by Kelly [1955] and Reilley [1990]. Projective techniques are common in branding research and the authors S. Westwood, N. J. Morgan, A. Pritchard and E. Ineson [1999] advised the use of attitudinal scaling and conceptual mapping. The indirect (projective) approach consists of 4 stages that construct a matrix: selection, rating of elements, cluster analysis and evaluation of results (comparison of the constructed and real world elements). A world of construction is rather subjective, and as M. Crotty [2003] concluded, in this subjective constructionism or constructivism approach – "we do not create meaning; we construct meaning" (p. 44), thus the world has been constructed [Berger, Luckmann 1967].

G. Hankinson [2004] discussed some specific problems with the use of conventional image measurement techniques in branding image research. These problems include the measurement of images and dispute about blending methods between positivists and constructivists. G. Hankinson [2004] admitted some subjectivity by the implication of an open-ended approach to the interviews; however, the use of constructed questionnaires means to approach the research from the researcher's point of view. In order to overcome this constrain, primary research should consist of 2 stages (structured and unstructured). Hankinson recommends in-depth interviews and structured questionnaires.

In the case of destination branding, grasping the complex nature of destinations with the more or less compound elements and simultaneously evolving characteristic of meanings for visitors as well as for a destination, might be a challenge. M. Crotty [2003] recommended a combination of the objective and subjective approaches, an approach used in constructionism. Thus, the methods and methodologies recommended in constructionism or constructivism (individual stance) are suitable for branding research. Nonetheless, the type of question is a decisive characteristic for a theoretical perspective (post-positivism, interpretivism).

Different cultural backgrounds for consumers in tourism destinations might influence the evaluation of a destination's qualities, consumer expectations, and the process of matching expectations with the tourism destination reality. For this reason, M. Croty [2003, p. 64] added that "we need to recognize that different people may well inhabit quite different worlds. Their different worlds constitute for them diverse ways of knowing, distinguishable sets of meanings, separate realities". Consequently, branding strategies might be slightly different for different cultural groups, and there might be difference between the strategies used for domestic and international markets", as analyzed in the research by G. Hofstede [1980]. A complexity of different approaches and the need for the big picture, synergy, synthesis and holism, as has been recommended by Z. Ženko, et al. [2008], could be also used in this concept regarding the application of consumer behavior studies in branding. Reductionism and limited understanding could be the reason for failure.

In order to overcome subjectivity, M. Croty [2003, p. 48] suggests that researchers turn "phenomenology from a study of phenomena as the immediate objects of experience into a study of experiencing individuals". Individual experiences may be a valuable source of research information in branding, especially for the construction of further measurement and research tools used in questionnaires, Likert scale measurements and semantic differential measurements.

In branding, especially for the application of branding concepts as brand equity (models), but also for brand identity and personality concepts, a researcher has to be extremely creative in the research approach and use a mixture of different methods, if possible. M. Croty [2003] called such researchers the "bricoleurs", who need to be real "inventors" [Denzin, Lincoln, 2000, p. 51] capable of measuring branding image and customer awareness, but also of understanding the type of image or attributes visitors expect. In some cases, the measuring techniques in primary research, and especially the construct of the questionnaires, do not allow researchers to obtain useful information, and the results might be biased, subjective or not applicable. Creativity has been also underlined by Florida (2005) in the meaning of building of creative class in a society. Authors such as J. Knez-Riedl and M. Mulej [2008] have mentioned the importance of creativity in the approach to different human activities.

In order to capture a holistic image, C,M, Echtner, R. B. Ritchie [1991] and O.H, Jenkins [1999] advised the use of structured and unstructured methods in studies on branding in tourism. The dominant nature of structured methods, such as the Likert scale measurement and semantic differentials in image research, is the need for supplementation by unstructured techniques such as content analysis, repertory grid analysis, focus groups or unstructured surveys.

In some disciplines, for example in environmental studies, a mixture of methods is used for image research, for instance, visual effects as photographs and maps. The implementation of qualitative methods has been critically approached and also criticized for their biased features, which may be an obstacle for two independent researchers to achieve similar outcomes [Walmsley, Young 1988]. To avoid this complication, D. J. Walmsley and M. Young [1988] recommended the implementation of techniques, i.e. repertory grid analysis (RGA) as a method of elicitation. The advantage of RGA is that it allows the implementation of both - parametric and non-parametric statistical analysis, for instance, factor analysis and idiographic measurement.

One efficient research method recommended in qualitative research is the method of construct elicitation, for example, the triadic method, which is based on the choice of , elements constructed specifically for research. This type of method applies the implementation of repertory grid techniques. Repertory grid techniques are used in clinical settings, in business research, health care studies, leisure studies [Boterril, Crompton, 1987], and tourism research [Embacher *et al,* 1989].

The method was originally used in clinical psychology, and its ability to capture people's perception of destination images constitutes its advantage in branding research. The RGA method can be implemented in different ways, for instance, in the triadic method or full-context form, and the methodology could be factor or content analysis. For example, in research on brand equity, the differences between the individual and holistic constructs may be more fairly easily reconciled and analyzed. Interestingly, the method of repertory grid analysis, in combination with structured interviews, allows blending of qualitative and quantitative analysis because the results of the qualitative research can be further applied in the quantitative method approach, especially in the second phase. Typical is the Likert scale method (5 to 7-point) or semantic differentials. The method is useful for researchers wanting to define a positioning strategy and segmentation. In branding, positioning and segmentation are important concepts of tourism destination competitiveness and improving the effectiveness of marketing strategies. Blending methods and disciplines is also a good example of the holistic view of phenomena, from the lenses of different disciplines, methodologies, cultures, etc. A typical example might be the implication of cultural tourism in tourism and management studies, where different methods and topics dealing with commodification of culture, acculturation, empowerment of host communities, globalization, etc. could be applied. Socially responsible tourism topics will influence future research and practice even more. Concerning brand management and branding, it should be stated that reputation and image are important characteristics which strongly influence branding process. Brands should be symbols of quality and simplify the exchange process. For this reason, the importance of branding for image and reputation creation will become crucial, even in tourism businesses. The existing system of quality, given in a specific standard (for example ISO management standards, eco labels), allows to fulfill the expectations of consumers and satisfy their needs in accordance with the changes occurring in society. These changes that unexpectedly appeared in human society and tourism became one of the most vulnerable economic activities. For this reason, academics started to focus more frequently on risk management themes, dealing with such topics as organizational learning, cultural differences in the world during different crises, as recently in the case of COVID-19, health and psychological problems, and economic consequences of the pandemic situation on tourism. Methodologies of the studies dealing with these new topics are based on the multidisciplinary or even more interdisciplinary approaches in the dependence of research topic. One example could be the studies concerning applied models of crisis management and the response of several studied countries to the COVID-19 pandemic situation, especially the preparedness of the public sector to bear a risk and to act effectively.

6. Conclusion

The competitive and innovative developments occurring by the end of the 20th and the beginning of the 21st century highlighted emerging streams as the importance of knowledge and knowledge economy. Knowledge economy is embedded in the codified and tacit abilities of humans, but also in other forms of knowledge, for example, cultural knowledge. In tourism, new post-Fordist development embraced the growth of global forces, rivalry among tourism destinations offering similar comparative advantages for more educated and sophisticated consumers. The new paradigmatic approach has been applied in research on tourism competitiveness and innovations due to the growing need to introduce new managerial and marketing approaches. Consumer behavior and the experience economy approach are dominant paradigms in marketing and strategic management for tourism.

In practical settings of tourism, tourism destinations started to apply the strategic partnership approach, methods interconnecting companies not only on the basis of location, for instance, clustering methods. Visioning, strategic planning and management became more common in successful tourism destinations. Lack of knowledge on competitiveness and innovation in the service sector, which is predominant in tourism destination product offers, could be an impulse for further research, not only as the interest of service quality and benchmarking (supply side), but also from a perspective of consumers. Global environmental, social, political and economic changes, as well as negative signs, especially in the last decade, have significantly influenced competitiveness of tourism and initiated innovative approaches and changes in tourism policy, management, and environmental protection. This new approach to tourism studies allow to embrace the need to look at tourism as activity requiring a more holistic approach and view. Based on systemic thinking (Mulej´s Dialectical System Theory), which has also been explained by the authors S. Božičnik and M. Mulej [2008], the synergy of different viewpoints at the economic, social and environmental development levels, which is additionally embedded in tourism development, have to be taken into account. Tourism development has to be done by accepting the rules of socially responsible activity, not only a phenomenon of value creation and economic growth. This fact further influences the studies of tourism and the approach to tourism, competitiveness, management and branding from an innovative point of view and approach. The diffusion of new knowledge, approach, changes in a society, has impact on the shift of paradigms, methods and methodologies applied in tourism branding. For this reason, even in tourism, change is not about doing something, but about doing something differently. The difference is in seeing the whole picture (supply and demand side approach) through the lenses of different subjects (multicultural approach) by accepting their desires (fulfillment of promise) and respecting them as the partners of the whole process (co-creation concept in branding, social responsibility and acceptance of consumers as the important part of the market and society). For this reason, a new approach to managerial practices in tourism destinations and a new approach to research on tourism managerial practices might be an avenue to improve the competitiveness of tourism destinations.

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APPROACHES TO TOURISM RESEARCH AND HIGHER EDUCATION IN SLOVAKIA AFTER 2010

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Abstract

Purpose. The aim of the article is to analyse the development and trends of tourism research and education in Slovakia. Its partial objective is (1) to present the development of tourism research before and after socio-political changes in Slovakia in 1990, and (2) to evaluate the trends in tourism research according to research projects and related dissertation and habilitation theses from 2010 to 2020.
Methods. Based on a critical review of the research project, analysis of dissertation and habilitation theses, in the article, we examine trends in tourism research and education at academic institutions that have been focused on tourism between the years 2010 and 2020.
Findings. In the article, a brief overview of tourism research and higher education in Slovakia is presented and based on the research projects and related dissertations and habilitation theses identifying trends in tourism research.
Research and conclusions limitations. Research limitations concern data availability regarding trends in tourism research as well as the application of the literature review method, which solely relies on previously published research and the availability of these studies.
Practical implications. In the article, possible further directions for tourism research in Slovakia are proposed.
Originality. In the article, we present the approaches to tourism research and higher education in Slovakia after 2010. The development and history, as well as trends in tourism research, require more attention from tourism researchers. Without systematic tourism research in the past, there would be no present or future of tourism education.
Type of paper. Empirical research.

Keywords: tourism research, tourism projects, higher education, academic departments, Slovakia.

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1. Introduction

Systematic attention paid to tourism research in Czechoslovakia (established after World War 1 with the dissolution of Austria-Hungary in 1918) increased after the World War 2. The research studies published between the 2 world wars were of educational nature, but also had the aim of supporting the state's economy destroyed by the war and the economic crisis in the 1930s. After the Second World War and the establishment of communism in 1948 until 1989, tourism was subordinated to the "communism needs", thus, the research and education of tourism was apologetic in nature. The turning point was in 1963, at the initiative of the United Nations (UN) global conference on international tourism and travel, held in Rome. Its aim was to create conditions for more intensive development of international tourism. In Czechoslovakia, as a result of this conference's recommendations, a number of actions were taken to create conditions for intensifying the development of tourism, including the creation of higher education and the strengthening scientific research in tourism. A significant breakthrough in education and tourism research occurred after the socio-political change in Czechoslovakia during 1989 – in democratic conditions.

2. Review of literature

Without systematic research, the meaningful development of tourism is not possible. Before the Second World War, tourism was researched mainly by individuals who published several studies and drew attention to its economic, social, health and cultural significance, e.g. O. Rosenauer [1936], F. Matulay [1937], E. Nový and E. Fodor [1937]. After World War 2, several tourism-related studies were published in Czechoslovakia, e.g. B. V. Černý [1945], J. Charvát [1945, 1948], Z.A. Truska [1946] and A. Šima [1949]. B.V. Černý wrote, among others, about the "Research institute for tourism, to the establishment of which serious steps were taken in the liberated homeland" [Černý 1945, p. 7]. Z. A. Truska also pointed out the need for atourism research institute, when he wrote: "We promise a lot from the work of the Institute for Tourism Research, which was founded in Prague and planned relocation to Bratislava. The institute is already working" [Truska 1946, p. 35]. In those years, the authors pronounced it as pious wishes. The establishment of the Institute for Tourism Research took place later, similarly as the establishment of the study of tourism at universities in Czechoslovakia.

After the socio-political change in 1989, in the independent Slovak Republic, G. Sládek [1999], M. Poláček [2006] and M. Gúčik [1990, 1995, 2005, 2012, 2013, 2015], as well as J. Kučerová and M. Vetráková [2017] dealt with the issues of research and education in tourism. Tourism research was also addressed at several scientific conferences[1]

3. Aim, material and methodology

The aim of the article is to analyse the development and trends of tourism research and education in Slovakia. Its partial objectives are to (1) present the development of tourism research before and after socio-cultural changes in Slovakia in 1990, and (2) evaluate the trends in tourism research according to research projects and related dissertation and habilitation theses from 2010 to 2020. To address the development of tourism research and education in Slovakia, a literature review, with a particular attention to academic institutions, was conducted. Trends in tourism research can be examined via several approaches. Due to the availability of data, the article is focused on the tourism research projects funded by the Slovak Scientific Grant Agency VEGA, and published on the website of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sport of the Slovak Republic (MINEDU) and Slovak Academy of Sciences (SAS). These projects are followed by dissertations and habilitation theses. Since 2010, these qualification theses have been stored in the Central Register of Final Theses, which is also a tool for verifying their originality. The obtained data will be classified according to the fields of study and the year of their defence. We processed the obtained data by selected methods of descriptive statistics and generalising knowledge.

4. Results and discussion

Without systematic tourism research in the past, there would be no present or future of tourism education.

Tourism research up to 1990

In the years after the Second World War, when it was necessary to restore the war-torn economy, and in the conditions of the central planning, special emphasis was placed on the development of social tourism (recreation of workers, children and youth, and spa treatment). Conditions for individual tourism have been gradually developed since the mid-1950s as part of growing living standards of the population. In 1959, a scientific conference on "The importance

[1] Scientific conferences organized by the Department of Tourism and at the MBU: Quality Staff – Quality Tourism (1994); Training for tourism professionals in the 21st century (1999); Tourism theory and practice in the conditions of globalization (2009).

and role of tourism in the development of the national economy of Czechoslovakia" was held at the University of Economics in Bratislava, at which it was emphasized, among others, that there is a need for university tourism education and, within this context, scientific tourism research. The issue of preparing graduates for tourism and strengthening tourism research was also addressed by the national conference on tourism, which took place in 1960.

With the influence of the UN International Conference on Tourism and International Travel (Rome, 1963), scientific research on tourism began on the academia arena in 1964 at the University of Economics in Bratislava and in Prague. Departments of Tourism and Hospitality were established there (selected courses on tourism were taught at both schools as early as the mid-1950s). The professional profile of both departments was economical due to the application of graduates in practice. Research on tourism in both departments was of primary (basic) research nature and was focused on the needs of education and secondarily, on applied research for the needs of practice [Gúčik 2012].

In 1970, the Federal Research Institute of Tourism was established in Bratislava. Until then, the Research Institute of Trade in Prague, Terplan in Prague and Urbion in Bratislava, had been involved in tourism research [Poláček 2006]. The Research Institute of Tourism was a self-financing organisation, employing an average of 50 employees, not only economists, but also geographers, sociologists and urban planners. Employees of the Departments of Tourism at the University of Economics in Bratislava (UE) and the University of Economics in Prague also took part in solving multidisciplinary projects.

In the academic year of 1973/74, the Department of Tourism and Hospitality moved from Bratislava to Banská Bystrica, where, after 4 preparatory years, the Faculty of Economics of Services and Tourism was established. The new faculty provided not only an educational process for tourism and services, but also scientific research activities. In the mid-1980s, the results of scientific research began to be systematically popularised at domestic scientific seminars and international conferences, which were organised in 3-year cycles. Since 1968, the results of tourism research have been published in the journal "Economic Review of Tourism", which was published in collaboration with the Government Committee for Tourism [Truska, Balhar 1974]. To this day, the journal publishes articles and analytical studies by domestic and foreign authors on tourism in the European context.

5. Tourism research and higher education since 1990

After the socio-political changes in Czechoslovakia in 1989, the preconditions for tourism research created in the centrally-controlled economy fell apart. Furthermore, there were significant changes in the organisation of tourism research. Several institutions ceased to exist as well as the Research Institute of Tourism (in 1990). The focus of tourism research shifted to universities and partly to the Slovak Academy of Sciences (SAS).

Until 1991, the only university department whose mission was education and research of tourism was the Department of Tourism and Hospitality.

Table 1. Study of tourism at universities in Slovakia in 2019

University – faculty, department (year of establishment)	**Field of study**	**Study programme (degree)**
UMB BB – Faculty of Economics, Department of Tourism (1964)	6,314 Tourism*	1. Tourism (Bachelor) 2. Economy and management of tourism (Master) **3. Tourism (Doctoral)**
EUBA – Faculty of Commerce, Department of Services and Tourism (1991)	6,314 Tourism*	1. Business in tourism and services (Bachelor) 2. Tourism management (Master)
TUKE – Faculty of BERG Institute of Land Resources, Department of Geo and Mining Tourism (1994)	2,118 Exploitation and protection of the Earth's resources	1. Geotourism (Bachelor) 2. Geotourism (Master)
PU – Faculty of Management, Department of Tourism and Hotel Management (1994)	6,314 Tourism*	1. Tourism, hospitality and spa (Bachelor)
UKF – Faculty of Arts, Department of Management of Culture and Tourism (1998)	8,136 Culturology	1. Culture and tourism management (Bachelor) 2. Culture and tourism management (Master)
SPU – Faculty of European Studies and Regional Development, Department of Regional and Rural Development (2004)	6,218 Public administration and Regional Development	1. Rural development and rural tourism (Bachelor) 2. Rural development and rural tourism (Master)
UKF – Faculty of Central European Studies, Department of Tourism (2013)	6314 Tourism*	1. Regional tourism (Bachelor) 2. Management of regional tourism (Master)

* Since 1st Sep. 2019 changed to field of study 8 – Economics and management.

Legend: There are three levels of higher education in Slovakia: the first level is Bachelor, the second level is Masters and the third level is a Doctoral study program (or PhD.). Bachelor degree ends with degree "Bakalár" (abbreviation Bc.); Masters programs end with "Magister" (abbr. Mgr.), "Inžinier" (abbr. Ing.) degree; Doctoral-level ends with degree of "Philosophiae doctor" (abbr. "PhD."). UMB BB – Matej Bel University in Banská Bystrica, EUBA – University of Economics in Bratislava, TUKE – Technical University of Košice, PU – University of Prešov, UKF – Constantine the Philosopher University in Nitra, Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra.

Source: University websites, 2020.

A triad of tasks according to K. W. von Humboldt[2] was fulfilled there: research – education – service to society. Since 1991, 6 other university departments have been established in Slovakia, offering study programmes in the tourism field of study, as well as in other fields (Table 1).

Four universities were accredited with the tourism field of study until 2019, offering 4, 1st-degree programmes (Bachelor's) and 3, 2nd-degree programmes (Master's). Only the Faculty of Economics of the UMB provided doctoral degree studies (Ph.D) in tourism. The faculty obtained this right after comprehensive accreditation in 2006, including the right to habilitate and inaugurate (until then, the study of tourism was in the field of sectoral and cross-sectional economics, including habilitations and inaugurations). Based on the results of research and education in tourism at UMB, the Accreditation Agency confirmed the validity regarding the tourism field of study. Three universities offered the study of tourism through other programmes, namely – public administration and regional development, culturology, exploitation and protection of earth resources.

In 2019, the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sports of the Slovak Republic changed the fields of study in which universities can provide higher education. Fields of study and their descriptions are contained in Decree No. 244/2019 and are valid from 1 September, 2019. The initial fields of study tourism, public administration and regional development have been transformed and are part of the economics and management field of study.

6. Domestic research projects in tourism in the years 2010-2020

The development of higher education institutions in which tourism is taught is also accompanied by a number of academics involved in tourism research. This is also reflected in the growing number of implemented domestic and foreign research projects, dissertations and habilitation theses, as well as other scientific publications. In this article, we analyse research theses that are a condition for obtaining a Ph.D. degree and the scientific-pedagogical rank of associate professor. The interdisciplinarity of tourism means that tourism is also the topic of research in other scientific disciplines. Theses are usually part of the research projects funded by domestic and foreign grants. Researchers can apply for a grant from the VEGA – MINEDU Scientific Grant Agency and the Slovak Academy of Sciences (SAS). The number of submitted

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[2] Karl Wilhelm von Humboldt (1767-1835) German scholar, art theorist, linguist, teacher and politician. He developed the basic concept and founded the University of Berlin. This laid the foundations of a modern university, based on the unity of teaching and research. He was a supporter of the neo-humanist ideal of education, upbringing in a national sense, and demanded comprehensive education based on the model of ancient Greece.

Table 2. Research projects funded by VEGA grants in 2010-2020

University – faculty	**Research project**
UMB BB – Faculty of Economics	– Use of Slovak natural and cultural UNESCO heritage in tourism (2008-2010) – Innovations of the Slovak tourism product on the competitive market (2011-2013) – Prerequisites for applying the concept of socially responsible behaviour in tourism in the Slovak Republic (2013-2015) – Perspectives of the development of volunteer tourism in Slovakia (2016-2018) – Reengineering of destination management organisations and their management in accordance with the principles of sustainable tourism development (2017-2019) – Tourism 4.0: Smart and sustainable development of tourism in a competitive environment (2020-2022) – Sharing economy - an opportunity for sustainable and competitive development of tourism in Slovak destinations (2020-2022)
EUBA – Faculty of Commerce	– Networking - a model of regional network in tourism (2013-2015)
TUKE – Faculty of BERG	– N/A
PU – Faculty of Management	– Economic activity of tourism in the European area (2018-2020)
UKF – Faculty of Arts	– N/A
SPU – Faculty of European Studies and Regional Development	– Integrated approaches to the development of rural tourism in the conditions of the Slovak Republic (2014-2016)
UKF – Faculty of Central European Studies	– Creative tourism as a new tourism product in Slovakia (2018-2020)
PU – Faculty of Humanities and Natural Sciences	– Pro-poor tourism as a tool for sustainable development of marginalised communities and settlements in eastern Slovakia (2015-2017)
UMB BB – Faculty of Nature Sciences	– Tourist traffic as a factor affecting the biodiversity of organisms in protected areas (2014-2016)
UMB BB – Faculty of Arts	– Cultural heritage as part of the socio-cultural potential of tourism development in local communities (2019-2021)
TU Zvolen – Faculty of Ecology and Environmental Sciences	– Evaluation and prognosis regarding impact of extinction of the Bukove Forests on the development of ecotourism and geotourism in the Eastern Carpathians (2011-2013)
UK Bratislava – Faculty of Natural Sciences	– Ecological potential for rural development in Slovakia with focus on tourism (2011-2013) – Ecological model of tourism development based on the evaluation of localisation and implementation assumptions of the country using GIS tools and quantification methods (2014-2016)
ŽU - The Faculty of Operation and Economics of Transport	– Socio-economic and environmental contexts of transport as a determining factor and tool for the development of regional tourism (2010-2012)

*TU Zvolen – Technical University in Zvolen, UK Bratislava – Comenius University in Bratislava, ŽU – University of Žilina.

Source: www.minedu.sk, 2020; the authors.

scientific projects is growing every year, which with limited funding, means that only several projects with the highest score receive a grant. Supported research projects in the years 2010-2020 are shown in Table 2.

The focus of the projects replicates the issues of tourism research at home and abroad. Thematically, tourism projects are mainly concentrated on tourism development, cultural tourism and regional development.

Dissertation and habilitation theses are linked to the research projects. There is a range of study fields in which 156 dissertations focusing on tourism research were defended in 2010-2020 (Table 3).

Table 3. Dissertation theses with focus on tourism in 2010-2020

Group fields of study	Field of study	No	Share (%)
13. Geographical sciences	1,303 Regional geography	9	5.8
16. Environmental Protection	1626 Protection and land use	9	5.8
21. Mining, geology and geotechnics	2,118 Extraction and processing of the Earth's resources	18	11.5
35. Architecture	3,514 Spatial planning	1	0.6
36. Construction, geodesy and cartography	3,631 Building construction	2	1.3
62. Economic sciences	6,201 Economic theory	1	0.6
	6,203 Sectoral and cross-sectional economies	4	2.6
	6,218 Public administration and regional development	1	0.6
	6,225 International business	4	2.6
	6,280 Business and marketing	3	1.9
	6,284 Economics and business management	4	2.6
	6,289 Management	12	7.7
	6,290 Business management	2	1.3
63. Economics and organisation of trade and services	6,314 Tourism	31	19.9
68. Law sciences	6,817 Civil law	1	0.6
72. Journalism, librarianship and scientific information	7,218 Mass-media studies	8	5.1
74. Physical sciences	7,404 Sports humanities	1	0.6
77. Social and behavioural sciences	7,761 Social work	1	0.6
81. Art sciences	8,136 Culturology	6	3.9
	Not specified	38	24.4
	Total	156	100.0

Source: Own elaboration; Decree of the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic No. 243/2012.

In terms of the fields of study, most dissertations were defended in the area of tourism (19.9%), especially in management, economics and business management, international business, sectoral and cross-sectional economics. Almost 12% of the theses were defended in the field of extraction and processing of earth resources, 5.8% in regional geography as well as in environmental protection. Of the 156 defended dissertations, up to 38 (24.4) did not state the field of study in which the thesis was prepared. We compare the number of dissertations in tourism for Slovakia in the years 2010-2020 (156) with the dissertations defended in Poland in the years 1990-2020 [Alejziak 2006]. Despite different timelines, we can see "overproduction", especially in terms of the number of universities which have accreditation for tourism education. Compared to Poland, there is also a wide range of study fields (Slovakia 12, while in Poland, 7).

In the 2010-2020 period, 10 habilitation theses were defended in Slovakia, of which 5 were in the field of study tourism, 2 in the field of extraction and processing of earth resources and 1 in the business and marketing. Two works do not have a department (Table 4).

Table 4. Habilitation theses focused on tourism in 2010-2020

Group fields of study	Field of study	No.	Share (%)
21. Mining, geology and geotechnics	2118 Extraction and processing of the Earth's resources	2	20.0
62. Economic sciences	6280 Business and marketing	1	10.0
63. Economics and organisation of trade and services	6314 Tourism	5	50.0
	Not specified	2	20.0
	Total	10	100.0

Source: Own elaboration; Decree of the Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic No. 243/2012.

According to W. Alejziak (2006), 18 habilitation colloquia took place in Poland between 1990 and 2000, mainly in the fields of economics (11), earth sciences (2), technical sciences (1) and theological sciences (1).

Chronologically, most dissertations in Slovakia were defended until 2016, when the doctoral study was financed from the resources of the Ministry of Education, Science, Research and Sports of the Slovak Republic. At present, doctoral studies are financed from the resources of individual faculties, while graduates are not only prepared for work on "academic grounds" (Table 5). Habilitation is part of the achieved qualification of university teachers and are a prerequisite for further qualification growth.

In addition to grants from the VEGA agency, tourism research is funded by international grants and resources from universities. University de-

Table 5. Time aspects of dissertation and habilitation theses defences
* Until 30th Aug. 2020

Year	Dissertation	Habilitation	Total	Share (%)
2010	18	1	19	11.45
2011	21	2	23	13.85
2012	19	3	22	13.25
2013	16	2	18	10.84
2014	20	0	20	12.05
2015	14	0	14	8.43
2016	14	0	14	8.43
2017	11	1	12	7.23
2018	11	1	12	7.23
2019	9	0	9	5.42
2020*	3	0	3	1.82
Total	156	10	166	100.0

Source: Own elaboration.

partments that have accredited study programmes focused on tourism, but also other departments that deal with the topics from tourism, organise conferences and symposia, and publish journals in which they present their results. Thus, the number of researchers who explore tourism from various perspectives is growing, while representing not only traditional fields of study focused on tourism. It should be emphasized that tourism is the object of research at several university departments, especially departments of geography, regional development, marketing communication, mass media communication, architecture and the Slovak Academy of Sciences. The number of projects, dissertations and habilitation theses, as well as publications, does not mean an increase in quality. The content focus of the scientific projects at universities provides an image of the current trends in the study of tourism. For the research of tourism at university departments in Slovakia, the following are characterised:

- tourism research is divided into many fields, depending on the study programme, resp. profile of the faculty applying for the VEGA grant. This confirms the interdisciplinarity of tourism;
- the research topic of projects is not coordinated at a national level (VEGA grant agency), but also between faculties and universities that fund research from their own resources;
- awareness of research projects is not sufficient, therefore, there are some duplications in research, and thus, uneconomical use of financial resources;

- research projects respond only to a small extent to the priorities of the European Union, the Visegrad Group (V4) countries and Slovakia in the development of tourism, also in terms of a global approach.

In the future, it is necessary to combine the research projects focused on tourism with the creation of qualified interdisciplinary teams composed of researchers from domestic and foreign academic institutions. It is essential to prove the validity of research projects, their contribution to the development of knowledge and use, not only in education, but also in applied research for practice. It may be optimal to set up a specialised research institute, staffed and financially-secured, so that it can be the coordinator of research in tourism. G. Sládek [2006] also pointed out the establishment of a specialised tourism research institute. By exchanging knowledge and experience in the research of tourism between universities at national and international levels, we consider it a bridge overcoming isolation, developing interdisciplinary scientific knowledge and tourism education. Tourism research is necessary for the qualification development of scientific and pedagogical staff. That is why we consider it indispensable to define the main directions of scientific research in tourism for at least a medium-term period (3-5 years), with regard to the methodological issues of tourism research. The aim of these efforts must be to use the results of tourism research for the development of knowledge, society and the economy, in which the education and qualifications of people are a determining factor.

7. Conclusion

The aim of the article was to analyse the development and trends of tourism research and education in Slovakia. Partially, In the article, the development of tourism research is partially presented from before and after socio-cultural changes in Slovakia in 1990, while trends in tourism research, according to research project and related dissertation and habilitation theses from 2010 to 2020, are evaluated.

Before 1989, tourism research in Czechoslovakia was concentrated in departmental research institutes. In the years 1970-1990, there was a Federal Research Institute of Tourism. After 1990, the existing research institutes ceased to exist. Tourism research in Slovakia has been transferred to academic institutions. This was first the Department of Tourism and Hospitality, later, another 6 university departments were established, having tourism study programmes. In addition, as evidenced by research projects funded by VEGA and related dissertations as well as habilitation theses, tourism is the object of research at other faculties with a different focus.

Current tourism research is fragmented, uncoordinated, dependent on domestic and foreign grants, and therefore – ineffective. The focus of research on the academia should be solved by scientific projects, because advisory-consulting organisations concentrate on applied research. The prestige of university departments is given by their research potential, competitiveness at home and in Europe, as well as the nature and quality of educational activities.

Therefore, our effort was to indicate the continuity of development, while being aware of the fact that without the past, there would be no present or future. What has been achieved in tourism research and education is the result of personal commitment of scientific and pedagogical academia employees, as well as the conditions that were created.

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TOWARDS A BROADER PERSPECTIVE ON TOURISM EDUCATION, RESEARCH AND PUBLICATION

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Abstract

Purpose. The aim of the study is to discuss tensions between the academic responsibilities of education, research and publication, and how these have made tourism academia increasingly inward-focused.
Method. Drawing upon approximately 50 years of personal experiences as an academic based in a faculty of environment.
Findings. Tourism research has become more and more insular, reducing opportunities to contribute to the resolution of important public debates and policy issues, undermining enhancement of the reputation of the field and those involved in it.
Research and conclusions limitations. The limitations include lack of a literature review or structured empirical research. It is concluded that tourism scholarship should be broadened and engage more with other fields and disciplines.
Practical implications. Tourism curricula should be broadened, while administrative procedures should be more flexible to facilitate the creation of greater synergies between teaching, research and publication.
Originality. In the manuscript, topics are addressed that are of great interest and often discussed informally, but are seldom put in writing.
Type of paper: An opinion piece.

Keywords: academia, teaching, research, administration, publication.

1. Introduction

It will be argued that the content of academic tourism has become excessively narrow and, rather than enhancing the reputation of tourism scholarship, it has made it less relevant than could have been the case. It has reduced the impact of the body of work that has been produced, and failed to garner the reputation craved by many of its practitioners. There are a variety of reasons for this which will be considered under the headings of education, research and publication which, in reality, are closely linked. How-

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ever, this is not a usual research paper beginning with an introduction, literature review and statement of the research questions, to be followed by a presentation of methods, findings, discussion and perhaps implications, as well as conclusions. Also, the argument is not backed up here by a plethora of references or formal empirical research, although it is acknowledged that pertinent references exist, empirical research could be undertaken, and such approaches would be worthwhile endeavours. However, they will be left for other occasions.

This paper is essentially a personal statement but, like all arguments, its value will depend ultimately on the veracity of the evidence on which it is based. For this reason, the experience of the author will be introduced briefly and his perspective on tourism scholarship will be discussed. This will allow the perspective to be bounded and permit some possible biases to be acknowledged. Then, following the main argument, some suggestions will be made concerning possible responses, although, in practice, these will vary with the jurisdiction. Thus, more space is given in this document to the diagnosis of the sickness than to the nature of the cure.

2. Personal declaration

The author has been involved in tourism academia for approximately half a century [Xie 2013]. Although now, technically retired and no longer involved in teaching courses or administration, he still reads, reviews and writes, and occasionally, on invitation, participates in planning activities, mostly in China. Born in the United Kingdom, where he was trained as a geographer, the majority of his career has been based in Canada, in a Faculty of Environment. For at least three decades he has researched mostly in Asia, initially in Indonesia and, more recently, in China, including Taiwan, where he has been heavily involved in a variety of training, project and planning initiatives.

He taught undergraduate courses in geography, primarily on resource management and recreation, and graduate courses on tourism. He supervised more than one hundred graduate dissertations, primarily on tourism. He has researched and published widely on many aspects of tourism, but his interests can be summarised in one sentence: exploring the implications of tourism of different types for destinations with different characteristics, in the belief that related insights have implications for planning and management. He has been on the editorial board of reputable academic journals in both tourism and environment, and has evaluated numerous research proposals and promotion cases. At one time or another, he sat on the promotion and tenure committees of five of the six faculties at the University of Waterloo.

While recognising that tourism is a business with considerable private sector involvements of both large and small firms, and a need for trained employees, the author makes no apologies for claiming to be primarily an academic. In this role, the most important task is to create as well as share knowledge and, on occasion, this may involve criticism of government policies and industry activities. Of course, when acting as a consultant, the requirements are different and one must accept the responsibility of addressing and, hopefully, resolving problems. These perspectives inform the views of this author and the contents of this paper.

3. Education

When the author was a student in the 1960s, there were essentially no courses on tourism that were accessible to the author, and almost no such courses were offered anywhere in the world. A small number of institutions offered hospitality training, but there was little recognition of tourism as a global phenomenon with far-reaching implications for societies, economies and environments throughout the world. Similarly, very few tourism-specific journals were published and most of the few pertinent books were business-orientated. Thus, the literature, in both English and other languages, was limited and fragmented. It was feasible to try to read all of it in the languages with which one was familiar, and there were very few conferences or other opportunities to learn from or share information with other like-minded individuals.

In the above circumstances, the courses that were taken did not focus upon tourism. In fact, the author has never actually taken a course on tourism! Perhaps it shows! At the same time, he read everything he could gather pertaining to tourism and related topics, such as leisure, recreation and parks, regardless of origin. Thus, the reading was eclectic, spanning many disciplines, topics and research methods, in search of relevant material.

On becoming a teacher, responsible for designing courses, the author did not have a template to fall back on. It was necessary to decide what was important and design a framework in which to place the parts. His initial efforts have stood the test of time and comprised the following subject matter: definitions, historical context, supply, demand, perceptions and decisions, patterns, impacts (economic, environmental and socio-cultural), and planning and management consequences [Wall, 1979; 1989]. Other courses were problem-focused. Rarely was a textbook employed. Rather, reading lists referred participants to papers from multiple and varied sources. Course participants had divergent backgrounds and took a diversity of other offerings.

Now, the situation has changed markedly. Courses and degrees in tourism are widely available, often in business faculties, but also in other disciplines. Participants can take many courses in tourism and hospitality, often to the exclusion of courses in other areas. Textbooks are now common and widely used, as copyright requirements have made legal access to multiple journal articles more difficult and, for many, more costly. Students are referred to papers, primarily in a small number of key journals, which are deemed to have high reputations and are the repository of the 'best' work. As a result, tourism education has become more inward-focused and students now engage less with other subjects and disciplines. There is a joke told about engineers that is now pertinent to many tourism graduates: Having a degree in engineering (tourism) may or may not mean you know something about engineering (tourism), but it guarantees that you know nothing about anything else!

Many of the author's students did not expect to have a career in tourism, although many did end up in tourism or related sectors. With personal interests focusing upon tourism rather than hospitality, the author's goal has been to promote education broadly conceived rather than to train people for specific jobs. A key to this has been the fostering of critical thinking. This involves providing opportunities to learn to create logical arguments, to gather and present information, to communicate orally and in writing, to read critically, to prepare literature reviews and to write reports. In these activities, tourism is the subject matter but the skills have wide applicability and are highly desired by many employers.

4. Research

Tourism competes with other potential uses for the scarce resources of land, water, labour, capital, waste assimilation capacity and so on. Thus, many challenges with respect to tourism are not solely tourism problems, but involve relationships with other activities. While it is appropriate, even natural for tourism specialists to select specific tourism topics from a wider reality for detailed exploration, it is important that, on completion, they place their findings back within a broader context so that the significance of the work can be better appreciated. At the same time, it is legitimate to begin with a broad perspective and to examine the relationships among tourism and other activities as a point of departure. In fact, many of the managers of tourist attractions, such as museums, art galleries, theatres, parks, stadiums, heritage sites, forests, wetlands, and reservoirs, may not necessarily view tourism as their primary interest and concern, and may even regard tourism as something that complicates their lives. Thus, a narrow definition of tourism and an equally narrow concern with topics that are not always highly relevant to a broader community reduce the likelihood that tourism researchers will gain insights that are of interest and relevant to others.

As an example, perhaps the most important research the author has undertaken was done with a graduate student and was, essentially, a literature review [Mathieson, Wall 1982]. It pulled together, perhaps for the first time, insights on the impacts of tourism from a variety of perspectives. It is now commonplace to discuss impacts under economic, environmental and socio-cultural headings, and this approach is fundamental to notions of sustainability but, at the time, it had some novelty, at least among the tourism community. It also drew attention to the far-reaching implications of tourism. It was a creature of its time in many ways, but was among the first books on tourism to move outside of a business orientation. The work has been revised and updated to incorporate changing concepts and ideas, such as resort cycles, ecotourism and sustainable development [Wall, Mathieson 2006].

The process of selection and subsequent definition of a research topic is seldom discussed, not even in courses on research methods, but it is fundamental to subsequent decisions on research procedures, data and analytical requirements, and the resulting utility and influence of the research. This subject will not be pursued here but is the subject of an essay for another time and place. Suffice to say that research topics can be acquired in many ways and should be sought actively. For instance, the author has long subscribed to two daily newspapers, one with a local orientation and the other with more national and international content. The author's daughter claims that this is a waste of paper since it is now all available on the Internet, but the author disagrees, for there is value in perusing regularly delivered hard copy. For decades, he has read and cut out all articles related to tourism/recreation (as well as on greenhouse gases and climate change) and kept them. It must be admitted that these clippings were seldom subsequently consulted, although they now constitute a resource for someone else to use. However, the process of reading with purpose, in the author's opinion, enables one to appreciate what concerns others in society, to select research topics of relevance, and better position one's research so that it is of more than academic interest. Partly as a result of this approach and with a broad perspective on environment, the author was among the first to address aspects of climate change from a tourism perspective, initially in the 1980s with a focus upon skiing [McBoyle, Wall 1987] and, later, on other aspects of tourism and climate change [Wall 1993; Wall, Badke 1994].

Over the years, the author was successful in many research applications, often in competitive situations. However, this funding, especially that for large amounts of money, was seldom specifically for tourism, although tourism was always a significant part of subsequent activities. The proposals promised to explore such topics as sustainability, sustainable livelihoods, cultural resilience, indigenous development, coastal zone management, biodiversity, heritage and climate change, both from the perspective of tourism or, more frequently, where tourism was one activity among a number that were putting pressure on resources, causing change and requiring simultaneous attention. This necessitated the adoption of a broader perspective not confined to tourism but it immediately made the research of interest to a wider range of people.

Similarly, consulting opportunities, even when supposedly focused upon tourism, always required engagement with a broad range of stakeholders, both with and without tourism expertise. It was assumed, from one's resume, that expertise in tourism was possessed, but it was observed that successful involvement and, therefore, a widely supported outcome, depended as much on ability to listen and learn from people with different backgrounds and perspectives, who framed problems differently. This is facilitated by breadth of perspective, rather than an overly narrow focus of attention.

5. Publication

Over the years, it has become both easier and more difficult to publish papers in academic tourism journals. It has become easier because the number of journals has proliferated exponentially so that there are more places in which to publish. This has also made it more difficult to keep up with a burgeoning literature. At the same time, the number of individuals aspiring to publish papers has increased enormously, in line with the increase in universities and the proliferation of tourism programmes. Also, for reasons of accountability, competition and quality control, the pressure on individual scholars to publish in a limited number of outlets has increased, making publication in these outlets more competitive.

This circumstance has a number of implications. It puts enormous pressure on young scholars to publish in a small number of journals, and this requirement is 'enforced' by administrators, many of whom would experience great difficulty in meeting these requirements themselves. It encourages authors to publish several shorter papers, rather than a longer paper with an extended argument, let alone a book, since this will result in better metrics for evaluation by administrators. The majority of tourism books these days are edited compilations, often with no conclusion, containing items that are unlikely to meet the rigour required for publication in the premier journals but sell well in the library market. A large number of authors is chasing a limited number of publication possibilities in top journals, and their editors and reviewers are inundated with manuscripts. It is simply not possible for all those desiring to do so to publish in the preferred outlets. This situation may change as different means of information dissemination emerge, such as open access journals and the Internet; however, this topic is outside of the area of expertise of this author as well as the scope of this communication. Furthermore, the situation varies according to discipline. For example, in computer science, where speed of dissemination is vital, the proceedings of prestigious refereed conferences may be preferred outlets, while journals may contain more discursive offerings, akin to literature reviews.

The reputation of universities, programmes and individual scholars is increasingly evaluated according to the quantity and quality of publications produced, as specified in rubrics that list expectations and evaluation mechanisms. These prescriptions reward publication in a limited number of tourism journals to the exclusion of others, and also discourage publication in the outlets of other subjects and disciplines. The author is aware of individuals whose publications in 'unlisted' but reputable journals, and books, have been discounted in annual reviews, and promotion and tenure evaluations. They have been scolded and penalised for publishing in the 'wrong' outlets.

It is perhaps inevitable that journals will differ in their reputation and it is appropriate that authors set their sights high and aspire to publish in the most prestigious outlets. These are the outlets that are consulted by their peers, although they may not be widely read by those in other disciplines, or with other roles in tourism (such as those in the tourism 'industry'). The preferred journals play an important role in establishing standards and expectations for those within tourism, but they are less successful in engaging with broader audiences or demonstrating the potentially wider relevance and implications of tourism research.

As an example, one of the most prestigious academic tourism journals describes itself as a 'social science' journal. It is eclectic in content but not sufficiently so. It has published papers that, for example, espouse systems theory, promote sustainability and resilience, and argue for interdisciplinarity. While, over the years, authors of publications in this outlet have espoused multi-, inter- and trans-disciplinary research, such papers are uncommon, perhaps reflecting and reinforcing the inward-focused tendency described above. Quantitative studies have declined in number as research fashions have changed. While the shift towards more qualitative research is to be applauded, it appears to have occurred at the expense of quantitative, mathematical or econometric papers, which are now relegated to other more specialised but less prestigious outlets. Perhaps this makes sense under circumstances in which a minority of tourism scholars have the expertise to understand them. Understandably given its mandate, environmental content is limited, and a social science journal may not the best place to publish a manuscript with strong environmental content, say on ecotourism. It has been the author's experience that tourism manuscripts with substantial environmental content may be better placed in environmental journals where they are more widely read and become rapidly incorporated into the literature. However, as described above, this option may not be preferred by administrators applying regulations mechanistically and, therefore, may not be in the long-term interest of the author. In the author's opinion, it is an affront to their academic freedom to narrow their publication options. They are free to publish where they will, but at the cost that the resulting publication will not be counted as a valuable or valid output.

6. Discussion

Based primarily on western experiences, supplemented by exposure to a variety of situations in Asia, the author has suggested above that tourism education, research and publication, have become increasingly inward-focused. Of course, the observations are constrained by the author's exposure to varied but constrained circumstances. For example, one reviewer pointed out that already in the 1960s, in the states of the so-called Eastern Bloc, tourism study programmes, primarily focused on the economic aspects of tourism and were oriented towards the needs of the labour market, reflecting state policy. At this time, research was constrained, although it was less so in Poland where there was greater academic freedom and access to Western literature was difficult. Following the socio-political change in 1989, tourism education and research were liberalised, enabling the selection of courses from a variety of fields, while tourism education and research came to be multidisciplinary in nature. Research often has a high degree of abstraction with limited practical applications, so that some of the recommendations below regarding education and research may be acceptable, and some may have even been promoted for a long time. Thus, no claim is made that the authors' observations and suggestions are universal. Rather, readers will need to assess their pertinence by reflecting upon their own circumstances and experiences.

So far, each of these topics has been considered separately, but they are, in fact, synergistic, influencing each other, resulting in a downward spiral that is becoming more and more difficult to escape [Wall 2021].

As tourism programmes have become established and formalised, which is inherently a good thing, students take more and more courses on tourism and fewer on anything else. At the same time, offerings have become increasingly specialised, and it is now possible to earn degrees in even more narrow subjects, such as ecotourism or event management. While at first sight this may appear to provide more precise and targeted qualifications, with hiring implications, it further constrains students and reduces their flexibility. It encourages them to delve more deeply but into circumscribed subject matter. Readings focus on a small number of prestigious, or specialised tourism journals that reflect the specific subject matter, and sometimes offerings in edited books all of which are electronically available. If it is not accessible on the Internet, it apparently does not exist! There is a paucity of single- or dual-authored books that present a sustained argument, in part, because most students are now not used to reading books and, in part, because of the reward system in which authors are now forced to operate.

It is natural and appropriate that researchers conduct research that can be published in the most prestigious outlets in their field. Such research is often narrowly focused and amenable to be cut into pieces for publication as papers (usually less than 10,000 words) rather than book manuscripts. The Internet has facilitated the dissemination of information and has aided the distribution of articles, which have gained greater prominence at the expense of books, the dissemination of which is more complicated.

At the time of writing, two topics consume the world: climate change and the coronavirus pandemic. Both of these topics intersect with tourism in complex ways. Tourism and travel contribute to both of these challenges. At the same time, tourism is impacted by the initiatives that are taken to address these problems. In fact, steps taken to resolve the issues may be more challenging to tourism than the direct effects themselves. Furthermore, understanding and countering the issues involve an appreciation of both the natural and the social sciences, and engagement with those of other backgrounds to both learn from them and ensure that tourism is placed in context and injected appropriately into the policy agenda. While there are a small number of tourism scholars who are able to contribute to the inter-, multi- and trans-disciplinary research agendas, many of them are not based in tourism programmes.

It was astonishing to witness the change in tourism fortunes that occurred, literally, within a few days following the onset of COVID-19. Overtourism, especially in European heritage cities, which had captured great attention, was suddenly put aside as the dearth of tourists became the cause celebre [Wall 2020]. Yogi Berra's (a noted American baseball manager) purported comment regarding a popular restaurant that "Nobody goes there anymore. It's too crowded!", suddenly became an ironic observation that is relevant to many destinations. There is nothing like the absence of tourists at a formerly crowded destination to draw attention to their importance. The reaction of more than ten tourism journals has been to call for contributions to special issues focusing on COVID-19. Perhaps this is too little, too late, and there is limited likelihood that these publications will be read extensively by those in other disciplines. The relatively small literature that already existed on extreme events, with few exceptions, largely ignored the substantial literature accumulated over half a century on hazards and disaster reduction. A crisis in education, including tourism education, has been precipitated, but this may result in retrenchment rather than greater outreach.

7. Implications

Tourism academics have long been complaining that the importance of tourism and the value of tourism research are underappreciated. The author believes that the former is less true than in the past, but the latter may be of growing importance and be partially self-generated and, as such, may be self-corrected.

With respect to education, changes can be made to the curriculum, both among and within courses, to broaden content. Students could be required to take more courses outside of their field of specialisation. They could be asked to prepare documents that require inclusion of references to materials in multiple different journals, which will encourage more broad exploration. They could be urged to think more about the relationships between tourism and other fields and disciplines (medicine, law, ecology, media, etc.; the list of possibilities is almost endless).

For most of the author's career, he has taught at a university with the largest co-op programme in the world. As a result, many students alternate on-campus education with off-campus work experiences, which has many advantages, including students' acquisition of practical experiences which they can share in the classroom. Where this is not possible, field trips can provide enriching experiences, although expense and legal liability may complicate their offering. International exchanges provide significant broadening options.

Researchers should be encouraged to develop research agendas that extend beyond individual projects. Although it is important to take advantage of opportunities, the author has long encouraged graduate students to prepare a one-page statement concerning their research interests and research direction, and to progressively shorten it so that they know what they are interested in and why. The author's own statement resulting from application of this process has already been presented in the 'Personal declaration' above. Such a statement can guide one's own activities as well as provide a synopsis that can be easily shared with others in response to such questions as "What are you actually doing?" and "Why are you doing it?".

While administrators, sometimes under the requirements of governments and professional organisations, commonly set performance requirements, it should be possible for faculty members to be permitted to make a case for the value of their own activities, to demonstrate that they have a research agenda, and that their outputs are accumulating in a meaningful way. Evaluation of research may be better undertaken biannually rather than annually, and the most critical decisions on performance and promotion should involve the input of peers from other institutions, and perhaps, from other disciplines. Publications in superior journals from other fields may be accorded as much weight as publications in one's own field – it is a significant way of demonstrating the value of one's work to a wider clientele.

The above list of possibilities merely skims the surface of what might be done and specific actions will vary from place to place, commensurate with circumstances and resources. However, the main purpose of this communication is to identify the issue, which is the precursor to finding solutions. It has been argued that depth, achieved at the expense of breadth, may be limiting.

8. Conclusions

It has been suggested that the related areas of tourism education, research and publication have become increasingly inward-focused. Paradoxically, while the motives behind this trend are laudatory, including increased professionalism and accountability, as well as reputation enhancement, it has resulted in an unnecessarily narrow approach to education, reduced the utility of tourism research, and acted to undermine the reputation of tourism scholarship. Suggestions have been made that will increase the breadth of tourism education, make tourism research more useful, and promote the reputation of the field. Tourism and education, both in tourism and more generally, are currently in crisis due to circumstances that are outside of the control of tourism academics. Nevertheless, a time of turmoil, when changes are to be expected, may provide chances to turn challenges into opportunities, and reorient academic activities and offerings in tourism.

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REVIEWS, COMMENTS, SCIENTIFIC CONTROVERSY, MEMORIES

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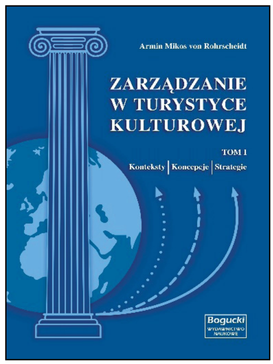
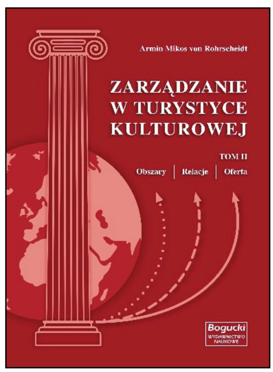
BOOK REVIEW: "MANAGEMENT IN CULTURAL TOURISM" BY ARMIN MIKOS VON ROHRSCHEIDT, BOGUCKI Scientific Publishing, Poznań 2020

Piotr Zmyślony*





In May 2020, the BOGUCKI Scientific Publishing House published a monograph titled "Management in cultural tourism" by Armin Mikos von Rohrscheidt, sound evidence of the strong management thought at the intersection of culture and tourism.

The book, divided into two volumes, is not a quick read. The first volume, *Contexts, Concepts, Strategies*, numbers 652 pages and contains 22 figures, 6 extensive tables and 22 separated case studies. It is an epistemological monograph in which the genesis, theoretical foundations, scope and management strategies in cultural tourism are presented. The other volume, *Areas, relations, offer* numbers 654 pages and contains 29 figures, 5 tables and 53 case studies. It serves as a textbook for students or even a manual for practitioners dealing with various areas of management in cultural tourism. Such a diverse audience and a combination of scientific and didactic forms pose a lot of challenges, ranging from decisions regarding the scope of the synthesis, the research methods, to the adopted language form and graphic design.

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Concept and research methods

The author argues that the book's rationale comes from a plethora of thematically fragmented analyses and narrowly defined or contextual research studies on management within the context of cultural tourism – both in Polish and international literature – which has not yet resulted in a comprehensive analysis of the subject. This view is justified both by the specificity of socio-economic relations of tourism activity in the broad area of culture and the characteristic area-specific aspects of management at various levels and organisational forms. The author identifies the knowledge gap convincingly and successfully attempts to mitigate it with reference to the Polish academic research.

Cultural tourism is a form of tourist activity and culture distribution. Therefore, the management in cultural tourism concerns strategic and organisational aspects in relation to this activity and the scope and forms of protection, interpretation and exploitation of cultural heritage. In this context, I agree with the author that the management *in* cultural tourism and not the management of cultural tourism should be analysed here. The sphere where culture regulated by the economics of the public sector's logic meets tourism in which the private property logic still prevails is both a research and management challenge. Armin Mikos von Rohrscheidt recognises the specificity of these 3 components, i.e. tourist activity, cultural activity, running a business, and goes on to explain the relationships among them. There is no doubt that management in cultural tourism is cognitively significant and constitutes a substantial as well as unexploited theory and practice area.

The author represents a humanistic management perspective. This I emphasise this fact and consider it be the key to understand the book's logic, the construction of the arguments and the research methods used. In this context, the book's subject appears to be a natural, appropriate and scientifically valuable way to describe the complexity of cultural tourism and the multifaceted nature of management activities undertaken with it. I refer it to the fundamental goals of cultural tourism, which cannot be limited only to an economic dimension, as they also concern universal values such as culture, heritage and knowledge. Although the author sometimes goes beyond the adopted humanistic perspective, the rooting of his considerations within this trend should be considered the principal value of the monograph. The author's expertise in the management of cultural tourism is conducted in a scientific and extremely reliable manner. Therefore, I have no doubt that we are dealing with a work aiming at full objectification of the presented considerations and, at the same time, with very authorial statements based on the substantive preparation and practical experience of the author, large enough to undertake the task of analysing management in cultural tourism. It is never easy – as the author admits – the management in cultural tourism cannot be easily discerned and then synthetically described.

On the basis of the literature review, the author formulates the main research problem in the form of the following question (p. 18): "what is the specificity of the contemporary management in cultural tourism as compared to (or in contrast to) other types of tourism, and what forms of its organisation are optimal, and what management activities are necessary to achieve the objective goals of cultural tourism and to achieve (subjective) satisfaction of people participating in its most frequently implemented projects, while ensuring the authenticity of the message and benefits expected by its organisers and other active stakeholders?". Despite a complicated formula, this problem reflects the essential concern behind cultural tourism management decisions and their consequences. The descriptive nature of the problem is a consequence of the humanistic management perspective. The author formulates 30 research questions. He answers all of them consistently, adopting a transparent and regular method of building subsequent chapters. The reader who may be concerned about getting lost in such a large number of questions receives a guideline to the book in the form of a table which presents the subsequent stages of the research process related to the research questions and the distribution of the study content.

The result of the theoretical study is systematised knowledge on managing organisations in contemporary cultural tourism, the relations they establish and maintain with other stakeholders, as well as the methods of managing cultural resources, organising particular types of cultural projects, programmes and products, as well as implementing and marketing them. The methodology is also a consequence of the adopted perspective regarding humanistic management. As for the considerations presented in the first volume, they are related to a cognitive nature and are descriptive and explicative. In the second volume, exploratory, postulating and optimising issues are referred to by the author. Resultantly, the book is dominated by descriptive considerations full of original concepts, postulates and recommendations. The method of critical analysis based on a non-parametric literature review dominates the whole of the monograph. The case study method is adopted complementarily, with an incomplete methodological scope, but sufficient to illustrate 75 detailed considerations as good practice examples.

Book structure and chapter content

The book structure results from the author's ambition to reach and satisfy the needs of a broad audience. The first volume is intended for tourism researchers, those specialising in culture participation and academics dealing with management. The issues are explained comprehensively and extensively in the form of 6 logically and substantively related chapters.

In the first chapter, the author distinguishes 3 areas of management in cultural tourism, i.e. management regarding cultural tourism in the strict sense, management of tourism function concerning cultural resources, and the management of cultural components in tourism. This classification is the basis for dividing the content of the entire study. The book's main assumptions concerning the classic management functions, the specificity of cultural tourism and the management subject areas are presented. The chapter focuses on the critical elements of the subject, i.e. the creation of an offer, the interpretation of heritage and external impact areas. In this context, the book's significant contribution as a monograph is to emphasise the importance of the appropriate interpretation of cultural heritage. The author considers it to be the core of every cultural tourism offer. Consequently, the role of networks for managing the tourist offer with a high level of involvement of the participants and other partners who represent various organisations or act as independent entities is presented.

In chapter 2, the entities involved in cultural tourism management and their inter-organisational relationships are exhibited. The considerations are permeated by humanistic management principles, according to which enterprises and institutions should be perceived in terms of human structures and not independent business units. For this reason, the author does not confine himself to an organisational level, but goes down to the level of people while discussing the decisions, functions and managerial competences in cultural tourism.

In chapter 3, focus is on fundamental management functions concerning cultural tourism, i.e. planning, organising, managing and controlling. The considerations referring to conflict management and crisis management which – concerning the recent developments such as overtourism, gentrification and the coronavirus pandemic – are becoming the dominant management problem in cultural tourism and in tourism overall.

Chapter 4 is the most crucial and valuable part of the first volume. In it, the concepts and theoretical approaches driving or affecting the management in cultural tourism are analysed. Due to its importance, the chapter could not be presented immediately after the first chapter. It is concluded by synthesis of the discussed approaches in the form of an integral concept of management in cultural tourism and its main components:

1. Tourist and cultural nature of the mission, strategy and offer.
2. Participation of members of the organisation, other active stakeholders of cultural tourism and residents' representatives.
3. Tourists' intensive co-creation in programme development.
4. Networking as a permanent component in the management and operation of the organisation.
5. Profitability of undertakings and their professional organisation.

6. Respecting the principles of sustainable development and ecology.
7. Adequate and beneficial use of technology.

Moreover, in this chapter, the characteristics of management strategies appropriate for cultural tourism are discussed. In the next two chapters, the author refers to the present state and future of cultural tourism. New forms of cultural tourism are characterised within the context of their features important for management. Thus, Armin Mikos von Rohrscheidt appears to be a philosopher or even a futurist. Indeed, these chapters will stimulate the reader to reflect, and in many places, to argue with the author, but every successful monograph should trigger such reactions.

The second volume is intended for students, educators and managers of cultural tourism as well as for managers of cultural attractions, tourist areas and creators of cultural programmes. In it are collected all the relevant aspects of management according to the classification set out in the second chapter of the first volume. The chapters have a modular structure based on this unified logic. In the subsequent ones, the author pays attention to management issues concerning tourist and cultural tour operators, tourist areas, cultural events, local governments, destination management organisations, eco-museums and cultural tourism attractions. Suppose a person managing any of the mentioned types of entities looks at the manual and is not discouraged by its volume. In this case, they will find many valuable tips about the stages of management or its functional elements, e.g. creating an offer, planning marketing activities and shaping business relations with other entities. Each chapter contains original recommendations within the context of selected management aspects.

I value the chapter on destination management, identifying local gaps in relation to the tourism offer and the proposed methods for capturing them. In the chapter, the methods of managing cultural routes and individual packages for cultural tourism are also presented. The considerations presented in the chapter refer to local governments' role, destination management organisations and eco-museums (these ones are relatively the least consistent). I also regard the considerations presented in the last chapter to be significant for cultural tourism. The success of the overall cultural tourism offer depends on the management quality of the tourism function at museums, sacred places, NGOs and individual attractions. This quality depends on the commitment of individuals who consider sharing cultural resources, not only in terms of the key role of these entities.

The aim and contents of the book are summarised in the conclusion part. As compared to the detailed content of the main chapters, the considerations presented in it are very condensed. The author evaluates the monograph's contribution to the theory and practice of management in cultural tourism. He also explains the limitations of the adopted research framework and outlines primary trends for future research in the management of cultural tourism.

Final remarks

There are 2 general approaches to what scientific thought and knowledge are and how they should be disseminated. The younger, but currently dominant approach, consists in creating short studies, with a high degree of generality or a detailed description of a fragment of the phenomenon to be published in journal papers. A conscious researcher creates their logical cycle. This way of thinking about creating research leads to the standardisation ofcontent form and contextual nature. It is alike an informal factory of thoughts in which specialists with a narrow specialisation are employed: they produce individual units of knowledge. The classic approach, represented by Armin Mikos von Rohrscheidt, consists in recognising and analysing a phenomenon in the form of a finished work, containing the characteristics of its causes, contexts, meaning inter-dependencies and effects. Such a study is of long-term nature, with respect to the research process. It also allows to verify a researcher's efficiency in recognising individual aspects of the phenomenon and selecting methods as well as conducting an analysis. The critical attribute of this approach is a researcher's ability to synthesise, which is recognised not only in the depth and breadth of the description of the phenomenon, but also in distributing emphasis among fundamental, essential and marginal issues. One could say that it testifies to scientific initiation; the bigger it is, the greater the ability to synthesise it correctly, simplify matters that are less unimportant and emphasise critical issues. This book is the result of a classical workshop, in which the ability to describe and the ability to conduct scientific synthesis has undoubtedly been proven.

Within this context, the scope of recipients is its limitation, i.e. the fact that it is limited only to Polish-language readers. The monograph has the potential to attract the attention of the international scientific community. I encourage the author to consider the English-language edition of the monograph, even its shortened version, or to publish a monothematic series of papers dealing with te management of cultural tourism in the international established journals.

Summarising the above remarks, I can say that *Management in Cultural Tourism* by Armin Mikos von Rohrscheidt is a unique work in terms of subject matter significance, as well as comprehensiveness of its content, the insight of analysis and research reliability. I would also like to stress the author's creative impetus and his care to reach the broadest possible audience. The book has a chance to interest researchers in economics and management studies as well as tourism and sociology of culture studies. It is embedded in the humanistic management perspective, and in it, the heritage interpretation is highlighted as the conceptual core of research and practice of management in cultural tourism.

This work may possibly become a fundamental, comprehensive study of the management in cultural tourism among cultural tourism researchers and a "milestone" concerning further research on the subject. I do not doubt that any author who researches any sphere of management in cultural tourism will feel obliged to respond to the concepts and postulates drawn by Armin Mikos von Rohrscheidt. I recommend it to researchers, students, as well as to organisers and managers of cultural tourism facilities as an original and valuable reading.

Poznań, 25 June 2020

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IN MEMORIAM: PROFESSOR PHILIP L. PEARCE (1951-2020)

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On August 11, 2020, the community of tourism researchers and academics suffered a great loss. Professor Philip L. Pearce passed away on that day. He was not only a world-renowned researcher of tourist behaviour, but also an extremely popular and respected colleague. His popularity was mainly due to his unique character traits and openness to scientific cooperation, which we personally experienced ourselves. Professor Pearce greatly contributed to the development of research and knowledge about tourism, especially in the field of psychology, but much of his work reached beyond this field too (as exemplified by projects containing accurate observations and diagnoses on the methodology of tourism research). As the Editorial Board of the journal "Folia Turistica", we were lucky and extremely proud to work with the Professor for five years, at the time when he was a member of our Scientific Council. Bearing in mind the Professor's great influence on the development of research and knowledge in tourism, as well as the high esteem and recognition he enjoyed both among us and our readers, we will try to present here his scientific achievements and the personal characteristics of this great scholar.

Professor Philip L. Pearce was born in 1951 in Adelaide, Australia, where his ancestors had arrived a hundred years earlier, as some of the first

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English and Scottish settlers in the South Australia. From his early school years, he was active and willing to compete, also in the field of sport (especially cricket). From his youth, he followed his family members' important and interesting hobby, and was involved in breeding and showing Australian Shepherd Dogs, giving him exposure to tourism. Initially, his interest in education was in literature, and young Pearce thought to become an English teacher. However, his interest in psychology also appeared fairly early, which was reflected in his undertakings and graduating with honours from the University of Adelaide in 1972. In 1973, he started working as an Associate Lecturer of Psychology at the University of South Australia, and after completing postgraduate studies in 1974, he received a research scholarship to Oxford for a doctorate in social psychology. The period in Oxford (1974-1977) turned out to be extremely significant for his further scientific career, partially due to contacts and friendships with experienced scientists, who influenced his interests and the way he conducted his research. For example, the important ones were Peter Collet – the author of an excellent book in the field of social communication, entitled *The Book of Tells* and Michael Argyle, the author of pioneering works on social skills, relationships and happiness. An important event for the Professor's future career was the invitation from Professor Jafar Jafari (the founder and editor-in-chief of "Annals of Tourism Research", established only a few years earlier, but by then, already a very prestigious journal), to the editorial cooperation with the mission of broadening the profile of the journal by adding the psychological themes and topics. The focus of Annals at that time was on sociology and anthropology. Pearce tried to promote the best work in the field of tourism psychology, collaborating closely with such eminent scholars of social research in tourism as Dean MacCannell and Erik Cohen. They, at the time, pursued research on tourism authenticity, which was close to Pearce's own interests. The crowning achievement of the Oxford period in the Professor's life and career was completing his doctoral dissertation in the field of Experimental Psychology on *The Social and Environmental Perceptions of Overseas Tourists*. In this work, supervised by Professors Peter Collett and Michael Argyle, and focusing on the social and environmental context of the phenomenon of tourism, he mainly investigated the social and environmental perceptions of overseas tourists in Europe.

Exactly after 3 years, 2 months and 14 days – as he admitted in an interview – he returned to Australia with his Ph.D. He started to work as an Associate Lecturer of Psychology at Flinders University, in the Social Psychology Department that was being established there. Two years later, he moved to James Cook University, where he worked as a Senior Lecturer of Psychology between 1983-1987. Then, from 1988 to 1989, he worked as Research Director at the National Centre for Studies in Travel & Tourism. In 1990, he became the first Foundation Professor of Tourism in Australia and returned to work at James Cook University, with which he was associated until the end of his professional career. He rightly considered it a great privilege to be awarded the title of Australia's First Tourism Professor and appreciated it very much. Undoubtedly, this had great impact on his approach to work and his views on the roles that mentors should play in the learning process. We had the opportunity to observe this personally, working with the Professor on the occasion of publishing a special issue of the journal "Folia Turistica" *Master Classes* (edited by Alejziak 2011), devoted to the role of eminent academics in the contemporary shaping of knowledge, to which we invited Professor Pearce along with other outstanding researchers and tourism theorists from around the world. Two of the authors of this article had the opportunity and pleasure to get to know the Professor better (although only via e-mail) while editing the entire issue (W. Alejziak), translating his text to Polish and preparing his academic biography (D. Ujma). Below, we present a few of the Professor's research directions, included in that special issue (Ujma 2011, p. 206):

> *He publishes widely in psychology and tourism studies journals, and his general research interests endeavour to gain a better understanding of tourist behaviour and experience. This specialist tourist behaviour research area provides a sound core to help understand tourism in general. His interests have developed in several ways. He focuses in part on why people participate in tourism and therefore conducts studies of tourist motivation. He has also developed an understanding of what tourists do on site (e.g. at theme parks, at museums, at attractions and in everyday tourist settings). Such studies consider tourists' emotional reactions, attitudes, behaviours and cross-cultural travel experiences. Additionally, his interest in tourist behaviour extends to the consequences of tourists' actions. Here, there is a concern with tourists' satisfaction and learning as well as with the sustainability of what they do, including their impact on local people and places. These interests may be seen in part as encouraging everyone to celebrate, study and enjoy the fun of well managed tourism as a part of human flourishing and wellbeing.*

Perhaps the greatest of Professor P. Pearce's contributions to our understanding of tourism is his research on conceptualising tourist behaviour. In this field, he was able to brilliantly use various concepts, methods and research techniques developed in the field of social psychology, and skilfully transpose them to the field of tourism. His research devoted to tourist motivations, tourist satisfaction, authenticity or factors determining the choice of a destination and its perception are among the most frequently cited. One of his first monographs, *The Social Psychology of Tourist Behaviour* (Pearce 1982b), published by Pergamon Press Oxford in 1982, is considered a breakthrough in the field of psychology of tourist behaviour. In the same year, the Professor published a respected article in *the Annals of Tourism Research*, in which he presented an innovative approach to researching the perception of tourist attractions, as well as factors determining their image (Pearce 1982a). In general, the already mentioned 1980s were a very intense and "fruitful" period in the Professor's career, enabled largely by two research scholarships: first, the G. Murray scholarship, which allowed him to study and conduct research in Oxford, and then, the Fulbright scholarship, which in 1981-1982 made it possible for him to work at Harvard University.

An important direction of Professor Pearce's research and his later publications was the role of tourism for broadly understood social relations, and his book – co-authored with G. Moscardo and G. Ross – *Tourism community relationships,* became the leading academic textbook in this area. An intriguing thread in Professor Pearce's research was the issue of free time and the importance of psychology within leisure studies. As a part of this thread, he published several original pieces on positive psychology, concerning well-being, happiness and good life (Pearce, Filep, Ross, 2011), as well as the relations between tourism and the broadly understood topic of humour (Pearce, Pabel 2014). In the 1990s, as one of the first investigators, Pearce initiated his research on the phenomenon of backpacking and continued with it, both independently and on various research teams. It remains a noticeable part of his academic endeavours.

In the Professor's entire opus, there are many relevant works for the development of tourism research, and it is difficult to identify the most important ones. Among them, there would probably be those published in 1988. The first is an article written by an excellent team of authors, on the methodology of tourism research, which showed various methodological nuances of such research and its rarely noticed complexity (Dann, Nash, Pearce, 1988a). The second is the book *The Ulysses factor: Evaluating visitors in tourist settings* (Pearce 1988b), published by Springer. Pearce advocates the development of research on tourist behaviour and emphasizes the central importance of experiences in the study of tourism, whilst noticing that the majority of such studies are conducted by Australian, British and American researchers.

Tourist behaviour: Themes and conceptual schemes, published in 2005 by Channel View, is one of Professor Pearce's most cited and appreciated works. In it, he presented expansion of the Travel Career Ladder (TCL) model, on which he had worked with his former Ph.D. student, Lui Lee. This theoretical model was developed and modified to the Travel Career Pattern, and work on it partially led to the *Tourist behaviour and the contemporary world* (Pearce 2011b), written in similar vein. Professor Pearce was often invited as a keynote speaker and a very active participant in various conferences, at which he willingly presented the results of his research and was a contributor in many discussions.

Professor Pearce often expressed his views on tourism education, especially at the academic/HE level. This thread appears in the article titled

Respecting the Past, Preparing for the Future: The Rise of Australian Academic Tourism Research. It was included in the project of the "Master Classes" – a special two-volume bilingual edition of the journal "*Folia Turistica*", published on the 35th anniversary of its publisher, Faculty of Tourism and Recreation at Akademia Wychowania Fizycznego (University of Physical Education) in Kraków. We had the opportunity to carefully study this piece: D. Ujma, during its translation to Polish, and W. Alejziak in the process of editing it for the needs of the journal. In this article, the Professor brilliantly outlined the conditions and circumstances regarding the rapid progression of tourism academic education in Australia, which in just a decade (starting from 1987), developed almost spectacularly. In his words (Pearce 2011a, p. 190):

> *The upgrading of the colleges of advanced education and the institutes to university status provided them not only with a new prestige but a mandate for change and a hunt for more students. Thus the old names with the common designation CAE (College of Advanced Education) – such as Hawkesbury College, Gatton College, Northern Rivers CAE, Footscray Institute, Kuring-gai CAE and Gold Coast CAE – became some of the new ones in early tourism and have since morphed or merged into substantial concerns – respectively as the University of Western Sydney, University of Queensland Gatton and Ipswich, Southern Cross University, Victoria University, University of Technology Sydney and Griffith University Gold Coast.*

In addition to presenting the Australian education system, the quoted article contains accurate directions towards factors influencing the effectiveness of tourism research. They stemmed from nearly 30 years concerning the Professor's observations of Australian tourism research, including comments on the political environment. In the paper, their genesis, conditions and prospects for further development were presented, with an indication of these factors and procedures that should be utilised by contemporary researchers from around the world to intensify tourism research. Some of the themes in the article posed quite a challenge to interpret and translate. Therefore, it was necessary to contact Philip Pearce via e-mail to discuss and digest his meaning, allowing for it to be adequately expressed in Polish. Professor Pearce responded quickly and was generous with his time and patience. He seemed genuinely enthusiastic about discussing any themes that hopefully resulted in a more accurate translation.

For his research and teaching, Professor Pearce was awarded many honorary titles. For example, in 2008, the Australian Learning and Teaching Council, recognising the Professor's strive towards excellence in both tourism research and teaching, distinguished him for his outstanding contribution to the development of tourism education. The International Studies University in China bestowed on him the title of honorary professor. Tourism studies in

China and in Asia occupied an important place in the Professor's research output. In the 21st century, it was one of the dominant directions of his publications. Cooperation with researchers from China, the Country of the Middle (中国, or Zhōng guó, which in Mandarin – the main language of China – means the Central State: a country surrounded by borders) is, in fact, an important element in Pearce's research career. This is evidenced by the relatively high number of joint publications with researchers from this country (see attached lists of publications).

Professor Pearce was a sought after editor and member of scientific councils for many prestigious journals, including: *Annals of Tourism Research* (since 1982); *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Studies* (since 1996); *Progress in Tourism and Hospitality Research* (1994-1998); *Journal of Teaching in Travel and Tourism* (since 2008); *European Journal of Tourism* (since 2008). He was also the Foundation Editor of the *Journal of Tourism Studies* (1990-2005). In 2015, he became a member of the Scientific Council of our journal – *Folia Turistica*, and remained in this position until his untimely death [1]. Professor Pearce was one of the most world-renowned tourism academics, who not only shaped the foundations of tourism studies, but also promoted it and set new directions in tourism research. The prestigious International Academy for the Study of Tourism (IAST), of which Professor Pearce was a founding member, comprised an international organisation supporting all these activities.

Professor Pearce supervised many doctoral dissertations and some of his doctoral students have joined the group of outstanding international tourism researchers. Sebastian Filep and Pierre Benckendorff are such examples, and we singled them out because they wrote an excellent article on Professor Pearce's contribution to the development of tourism research, published as a part of a special series of works on pioneers and world eminent scholars in the field of tourism (Filep and Benckendorff 2016). Such a series has been published for some time in the journal *Anatolia. An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research* and on the website of the aforementioned IAST, (http://www.tourismscholars.org/anatolia_portrait.php). In their engaging and emotional presentation of Professor Pearce's career – for he was not only a great role-model for them but, as they admit, also a friend – they quote others confirming the Professor's spe-

[1] Unfortunately, it was not meant for Philip Pearce to visit Poland and Kraków, which he announced several times in the e-mails that I (W. Alejziak) had the pleasure to exchange with him on various occasions. An example may be an exchange summarising our cooperation on the project "Master Classes", already mentioned in this article, where Professor Pearce wrote in one of the e-mails "… Wieslaw, Your courtesy and helpfulness is appreciated. Please consider that visiting Poland is on my future agenda and I will start with visiting you. Exactly when I do not know but I hope it will not be too far in the future ". Later in another e-mail, with his sense of humour he added –" ... I hope that by publishing with you I may one day get to visit Krakow!").

cial connection with his doctoral students. One of them was the Professor's long-term personal assistant, Anne Sharp, who argued that: "... Pearce could turn a crying, aimless, desperate Ph.D. student into one who was laughing and highly motivated in 10 min." (Filep, Benckendorff 2016, p. 294). S. Filep and P. Benckendorff also cite another colleague, Karen Hughes, who spoke about him in this way (Filep, Benckendorff 2016, p. 295):

> *A youthful enthusiasm for life … He relishes the thrill of solving a puzzle, problem or conundrum. He is generous with his time and expertise – always willing to discuss ideas, give advice and share resources. Philip has always been very supportive of his research students. He has been instrumental in creating a talented and cohesive network of ex-students who share his ideals and strive to emulate his innovative, thorough and insightful approaches to tourism research. He also has a great sense of humour.*

Several tourism researchers from around the world have shared similar views about Professor Pearce. The number of e-mails that reached us, as members of the TRINET network shortly after his death, was astounding. The touching farewells and memories played tribute to how great a man Professor Philip L. Pearce was. For instance, Professor Chris Ryan, the long-term editor-in-chief of *Tourism Management*, one of the journals considered to be most prestigious in the field of tourism, published the following tribute (http://www.tourismscholars.org/memoriam_pearce.php):

> *It (Professor Pearce's death – added by authors) leaves us bereft of his friendship and sense of sharing – whether it was a guest lecture on humour in tourism, showing games to our students, or sharing stories of travel and companionship. As I write these words – I realise how much I have left out. The First Tourism Professor in Australia, a Fullbright Scholar at Harvard University, a visiting professor at so many universities. For me, as for many of us, he was quite simply, our friend.*

The Channel View Publishers, who issued several of the Professor's fundamental books, shared their touching farewell shortly after his death (https://channelviewpublications.wordpress.com/2020/08/11/philip-pearce/):

> *We were shocked and saddened to hear about the sudden death of author and friend of Channel View, Philip Pearce, this week. In this post Sarah shares her memories of him. I had the pleasure of knowing Philip for many years and working with him on a number of occasions. He was a lovely, kind man and a brilliant mind. He always showed such care for those around him and all of us at Channel View appreciated his great support of the company and the enthusiasm with which he tackled his work. It was always good to see Philip at conferences – if he was presenting it was bound to be a not-to-be-missed paper […]. Channel View are proud to have published Philip's work and we're grateful and glad to have known him and worked with him for so long. We will raise a glass*

to him when we can all be together again and I will certainly specially remember him at Big Bash time and cheer on the Brisbane Heat. We are thinking of his wife, Hera, and all his family. He will be greatly missed.

Sarah, Ellie, Tommi, Anna, Laura, Flo, Alice and Rose

Professor Pearce's academic achievements are extremely rich, exceeding (in quantitative terms) several hundred publications. They are cited not only when tourism is researched from a psychological perspective, which Professor Pearce represented, but also many others (according to Google Scholar – number of citations: 22,186; H-index: 69; Index I-10: 210, as of 02 Jan. 2021). The attached list of the Professor's publications is presented in a slightly unusual format: the first part follows the list prepared by him in 2011 with regard to the aforementioned project "Master Classes" for the special edition of the journal "*Folia Turistica*" (2011, 25 (1)). The second part consists of a list generated by Google Scholar, for the period from 2011 until his death; in fact, until the end of 2020. Some articles and chapters are still forthcoming, to be published shortly. For example, Professor Richard Sharpley, in a private correspondence from 11 Jan. 2021, states the following:

Two of Philip Pearce's most recent works are chapters that he contributed to the Routledge Handbook of the Tourist Experience *(in press, Sharpley (Ed.)). In one, he revisits the concept with which he is arguably most commonly associated, namely, the travel career model, critically assessing its historical development and contemporary applications as well exploring its future contribution to understanding tourist motivation. In the other, co-authored with Zohre Mohammadi and possibly his final work, he proposes a new concept – the orchestra model – as a framework for analysing the tourist experience. Together, these chapters are evidence of his continuing enthusiasm for, and contributing to, extending knowledge and understanding of the social phenomenon that is tourism.*

Even though we certainly have not managed to include all of the Professor's works (especially those published over the last nine years), the list remains incredibly impressive. The value of these publications, his academic legacy, lies not only in their quantity, but mainly in their quality, which is most likely to be confirmed by all of us who have had the opportunity to read Professor Pearce's works.

We have lost many of the "leading lights" of tourism in the last few years and we miss them. Although they have left us, their work remains. It is up to us (the Academy) to build on their ideas and contributions.

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REVIEWERS IN THE YEAR 2020

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INFORMATION AND INSTRUCTIONS FOR AUTHORS

GENERAL INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS PREPARING ACADEMIC ARTICLES

1. The Editorial Office accepts for publication only original empirical and review papers that address tourism from interdisciplinary points of view, such as theory of tourism, cultural anthropology, philosophy, sociology, geography, law, psychology, history, economics, management, and marketing.
2. Submitting a paper for publication is construed as transferring the copyright to the Editorial Office. This means that neither the paper nor a part of it can be published in other journals or digital media without the Editorial Office's written permission.
3. The article should be prepared according to the "**Instructions for authors preparing academic articles**", found below. Otherwise, the article will be sent back to the Author(s) for correction.
4. Do not provide personal data or any other information that could enable identifying the Author(s). Instead, provide personal data in a separate **Author Form**, available on the Journal's website, and submit it together with the article.
5. The paper, together with a filled Author Form, should be submitted to the Editorial Office's e-mail address: **folia.turistica@awf.krakow.pl**.
6. The Editorial Office will not accept papers that show signs of scientific dishonesty, such as *ghostwriting and honorary (guest) authorship*, for publication. The Editorial Office will disclose any recognized cases of dishonesty; this includes informing institutions employing authors, scientific associations, etc.
7. All papers are reviewed by at least two independent reviewers (the review form is available on the Journal's website) and maintaining full anonymity. In other words, a double-blind review process will be implemented; otherwise, the reviewers are obliged to sign a declaration that there exists no conflict of interests between them and the authors of the paper. The Editorial Board will accept the paper for publication or reject it based on the reviewers' opinion. This procedure is in accordance with guidelines provided by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education.
8. The Editorial Office reserves the right to modify the style makeup of submitted papers.
9. The author of the paper will receive an electronic version of the Journal issue in which the article was published, free of charge.

Instruction for Authors Preparing Academic Articles

I. PREPARING TEXT

1. The volume of submitted papers should not exceed 20 pages of normalized manuscript, i.e., 40,000 characters (one author's sheet).
2. Text files should be created in the Word 6.0–XP editor in DOC format.
3. Page setup:
   - paper size: A4;
   - margins: all margins 2.5 cm;
   - line spacing: 1.5.
4. Title: use 14-point Times New Roman font, bold. Capitalize the entire title. Insert a 14-point line of space following the title.
5. Abstract in English: between 1500 and 2000 characters (including spaces); use 10-point Times New Roman font.
6. The abstract should comprise the following, clearly separated (presented in the form of a list) parts:
   - Puropse.
   - Method.
   - Findings.
   - Research and conclusions limitations: comment on the representativeness of your research and its potential limitations due to cultural, environmental, geographical, or other conditions.
   - Practical implications.
   - Originality: describe how your research (results and opinions) differs from other publications on the subject.
   - Type of paper: specify whether your article presents empirical research or theoretical concepts or whether it is a review, a case study, etc.
7. Key words: 3-6. Insert a 12-point line of space following the key words.
8. The paper should include elements listed below. Titles of elements may be changed if justified by content. Furthermore, especially in the case of review articles, the paper may have a more complex structure, i.e., it may comprise more elements or have a given element subdivided further (such as the Literature Review section).
   A) For empirical papers:
   - **Introduction** (subject of research, aim of the article, and justification of the aim),
   - **Literature review** (a review of Polish and foreign publications presenting the aim of the article and describing current knowledge on the subject matter),
   - **Method** (aim of empirical research, research hypotheses and questions, and a description of methodology and how the research was conducted)
   - **Results** (research results, including the answers to the research hypotheses and questions),
   - **Discussion** (a discussion of the study results in view of results obtained by other authors in Polish and foreign publications on the subject matter),
   - **Conclusions** (conclusions from the study results and their discussion, including practical implications and suggested directions for further research on the subject),
   - **References**.

   B) For review papers:
   - **Introduction** (subject of research, aim of the article, and justification of the aim),
   - **Literature review** (a review of Polish and foreign publications related to the aim of the article describing current knowledge on the subject matter),
   - **Discussion** (a discussion of current knowledge on the subject matter, including critical analysis based on Polish and foreign publications),
   - **Conclusions** (conclusions from the discussion, including its practical implications and suggested directions for further research on the subject),
   - **References**.

9. Headings of each part of the paper: use 12-point Times New Roman font, bold, centered. Number the parts with Arabic numerals. Insert a 12-point line of space following each heading.
10. Running text: use 12-point Times New Roman font and 1.5 line spacing. First line indent: 1 cm. Use tools available in the editor to format the text rather than the space bar, as using space bar makes markup and typesetting difficult.
11. Do not use the bold face, capitals, and underlining in the text. Italics should only be used for titles listed in the footnotes and the References section and for letter symbols in the running text. Insert a space after punctuation marks, not before them.
12. Use an en dash (–) to indicate breaks in a sentence and between numbers that denote close values not provided precisely (such as time periods); do not use a hyphen (-) or an em dash (—). Examples of use:
    - "Secondly – as tradition dictates – every student should wear formal attire tomorrow".
    - "The years 1914–1918, or the times of World War I, is an extremely important period in the history of Europe".
    - "Relevant information can found on pages 12–24 of the aforementioned publication".
    - Most waters in the area of Wysowa belong to the sodium-bicarbonate type and have a high concentration of carbon dioxide.
13. Footnotes can be used (sparingly) to complement the running text: use 10-point Times New Roman font with 1.0 line spacing.
14. References in the running text should be formatted according to the Harvard System (i.e., provide the last name of the author of the quoted or referenced publication, the year of publication, and the page or pages you refer to in square brackets within the running text). Do not place a comma between the name and the year. If two or more publications are referenced in the same parentheses, separate them with a semicolon.
15. The References section, located at the end of the article, should only include texts that are quoted or referred to in the article. References should be given in an alphabetical order with full bibliographic descriptions. Guidelines for and examples of bibliographic descriptions can be found in Part III of these instructions.

II. PREPARING TABLES AND ILLUSTRATIONS

1. Tables and illustrations (figures, charts, and photographs) should be included in separate files and described in detail. Mark their locations in the running text through centered titles, as in the example below:

Tab. 1. Tourist activity inhibitors
Tabela 1. Inhibitory aktywności turystycznej

2. The entire article should use the division into tables and figures (i.e., everything that is not a table, e.g. charts, diagrams, or photographs, is considered a figure). Refer to figures in the abbreviated form ("Fig.").
3. Place titles of tables above tables, and titles of figures below figures.
4. Write the titles of tables and figures in 10-point Times New Roman font.
5. Under each table/figure provide its source (using 10-point Times New Roman font).
6. Figures should be scanned at a resolution no lower than 300 DPI (optimal resolution is 600 DPI) and saved as line art files in TIFF format.
7. Charts should be created in black. Gray tints or textures are allowed.
8. Digital photographs should be saved in TIFF or JPEG format at full resolution. Do not use compression.
9. If the article includes figures, tables, etc. taken from other academic papers, the author is obliged to obtain a reprinting permission. The permission should be sent to the Editorial Office together with the article and other attachments.

III. PREPARING THE REFERENCES SECTION

1. The References section, located at the end of the article, should only include texts that are quoted or referred to in the article. References should be given in an alphabetical order with full bibliographic descriptions.
2. References to papers of different types should be prepared to according to the guidelines below. Note that all references should be provided in a single list (the division into types, found below, is meant only to provide examples of referencing different sources).
3. For two or more papers written by the same author and published in the same year, add subsequent lowercase letters to the year, as in: (2014a), (2014b), etc.
4. List Internet sources (webpages) for which the appropriate elements of a full bibliographic description cannot be provided in a separate Internet Sources section. The list should provide URL addresses of the referenced webpages in alphabetical order, described as in the following sample:
   – http://www.unwto.org/facts/eng/vision.htm (08.09.2014).
5. For articles to be published in the English issues of the Journal, provide English translations of the titles of non-English publications (in square brackets), as in the following sample:
   – Winiarski, R., Zdebski, J. (2008), *Psychologia turystyki* [*Psychology of Tourism*], Wydawnictwa Akademickie i Profesjonalne, Warszawa.

Sample references to different types of papers in the References section

A. Books:

Urry J. (2001), *The tourist gaze*, Sage, London.
McIntosh R.W., Goeldner Ch.R. (1986), *Tourism. Principles, Practices, Philosophies*, John Wiley & Sons, New York.

B. Edited books and joint publications:

Ryan C., ed., (2003), *The Tourist Experience*, Continuum, London.
Alejziak W., Winiarski R., eds. (2005), *Tourism in Scientific Research*, AWF Krakow, WSIZ Rzeszow, Krakow-Rzeszow.

C. Chapters in edited books and joint publications:

Dann G.M.S. (2002), *Theoretical issues for tourism's future development*, [in:] Pearce D.G., Butler R.W., eds., *Contemporary Issues in Tourism Development*, Routledge Advances in Tourism, International Academy for the Study of Tourism, London, New York, pp. 13-30.

D. Articles in scientific journals:

Cohen E. (1979), *A Phenomenology of Tourism Experiences*, „Sociology", Vol. 13, pp. 179–201.
Szczechowicz B. (2012), *The importance of attributes related to physical activity for the tourism product's utility*, „Journal of Sport & Tourism", Vol. 18 (3), pp. 225–249.

E. Articles in trade magazines and trade newspapers:

Benefits tourism not OK (2014), [in:] „The Economist", Nov 15th.

F. Papers without a stated authorship, including research reports and statistical yearbooks:

Tourism Trends for Europe (2006), European Travel Commission.
Tourism Highlights. 2010 Edition (2011), UNWTO.

G. Legal acts:

Act on Tourism Services, of 29 August 1997, Dz.U. of 2004, No. 223, item 2268, as amended.

H. Publications available on the Internet:

International tourism on track to end 2014 with record numbers, http://media.unwto.org/press-release/2014-12-18/international-tourism-track-end-2014-record-numbers (20.12.2014).

GENERAL INFORMATION FOR AUTHORS PREPARING ACADEMIC REVIEWS AND POLEMICS

1. Only original reviews of Polish and foreign monographs, academic articles, and handbooks, as well as other types of academic and didactic papers, such as research reports, doctoral theses, and habilitation theses, will be accepted for publication.
2. The Journal publishes reviews of papers on the theory of tourism, as well as papers that address tourism from the viewpoint of cultural anthropology, philosophy, sociology, geography, law, psychology, economics, management, marketing, and other academic fields and disciplines.
3. Submitting a paper for publication is construed as transferring the copyright to the Editorial Office. This means that neither the review nor a part of it can be published in other journals or digital media without the Editorial Office's written permission.
4. The article should be prepared according to the **"Instructions for authors preparing academic reviews and polemics"**, found below. Otherwise, the article will be sent back to the Author(s) for correction.
5. The review should be submitted to the Editorial Office's e-mail address: folia.turistica@awf.krakow.pl.
6. The Editorial Team reserves the right to modify the style makeup of submitted reviews.
7. The Author of the review will receive an electronic version of the Journal issue in which the review was published, free of charge.

Instruction for Authors Preparing Academic Reviews and Polemics

1. Text files should be created in the Word 6.0–XP editor in DOC format.
2. Page setup:
   - paper size: A4;
   - margins: all margins 2.5 cm;
   - line spacing: 1.5.
3. Name of each Author: use 12-point Times New Roman font, bold. Insert a 12-point line of space following the name(s).
4. Provide each Author's academic degree or title, affiliation (i.e. name of the institution represented by the Author, in this order: university, faculty, department, etc.), phone number, and e-mail in a footnote. Footnote formatting: use 10-point Times New Roman font and 1.0 line spacing.
5. Samples of title formatting:
   1. REVIEW OF "INTERNATIONAL TOURIST ORGANIZATIONS" BY WIESŁAW ALEJZIAK AND TOMASZ MARCINIEC.
   2. AN OPINION ABOUT "POLAND'S MARKETING STRATEGY IN THE TOURISM SECTOR FOR 2012–2020".
   3. RESPONSE TO THE OPINION…

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6. Title: use 14-point Times New Roman font, bold. Capitalize the entire title. Below the title, provide a full bibliographic reference for your article, including ISBN and the date of submission to the Editorial Board.
7. Format the titles of responses to reviews or other forms of academic polemics according to the guidelines above (e.g. Response to the Opinion…).
8. Insert a 14-point line of space following the title.
9. Headings of each part of the review (if appropriate): use 12-point Times New Roman font, bold, centered. Number the parts with Arabic numerals. Insert a 12-point line of space following each heading.

10. Running text: use 12-point Times New Roman font and 1.5 line spacing. First line indent: 1 cm. Use tools available in the editor to format the text rather than the space bar, as using space bar makes markup and typesetting difficult.
11. Do not use the bold face, capitals, and underlining in the text. Italics should only be used for titles listed in the footnotes and the References section and for letter symbols in the running text. Insert a space after punctuation marks, not before them.
12. Use an en dash (–) to indicate breaks in a sentence and between numbers that denote close values not provided precisely (such as time periods); do not use a hyphen (-) or an em dash (—). Examples of use:
    - "Secondly – as tradition dictates – every student should wear formal attire tomorrow".
    - "The years 1914–1918, or the times of World War I, is an extremely important period
    - in the history of Europe".
    - "Relevant information can found on pages 12–24 of the aforementioned publication".
    - "Most waters in the area of Wysowa belong to the sodium-bicarbonate type and have a high concentration of carbon dioxide".
13. Footnotes can be used (sparingly) to complement the running text: use 10-point Times New Roman font with 1.0 line spacing.
14. Illustrative materials (tables and figures) should be formatted according to the same guidelines as academic articles (see **"Instructions for authors preparing academic articles"**).
15. References in the running text should be formatted according to the Harvard System (i.e., provide the last name of the quoted or referenced publication, the year of publication, and the page or pages you refer to in square brackets within the running text. Do not place a comma between the name and the year. If two or more publications are referenced in the same parentheses, separate them with a semicolon.
16. The References section, located at the end of the article, should only include texts that are quoted or referred to in the review. References should be given in an alphabetical order with full bibliographic descriptions, prepared according to the same guidelines as for academic articles (see **"Instructions for authors preparing academic articles"**).

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