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LIVING IN A RURAL TOURISM DESTINATION – EXPLORING THE VIEWS OF LOCAL COMMUNITIES¹

VIVER NUM DESTINO TURÍSTICO RURAL – ANÁLISE DAS VISÕES DAS COMUNIDADES LOCAIS

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ABSTRACT/RESUMO

This paper addresses the views of the residents of two Portuguese small villages on tourism and tourists. Starting by discussing rural areas as tourism destinations, the paper aims at unveil local perceptions and attitudes regarding the impacts and the benefits of tourism activities in the communities, as well as local views on the interaction processes with tourists. Empirical evidence demonstrates that interaction, although appreciated, is not valued in the same way in the two villages, reflecting diverse stages of tourism development. However, perceptions on the impacts and main beneficiaries of tourism activities are quite similar in the two communities, following the main findings of literature regarding residents' attitudes towards rural tourism and demonstrating a clear valorisation of the economic and social over the environmental impacts. In the same sense, local residents identify the main beneficiaries of tourism positive economic impacts with the agents related to the supply of tourism activities.

Este artigo analisa as visões que têm os residentes em duas pequenas aldeias portuguesas acerca do turismo e dos turistas. A partir de uma reflexão sobre as zonas rurais como destinos turísticos, este trabalho tem por objetivo revelar as perceções e atitudes relativamente aos impactos e benefícios das atividades turísticas nas comunidades locais, bem como conhecer as visões dos residentes sobre os processos de interação com os turistas. A evidência empírica demonstra que essa interação, ainda que genericamente apreciada, não é valorizada do mesmo modo nas duas aldeias analisadas, refletindo diferentes fases de desenvolvimento do turismo. No entanto, as perceções acerca dos impactos e benefícios das atividades turísticas são muito semelhantes nas duas comunidades, seguindo de perto as conclusões evidenciadas neste domínio pelos estudos acerca das atitudes dos residentes face ao turismo rural e demonstrando uma valorização clara dos impactos económicos e sociais sobre os efeitos ambientais. Na

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Keywords: Local Inhabitants' Attitudes; Rural Tourism; Social Interactions; Tourism Impacts

JEL Codes: L83, Z13

1. INTRODUCTION

Rural areas all over Europe and particularly in more remote regions are gradually losing their traditional productive function and being converted in consumption spaces, particularly for recreation, leisure and tourism activities. These transformations occur in a context that can be characterized as dominated by dynamic and far-reaching global relations, which make even the most remote village of Europe a potential spot of interest and interaction with a particular type of 'urban species': the rural tourist, frequently living in a metropolitan area and dreaming of the 'lost rural paradise' (e.g. Figueiredo, Kastenholz, & Lima, 2013). Central elements in the consumption of rural areas as tourism destinations are the environmental and natural perceived qualities of the rural, as well as their cultural traditions and idealized ways of life.

Rural inhabitants tend to progressively adapt to the demands and the needs of the rural tourists, commodifying rural areas and rurality and trying to find alternative sources of income and local development. In fact, when assessing rural residents' attitudes towards tourism activities, economic positive effects consistently stand out as the main positive impacts perceived.

Although there is an abundant literature regarding the need to explore and to understand the residents views and perceptions on tourism related impacts and beneficiaries and the correspondence between perceptions and attitudes regarding tourism, it is not so frequent to relate those views and perceptions with other dimensions that are part of the living in a rural tourism destination: the valorisation of social interactions with tourists and the place attachment and nostalgia dimensions as relevant variables in shaping local inhabitants views regarding tourism activities. This paper, based on previous (and preliminary) findings (Kastenholz, Eusébio, Carneiro, & Figueiredo, 2013), aims to shed further light on these dimensions as well as on the way they interact to form the perceptions of local communities regarding tourism activities.

Based on the empirical evidence produced through a survey conducted to the residents in two small Portuguese Villages – Janeiro de Cima and Linhares da Beira – (N=170), this paper aims to discuss their views on tourism activities, particularly regarding interaction with tourists; economic, cultural and environmental impacts as well as the main beneficiaries perceived.

mesma linha, os residentes locais identificam como principais beneficiários dos impactos positivos do turismo os agentes diretamente relacionados com a oferta de atividades turísticas.

Palavras-chave: Atitudes dos Habitantes Locais; Impactos do Turismo; Interações Sociais; Turismo Rural.

Códigos JEL: L83, Z13

2. RURAL AREAS AS TOURISM DESTINATIONS

Rural areas all over Europe, but particularly in remote or marginal regions, underwent over the past decades major, and well documented, changes mainly due to the loss of their productive character (e.g. Figueiredo, 2003; Shucksmith, Cameron, & Merridew, 2006). Although diverse in character and in scope in different rural contexts, these transformations are related to the main changes occurred in agriculture (Cloke, 2006; Halfacree, 2006; Figueiredo, 2008; Oliveira Baptista, 2006). The loss of relevance, both in social and economic terms, of the traditional productive function of rural contexts conducted to a representation and identification, in social and institutional terms, of the rural as multifunctional space in which tourism and leisure activities possess a major expression.

Rural areas continuously acquire new functions and social meanings, rendering them as places of/for consumption. Particularly in remote rural areas, consumption-oriented practices are gaining terrain, performed by urban populations that possess a general idyllic vision on the rural and on its qualities. Some features of rural areas are rather central in these processes of demand and consumption: the representations of idealized ways of life; the perceived environmental qualities; the preservation of traditional landscapes, the genuine architectural characteristics and the authenticity of food productions (e.g. Crouch, 2006; Bell, 2006; Figueiredo, 2009; Figueiredo et al., in press; Halfacree, 2007).

This *rural idyll* is one of the factors attracting visitors to rural territories, but also other motivations of rural tourists have been identified, actually suggesting a heterogenous rural tourist market (Kastenholz, 2004; Frochot, 2005; Molera & Albaladejo, 2007; Sidali & Schulze, 2010; Park & Yoon, 2009): closeness to nature stands out as a dominant theme, for relaxation, recreation, wellness, sports or genuine nature experience; socialization (with family and friends) in a distinct environment is relevant for some, while a general interest in exploring a region, searching culture and novelty attracts others. The contrast to mass and standardized forms of tourism – small scale, personalized contacts, traditional environments and community structures, frequently accessible through family run rural tourism accommodation units – is also often stressed as a main attractor of rural tourism (Cawley & Gillmore, 2008; Lane, 1994; Kastenholz & Sparrer, 2009). According to Clemenson and Lane (1997) rural tourism may actually be considered a series of niche activi-

ties within a larger niche activity (e.g. eco-tourism, nature tourism, agri-tourism, wellness, adventure, food & wine tourism), resulting in a complex, multi-faceted sector, with large diversity of both tourist motivations and territorial/entrepreneurial offerings (Lane, 2009).

Global market trends reveal increasing demand for different holiday experiences, in different settings and with distinct themes and activities, experiences that are unique, involving and memorable and that address concerns about the “authentic”, health and environment, demands that rural territories must increasingly consider when yielding sustainable tourism development (Chambers, 2009; Kastenholz, Carneiro, & Marques et al., 2012; Lane, 2009). The integration of the rural community into these experiences may play a central role, since they may not only provide a comforting, appreciated welcoming atmosphere, but hosts may function as “cultural brokers” helping tourists to better understand and, to a certain extent, get integrated into local community (Cohen, 1988), i.e. live more “authentic” and meaningful experiences, as found in a prior qualitative study on the rural tourist experience in the two villages (Kastenholz et al., 2013).

3. ATTITUDES OF RURAL INHABITANTS TOWARDS TOURISM

Tourism is among the new functions of rural areas, being considered an activity which can contribute to local development. Tourism has in fact, as extensively studied (e.g. Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996), relevant impacts on local communities and generally leads to high involvement of residents and produces positive and negative attitudes closely related with its impacts.

Since the seminal work of Doxey (1975) and his proposal of the *irritation index* (Irridex) and of Butler (1980) of the *life cycle model of a tourism destination*, that tourism literature has dealt with the need to study and explain residents attitudes and behaviours regarding tourists and tourism activities. Kuvan and Akan (2005) point out that there are different types of residents within a community and consequently diverse types of attitudes regarding tourism, dependent of both intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Among the first, economic dependency on tourism activities seems to emerge as an important factor to explain positive attitudes of residents towards tourism activities and tourism development on their communities.

Ap and Crompton (1998) and Perdue, Long & Allen (1987) also conclude that the perception of the outcomes of tourism activities in a local community is the more relevant factor when predicting residents' attitudes. Impacts of tourism activities have been generally divided in three main categories: economic, environmental and socio-cultural.

In terms of social and cultural impacts, literature suggests the decline in traditions, materialism, increasing crime rates, social conflicts and crowding as being the most significant negative effects (Brunt & Courtney, 1999; Andereck, Valentine, Knopf, & Vogt, 2005). As positive effects, the im-

provement of services within the communities, additional recreation and cultural facilities and encouragement of cultural activities and traditional arts and innovation are the most referred to.

Regarding environmental impacts, rural tourism activities often occur in fragile environments and in communities less prepared to face its potential negative impacts. Andereck (1995) point out air, water and noise pollution, as well as wildlife destruction, damages in natural habitats and geological formations and deforestation, as the more common environmental negative impacts. As positive ones, the preservation of landscapes and natural areas, as well as natural resources seems to be the most significant.

As suggested before, tourism may play a significant role for the economic development of rural contexts, due to the effective economic impacts and to the potentially large multiplier effects. It is to be expected that, in face of major positive economic impacts, residents will develop also positive attitudes regarding tourism and conversely, when tourism impacts are negative and not perceived as benefiting the overall community, inhabitants tend to adopt negative attitudes and behaviours. In many remote rural contexts the connection between tourism and local development has proved to be relatively faint (Ribeiro & Marques, 2002; Pato, 2012), mainly due to the fact that the potential benefits of rural tourism (which is often a small-scale, family based activity) are generally limited to a few sectors or social groups, therefore not creating well paid jobs and not contributing to enhance the quality of life and generating social inequalities. Despite these aspects, and the diversity we may find accordingly to diverse rural contexts, literature suggests that, in general, local communities are prone to embrace rural tourism initiatives in their communities, in a very positive manner.

4. METHODOLOGY AND CASE STUDIES

A case study approach was adopted here to allow deeper understanding of a “contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context” (Yin, 2003, p. 13), in this case the residents' views on tourism activities, particularly regarding interaction with tourists; economic, cultural and environmental impacts as well as beneficiaries perceived. To understand those visions, a survey was conducted in two Portuguese villages, between June and December 2012, by trained research assistants and researchers of the ORTE Project's team. Data was inserted in a SPSS database, permitting descriptive and inferential analysis. The survey was applied to a sample of the population in both villages, using a *quota* sampling technique based on age and gender criteria. 37% of the total population aged over 15 years old was surveyed in Janeiro de Cima (100 out of a total of 271) and 30% in Linhares da Beira (70 out of a total of 233), resulting on 170 valid questionnaires.

The questionnaire was designed in order to respond to the project main aims. Besides one section devoted to the information regarding the respondents profile and the level

of nostalgia and place attachment, the questionnaire also included sections dealing with the interactions between residents and tourists; residents' perceptions on the economic, environmental and socio-cultural impacts of tourism as well as on the views on benefits and main beneficiaries of tourism activities.

Janeiro de Cima and Linhares da Beira are located in the Central Region of Portugal (Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. LOCATION OF THE VILLAGES



These villages were selected based on several criteria (existing tourism accommodation, attractions, tourism demand and diversity of tourism products and resources and the fact of being located in a remote region). Linhares da Beira and Janeiro de Cima are two villages with about 300 inhabitants (INE, 2011), sharing many demographic, social and economic features with other rural settlements of the country's hinterland, such as population ageing (Kastenholz et al., 2013).

Linhares, with his typical granite houses, narrow streets and an impressive medieval castle, became in 1994 part of the network *Historical Villages of Portugal*. Situated in heart of the *Serra da Estrela* mountain (and Natural Park), it shows good natural conditions, altitude and climate for a radical sport – paragliding. According to official statistics, this historical village receives more than 10.000 visitors a year (AHP, 2010). The village offers a tourism information office (in his castle), and four active official lodging units, and even two restaurants, a bar and a craft shop.

Janeiro de Cima integrates the *Schist Villages Network* (since 2004) because of his constructions made with a local stone, schist, but also because of his rich traditions, like the linen articles that can be seen in the Casa das Tecedeiras (weaver's house with multiple functions: museum, tea room, and shop, and a place of weaving activity and training for residents) and because it offers two official rural tourism units, a restaurant, a bar, a pub (ADXTUR, 2013). It lies on the banks of the river Zêzere, very popular in the summer, particularly because of the river beach. There are no official statistics regarding visitors. However, the parish

is sure that during the weekends in August the population almost duplicates, mainly due to the large number of residential tourists and those visiting friends and relatives.

5. LIVING IN A RURAL TOURISM DESTINATION – RESULTS

As mentioned before, the survey was undertaken with 170 residents, 70 from Linhares da Beira (LB) and 100 from Janeiro de Cima (JC). The profile of the residents in the sample is summarized in Table 1. Women are slightly more present in this sample than men, corresponding to the real population's distribution (55%), most respondents are older than 40 years (78%), and possess low levels of education (67% basic education; 15% even no formal education). Most respondents are retired (50%) and only 30% employed (in the construction industry, tourism, agriculture and others). Most of the respondents had lived some time outside the village (75%), particularly in urban areas (81%) and many had lived abroad (56%). The main reasons indicated to leave the village were: seeking for better life conditions (36%) and professional reasons (28%). This profile is similar in the two villages.

TABLE 1. PROFILE OF THE RESIDENTS

	Total		LB		JC	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Gender						
Male	76	44.71	31	44.29	45	45.00
Female	94	55.29	39	55.71	55	55.00
Age						
18 – 20	9	5.29	6	8.57	3	3.00
21 - 40	28	16.47	11	15.71	17	17.00
41 – 64	60	35.29	25	35.71	35	35.00
≥ 65	73	42.94	28	40.00	45	45.00
Education level						
No formal education	30	15.15	9	11.54	21	17.50
First level	103	52.02	40	51.28	63	52.50
Secondary education	46	23.23	18	23.08	28	23.33
Upper secondary and superior	19	9.60	11	14.10	8	6.67
Economic status						
Retired	84	49.70	30	42.86	54	54.55
Employed	50	29.59	24	34.29	26	26.26
Other	35	20.71	16	22.86	19	19.19
Lived outside the village						
No	43	25.00	21	30.00	22	22.00
Yes	127	75.00	49	70.00	78	78.00

Table 2 summarizes the respondents' positions about tourism and development policies, levels of place attachment and nostalgia.

TABLE 2. ATTITUDES TOWARDS TOURISM, NOSTALGIA AND PLACE ATTACHMENT

	Mean		
	2 villages	LB	JC
Attitudes regarding tourism			
I support tourism development in my village	4.42		
Overall, I am in favor of tourism in my village	4.20		
In this village there is a lack of training in tourism	3.51		
I like to get involved in issues related to tourism development	3.15		
I know and seek information about tourism policies for this village	2.81		
The State must take measures to support preservation of natural resources, which are very important for tourism	4.61		
Place attachment			
I feel very attached to this place and the people here	4.67		
I identify strongly with this place	4.65		
This place means a great deal to me	4.64		
This place is very special to me	4.64	4.51	4.74 *
I miss this place when I'm not here	4.48	4.25	4.65 *
I'd rather be here than in any other place	4.34		
No other place can be compared to my village	4.27		
Nostalgia			
This place reminds me of my roots	4.61		
This place brings back memories of good times in the past	4.50		
Seasonal impacts			
It would be nice to have more visitors during the low season (e.g. in winter)	4.34		
It is the best to have only a few months with many visitors and the others quiet and peaceful	2.60		
It would be nice to have fewer visitors in high season (e.g. in the summer)	1.98		

* t-test revealing a difference that is significant at the 0.05 level.

Likert items use a scale of 1–5 (in which 5 stands for “fully agree” and 1 for “do not agree at all”).

The highest values of means, in the comparisons between groups, are highlighted in bold

Results demonstrate that the inhabitants inquired express satisfaction with tourism and support its development in their villages. Residents do like tourists coming all year around and express the desire for more tourist flows in the low season. In this respect, they expect that institutional agencies preserve natural resources as important tourist attractions, recognize, however, the lack of training in tourism, but also admit that they do not really look for

information on tourism development policies, being only moderately involved. Residents further reveal high levels of place attachment, with this attachment being stronger in Janeiro de Cima than in Linhares. Residents generally confirm that the village and its people are significant and special to them, making them nostalgically remember their roots.

Table 3 shows residents' perceptions regarding tourism impacts in their village.

TABLE 3. PERCEPTION OF TOURISM IMPACTS

	Mean		
	2 villages	LB	JC
Environment impacts			
Tourism in the village leads to increased local traffic	3.79	4.09	3.57 *
Tourism helps preserve natural resources (e.g. river, forest, mountains, fields)	3.74	3.34	4.03 *
Tourism contributes to creating sports areas, ATMs, roads, gardens, sanitation, etc.	3.22		
Tourism leads to an increased level of noise	2.82	3.30	2.48 *
Tourism leads to an increase in waste and pollution (e.g. air, water, etc.)	2.46	2.87	2.15 *
Tourism spoils the landscape and local nature	1.71	1.88	1.59 *
Tourism in the village should be avoided, to better preserve this site	1.48		

(continuation)

	Mean		
	2 villages	LB	JC
Economic impacts			
Tourism makes the economy grow because of the money that visitors spend here	4.05	3.80	4.23 *
Tourism helps create new local businesses (e.g. cafes, craft shops, etc.)	3.92		
Tourism brings benefits to only a few people	3.70		
Tourism helps improve the quality of commercial establishments	3.65		
Tourism brings more positive than negative economic impacts	3.63		
Tourism provides jobs for local residents	2.96		
Tourism increases price of properties, making it difficult to keep families here	2.61		
Tourism contributes to emigrants returning to their homeland	2.60		
Tourism helps create jobs especially for outsiders	2.42		
Tourism stimulates agricultural development	2.24		
Tourism leads to increases in the local price of some goods and services	2.15		
Social impacts			
I would like to see an increase in the number of tourists in my village	4.52		
In this locality, tourism helps to decrease the isolation	4.40		
Tourism makes local residents feel more proud of their village	4.40		
I wish this place was better known / more famous	4.36		
Tourism provides an incentive for the restoration of historical buildings	4.30	4.04	4.47 *
My village would be a dull place if tourists did not visit the village	4.08	4.32	3.92 *
Tourism takes tourists to learn the local culture / traditions	3.85		
Tourism brings more good things than bad to the local culture	3.78		
Tourism helps keeping the traditions, way of life, local arts and trades alive	3.75	3.48	3.95 *
Tourism helps attracting outsiders to come here to live	3.70		
Tourism contributes to increase respect for other cultures	3.52		
Tourism makes us learn new things	3.47	3.23	3.64 *
Tourism helps us to learn about different cultures with visitors	3.46	3.28	3.59 *
Tourism causes increase festivities / local animation	3.35		
Tourism contributes to keep the population here	2.92		
Tourism unites the community and encourages people to work together	2.58	2.19	2.86 *
Tourism contributes to bringing people who misbehave (e.g. noise, trash)	2.09	2.37	1.88 *
I do not usually notice tourists around my village	2.00	1.71	2.20 *
Tourism contributes to increase the stress of residents	1.98	2.32	1.74 *
Tourism increases the consumption of alcohol and drugs	1.89		
Tourism caused changes in our traditional culture	1.88		
Tourism disturbs the local calm and tranquillity	1.83		
Tourism contributes to change some habits of families	1.83		
Tourism causes the locals to spend less time with family and friends	1.73		
Tourism makes typical products more false	1.69		
Tourism brings more crime (e.g. theft, vandalism, etc.)	1.52		
Tourism disturbs religious practices / festivities	1.40		

* t-test revealing a difference that is significant at the 0.05 level

Likert items use a scale of 1-5 (in which 5 stands for "fully agree" and 1 for "do not agree at all")

The highest values of means, in the comparisons between groups, are highlighted in bold

As shown in Table 3, the seasonal impacts are the first mentioned in the list of tourism impacts. Negative environmental impacts are hardly perceived, however being stronger (event though not too relevant globally) in the case of Linhares, where people refer particularly traffic and noise pollution. Generally the economic impacts are considered

positive, particularly regarding the income generated by the presence of tourists and the business opportunities. Despite this recognition of tourism as having positive economic impacts, residents also recognize that the economic positive effects are only felt by few people within the communities, particularly directly related with tourism activities. It is inter-

esting to note that economic impacts regarding job creation and especially agriculture are not as much recognized.

In terms of socio-cultural impacts, residents express a positive view on tourism and tourists, mainly related to the opportunity to break the village isolation; the enjoyment of a lively atmosphere as well as the opportunity to cultural interchange and learning. Tourism is also seen as increasing residents' pride in the communities they live in, fostering at the same time place attachment and identity and helping to preserve local culture and traditions. Despite these findings, and although they still consider worthwhile living in a rural tourism destination, residents tend to recommend the village more as a place to visit (mean of 4.90) than for a place to live (mean of 4.33).

Shortly, tourism is particularly recognized for its social positive impacts, while negative social impacts are hardly felt, eventually a bit more in Linhares than in Janeiro, though, where some feel stressed by tourism.

The type of interaction with tourists is shown in Table 4. This interaction with tourists is more likely to occur when giving information and socializing in daily contexts, than in contexts of closer relationships (in their homes and with their family). So, interaction typically occurs in the street, in restaurants, cafes and in events. As shown in previous works (Figueiredo et al., 2013; Kastenholtz et al., 2013) local population value interaction with tourists in a generally positive manner, however the contacts are frequently superficial. As shown in the studies mentioned, residents of Janeiro de Cima assume their role as hosts with more conviction than those of Linhares da Beira, similarly presenting a generally more positive view on tourism and its impacts on local economy.

Table 5 shows the views of local residents on the main beneficiaries of tourism and Table 6 who they think should benefit from tourism.

TABLE 4. INTERACTION WITH TOURISTS

	Mean		
	2 villages	LB	JC
Frequency of occurrence each one of the following situations:			
I have given information about the village to visitors	3.53		
I like to socialize with visitors	3.44		
I feel comfortable when a visitor speaks to me and I try to respond, even if not in my language	3.22		
I socialize with visitors when they buy tourism products	2.50		
I have practiced sports / leisure activities with visitors	1.69		
I have invited visitors to participate in my meals and family celebrations	1.59		
I have invited visitors to come to my home	1.55		
Frequency of contact with visitors			
On the street, when a visitor asks information	3.69	3.89	3.54 *
In restaurants and cafes	2.71		
In religious, cultural and sports events	2.71		
In commerce (e.g. grocery)	2.70	2.41	2.88 *
In the workplace	2.64		
In monuments	2.18		
In bars and pubs	2.16		

* t-test revealing a difference that is significant at the 0.05 level.

Likert items use a scale of 1-5 (in which 5 stands for "always" and 1 for "never").

The highest values of means, in the comparisons between groups, are highlighted in bold.

TABLE 5. WHO ARE THE MAIN BENEFICIARIES OF TOURISM

	Mean		
	2 villages	LB	JC
The owners of hotels and other accommodation	4.05		
The owners of restaurants, cafes and bars	3.98		
The owners of craft shops	3.89	3.67	4.03 *
The owners of other commerce (e.g. grocery, stationery)	3.84		
Population	2.68		
Farmers	1.89		

* t-test revealing a difference that is significant at the 0.05 level

Likert items use a scale of 1-5 (in which 5 stands for "very" and 1 for "nothing")

The highest values of means, in the comparisons between groups, are highlighted in bold

TABLE 6. WHO SHOULD BENEFIT FROM TOURISM

	2 villages		LB		JC	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Population	43	29.66	23	33.82	20	25.97
Farmers	40	27.59	22	32.35	18	23.38
Commerce	27	18.62	7	10.29	20	25.97
Everyone	21	14.48	8	11.76	13	16.88
Others	9	6.21	4	5.88	5	6.49
The owners of restaurants, cafes and bars	4	2.76	3	4.41	1	1.30
The owners of hotels and other accommodation	1	0.69	1	1.47	0	0.00
Total	145	100.00	68	100.00	77	100.00

As previously mentioned, it is clear that the residents consider that the owners of accommodation, restaurants, cafes, craft shops and commercial establishments benefit more with tourism than farmers and the general population. For 58% of the respondents, farmers and general population should have more benefits from tourism activities.

Table 7 shows the perceptions of residents regarding their own contribution to improve tourism in their communities. Data confirms the pride they possess in their

villages and the attachment to it. In fact, residents state that they *'talk about the village everywhere they go'*. Other contributions are expressed in the efforts to maintain and to preserve the environmental and cultural characteristics of the villages and its surroundings and to give tourists information about local aspects, particularly on the historical facts and on cultural traditions. It is worth of notice that in Janeiro de Cima the population seems to engage more in a joint effort to make visitors feel welcome.

TABLE 7. HOW THE POPULATION CONTRIBUTES TO IMPROVE TOURISM

	Mean		
	2 villages	LB	JC
The residents talk about the village everywhere they go	4.48		
The residents keep the village clean and preserved	4.29		
The population takes care of the landscape and nature spaces	4.25		
The population maintains the village's traditions and festivities	4.23		
The population provides visitors with information on the village's history and legends	3.96		
The population makes visitors familiar with the place and helps them enjoy it	3.84	3.63	3.98 *
The population involves visitors in local traditions and festivities	3.50	3.18	3.73 *
The population unites efforts to create activities for visitors	2.25	1.81	2.57 *

* t-test revealing a difference that is significant at the 0.05 level

Likert items use a scale of 1-5 (in which 5 stands for "essential contribution" and 1 for "no contribution")

The highest values of means, in the comparisons between groups, are highlighted in bold

6. CONCLUSION

In this paper we explored some dimensions of the views of the inhabitants of two small Portuguese villages – Linhares da Beira and Janeiro de Cima – on tourism's cultural, environmental and economic impacts and main beneficiaries, as well as their perceptions about host-guest interaction.

Rural areas have acquired new functions in consequence of the declining relevance of agricultural activities in social and economical terms; many of them (particularly the more remote ones) lost their productive character and are increasingly being transformed into places for consumption or to be consumed, mainly through tourism and

leisure related activities (Figueiredo, 2009; Halfacree, 2007). Rural areas are increasingly visited and consumed by urban populations attracted by their idyllic, sometimes idealized, characteristics and by the products they may offer.

As previously discussed, tourism is among the new functions of rural areas and may contribute to foster local development, local inhabitants' self-esteem, pride and even to reinforce local identity and place attachment. Tourism has both positive and negative impacts on rural communities (Andereck, 1995; Haralambopoulos & Pizam, 1996) and may cause diverse types of attitudes among local residents, depending on socio-demographic variables, as well as on the impacts perceived. Economic dependency on tourism activities seem to be amongst the more relevant variables to

explain positive attitudes and support for tourism development in local communities (Kuvan & Akan, 2005).

Empirical evidence discussed in the previous section demonstrates that residents in both villages have, in general, a positive attitude towards tourism and tourists, particularly valuing social interaction with tourists and the economic impacts and main beneficiaries of tourism activities, reinforcing the main findings of the literature in this domain (Ap & Crompton, 1998; Perdue et al., 1987). The main economic impacts identified are related with the income generated by tourists and the business opportunities. However the distribution of economic positive effects is seen as uneven, excluding farmers and the general population. The main beneficiaries of tourism activities identified by the inquired are the ones directly involved in those activities.

The positive attitudes towards tourism and the population's engagement in making visitors feel welcome is more pronounced in Janeiro de Cima than in Linhares da Beira, which may be linked to the fact that in the first village the tourism phenomenon is relatively more recent and less massified, with tourists tending to stay longer, while in Linhares residents may already be more saturated with the sometimes rather massified presence of people just coming to visit the castle, take photos and quickly leave afterwards.

Environmental impacts in both villages are hardly perceived as negative. On the contrary, tourism activities are considered as a way to foster the preservation of natural resources, landscapes and the environment. The same can be said about cultural and social impacts which are perceived as very positive in both villages. In fact, local population seems to value interaction with tourists in a very positive manner, despite the superficiality of the contacts established (mainly occurring in public places and when giving information to tourists).

Tourism is also seen as an opportunity to break the villages' isolation and to enjoy a lively atmosphere, through the possibility it opens of meeting diverse types of people and to learn on other cultures and ways of life, which is in line with the findings, among others, of Andereck et al. (2005) and largely confirms a prior qualitative approach studying social interaction in the villages (Kastenholz et al., 2013). At the same time, through tourism, local inhabitants often feel a boost in their self-esteem, pride and sense of belonging to a special place.

Although the majority of the respondents consider their villages mainly as places to be visited, they are also strongly attached to their local communities and proud to live in a rural tourism destination. For the reasons mentioned, tourism also plays an important role in these perceptions and feelings. In this sense, it seems relevant that the planning of tourism activities in a rural destination takes into account the perceptions, attitudes and feelings of local population, since this would contribute to the sustainable development of local communities as well as to the creation of integrated and rewarded tourism experiences, as we argue in previous works (Kastenholz et al., 2013). At the same time, the consideration of the views and perceptions of local inhabitants

when planning rural tourism activities may contribute to improve their involvement in those activities, consequently reducing the perception of inequalities regarding the impacts and the beneficiaries in the communities. Further research is clearly needed in this domain in order to inform tourism development strategies and initiatives.

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TOURISM AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT OF RURAL DESTINATIONS: A STAKEHOLDERS' VIEW¹

TURISMO E DESENVOLVIMENTO SUSTENTÁVEL DE DESTINOS RURAIS: UMA VISÃO DOS *STAKEHOLDERS*

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ABSTRACT/RESUMO

The topic of sustainable development has become an increasingly popular field of research since the late 1980s, as a result of the report *Our Common Future*, which suggests the satisfaction of the current generation's needs without affecting those of future generations. Rural tourism has been identified as potentially contributing to sustainable development, guaranteeing the satisfaction of all stakeholders, both from the demand and supply side, without jeopardizing natural, cultural and social resources. However, there is empirical evidence pointing at a relatively modest role of rural tourism as a development tool, with this potential depending on several factors. It is in this context that the present paper analyses the views of several stakeholders of rural tourism in the Portuguese schist village *Janeiro de Cima* (visitors, residents, private sector supply agents, and local and regional tourism planning entities), regarding the tourism phenomenon in the village and its implications on sustainable development. These views were obtained through a qualitative approach, in-

A temática do desenvolvimento sustentável aumentou a sua popularidade, como área de investigação, desde finais de 1980, em resultado da publicação do relatório *O Nosso Futuro Comum*, o qual sugere um modelo de desenvolvimento que satisfaça as necessidades das gerações atuais sem comprometer a capacidade das gerações futuras para satisfazerem as suas próprias necessidades. O turismo rural tem sido identificado como um tipo de turismo que poderá contribuir para o desenvolvimento sustentável dos destinos, garantindo a satisfação de todos os *stakeholders*, tanto do lado da procura como do lado da oferta, sem comprometer os recursos naturais, culturais e sociais dos destinos. No entanto, algumas evidências empíricas que têm sido publicadas revelam que o turismo rural, muitas vezes, tem um papel relativamente modesto como instrumento de desenvolvimento, em consequência de um conjunto de fatores. Neste contexto, este artigo analisa as perceções dos vários *stakeholders* (visitantes, residentes, agentes da oferta do setor privado e entidades responsáveis pelo planeamento do

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interviewing stakeholder groups, in the context of a larger three year research project, financed by FCT, analysing the overall rural tourism experience and its potential for sustainable tourism development at the village scale.

Keywords: Rural Tourism, Sustainable Development, Local Communities, Stakeholders, Schist Villages, Portugal

JEL Code: Q01, R58

1. INTRODUCTION

Tourism may be considered a development tool in which sustainable development principles should be used. Nowadays, after the publication of the Brundtland Commissions' report *Our Common Future* in 1987 (WCED, 1987), the idea of sustainability is widespread, also being transferred to tourism (Saarinen, 2006). However, for tourism to be sustainable, it needs to protect local culture, improve social and individual well-being, and preserve the environment (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). Sustainability should be linked to all types and scales of tourism activities and environments (Butler, 1999; Saarinen, 2006), but it is not easy to implement sustainable tourism at the local level (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). In many tourism destinations residents are excluded from decision making, there is absence of stakeholder collaboration, and there is external control over development by private operators or foreign investors (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006). Despite these difficulties, it is crucial to define tourism development strategies that contribute to sustainable development of tourism destinations.

Tourism and sustainable development in rural areas have been subject of a growing research interest (Ghaderi & Henderson, 2012; Lee, 2013). However, few studies use a multi-stakeholder approach to analyse the contribution of tourism to sustainable development of a rural tourism destination. In addition, in Portugal little research has been conducted in this domain. Therefore, the current study may help bridge this gap, discussing sustainability within the context of a village (*Janeiro de Cima*) located in the interior Central Region of Portugal. The research question is: does rural tourism contribute to sustainable destination development, guaranteeing the satisfaction of all stakeholders both from the demand and supply side, without jeopardizing natural, cultural and social resources?

The paper begins with a literature review concerning the role of tourism in sustainable destination development, considering the specificities of rural tourism, and the contributions of this tourism form to sustainable development

turismo a nível local e regional), de uma aldeia de xisto portuguesa (Janeiro de Cima) sobre a atividade turística na aldeia e as suas implicações no desenvolvimento sustentável. Os resultados apresentados neste artigo foram obtidos recorrendo a uma abordagem qualitativa, através de entrevistas ao diferentes *stakeholders*, no âmbito de um projeto de investigação financiado pela FCT, sobre a experiência global em turismo rural e as suas implicações para o desenvolvimento sustentável de destinos locais (aldeias).

Palavras-chave: Turismo Rural, Desenvolvimento Sustentável, Comunidades Locais, *Stakeholders*, Aldeias de Xisto, Portugal.

Códigos JEL: Q01, R58

of rural areas. This literature review is followed by a case study that, through a qualitative approach, identifies the views of diverse tourism stakeholders (visitors, public and private agents of supply and residents) concerning purchase behaviour, satisfaction, host-visitor interaction and perceptions of the tourism phenomenon and its implications on the village's development. The methodology and a description of the village under analysis are presented, as are findings and discussion of results. The paper ends with conclusions and implications about how to make tourism a sustainable development tool for rural areas.

2. TOURISM AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

The concept of sustainability emerged in the mid19th century as a response to problems produced by industrialization and urbanization (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). Nowadays this view is considered a new development paradigm, dominating both political and academic discourse. The sustainable development approach substitutes the old development paradigm, focused only on economic growth, which proved to be socially inequitable and environmentally unsuitable.

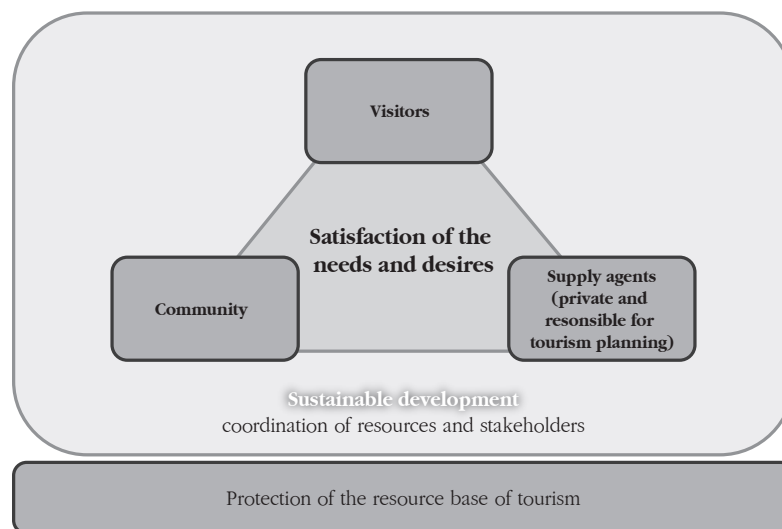
The World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), in its report *Our Common Future*, defines sustainable development as development that "meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs" (WCED, 1987, p. 43). This concept has been applied to several sectors, including tourism (Saarinen, 2006). The demand for more environmentally sensitive and sustainable practices in tourism grew quickly in the 1980s (Saarinen, 2006) as a result of increased knowledge about negative impacts of tourism and due to intensified environmental problems in general. However, the application of the concept in practical terms has not achieved maturity yet. In this field, most debates and studies have been presented at a theoretical rather than at a practical level (Butler, 1999; Choi & Sirakaya,

2005; Ko, 2005), making the development of practical policies and assessment models for measuring the impact of tourism on sustainable destination development crucial. The literature review on sustainable development reveals that this concept was initially mostly limited to the environmental and economic dimensions (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005). However, several researchers in this field (e.g. Butler, 1999; Choi & Sirakaya, 2005, 2006; Ko, 2005; Liu, 2003) show that this concept has a multidimensional nature, with the majority of the literature published on sustainable tourism focusing on four dimensions (economic, cultural, social and environmental). However, Choi and Sirakaya (2006) point at another two recently added dimensions, the technological and political.

For tourism to be a tool for sustainable destination development, it should improve the residents' quality of life;

stimulate the employment of locals compared to non-locals in tourism-related activities; optimize the local economic benefits; provide long-term economic linkages between destination communities and industries; consider the limits of environmental carrying capacity; protect natural and built heritage for present and future generations; minimize negative impacts of tourism; provide a high quality experience for visitors and socio-cultural well-being for destination communities –respecting social identity, enhancing social capital, local culture, social cohesion and pride (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Ko, 2005; Saarinen, 2006). In this line of thought, truly sustainable tourism development yields the satisfaction of the needs and desires of all stakeholders (visitors, private and public industry operators and host communities), as much as the protection of the resource base of tourism (natural and cultural) (Figure 1).

FIGURE 1. TOURISM AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT: AN INTEGRATED APPROACH



Accordingly, all community stakeholders must assume their ethical responsibilities and should be involved at all levels of destination planning (Choi & Sirakaya, 2006). These requirements should be promoted independently of the type of tourism destination. However, particularly physically, culturally and economically fragile destinations, such as many peripheral rural areas, that have suffered from out-migration and consequent depopulation, need tourism development contributing to economic and socio-cultural revitalization, maintaining and enhancing its attractiveness and quality of life for an indefinite period of time.

3. RURAL TOURISM AND SUSTAINABLE DESTINATION DEVELOPMENT

Tourism in general, and particularly tourism in rural areas, has attracted growing interest of academics, tourism professionals, investors and politicians alike, due to its ap-

parent potential as a development tool for these, frequently economically weakened, areas.

One may define rural tourism as all types of tourism taking place in rural areas (OECD, 1994). Some authors suggest rural tourism to be a quite specific tourism product with some requiring the presence of agriculture as a core element (Cavaco, 1999). Others define rural tourism as opposed to mass and resort/urban forms of tourism (Lane, 1994; OCDE, 1994), characterized by features such as small scale, personalized contacts, the traditional character of service elements and environments, the presence of nature and agriculture and the existence of traditional social structures, reflected in a specific way of life, that tourists wish to discover and participate in.

The tourist market shows a growing interest in the countryside as a leisure space, providing open space for outdoor recreation, contact with nature and culture, socialization opportunities in a distinct environment, which is valued for its contrast to stressing city life, return to the ori-

gins and the authentic, often associated with some nostalgia of the “good old times” (Sims, 2009). Naturally, not all tourists visiting rural areas are the same, seeking the same kind of experiences (Kastenholz, 2004) and many experiences may be designed/lived in a space rich in distinct and varied endogenous natural and cultural resources. Correspondingly, Clemenson and Lane (1997) suggest that rural tourism consists of a series of niche activities within a larger niche activity (e.g. eco-tourism, farm tourism, sports tourism, food & wine tourism, cultural tourism), resulting in a complex, multi-faceted activity, marked by continuously increasing diversity (Lane, 2009).

Kastenholz, Carneiro, Marques & Lima (2012, p. 208) suggest that the rural tourist experience “must be understood as the overall experience of a large number and diversity of resources, attractions, services, people and environments, not all principally designed for tourist use, but all impact on the experience and are potentially sought by tourists and valued by them”. Specific features, like hospitality, traditions, culture and landscape constitute main ingredients of an experience lived and co-created by tourists, agents of supply and local population, and conditioned by its institutional framework. Tourists assume, in fact, an active role in defining their experience, initiating the process already when planning the trip, living it vividly on site and prolonging it overtime in their minds and social contacts (Knutson & Beck, 2004)

The population and agents of supply are undoubtedly important stakeholders shaping the tourist experience and simultaneously affected by it. Indeed, many of the core resources determining the competitiveness of a destination (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999), e.g. culture, traditions and hospitality, are deeply rooted and embodied in the host community. Getting to know the rural way of life and contacting with the local community are highly valued by many tourists (Kastenholz & Sparrer, 2009; Lane, 1994). Here, service providers shape the tourism experience, e.g. by designing the physical environment of service provision also through more intangible elements like responsiveness (Knutson & Beck, 2003). Also the local community plays an important active role in creating the tourism experience, making visitors feel (more or less) welcome, helping them “discover” and enjoy a more intense experience of these places (Pina & Delfa, 2005). For the population, on the other hand, the contact with tourists may mean cultural enrichment and dynamization of their social life; it may enhance their sense of identity, pride and self-esteem, making them value certain traditions, landscape and heritage features and even increase their social capital.

The involvement of host communities in the tourist experience and the tourism development process has been widely discussed. Indeed, being affected by tourism as much as affecting its development, residents should be given opportunities to participate in the planning process which Saxena, Clark, Oliver and Ibery (2007) demand particularly for the rural tourism context. These authors suggest the concept of “integrated rural tourism” yield-

ing sustainability as largely dependent on “endogeneity” – with tourism development based on the area’s resources and communities, who should be empowered and involved in the tourism development process. However, this empowerment rarely occurs in rural destinations (Ilbery, Saxena, & Kneafsey, 2007), and brief and superficial host-tourist interaction prevail in many tourism contexts (Eusébio & Carneiro, 2012).

In any case, rural tourism may play a significant role for the development of rural communities, both due to its economic impacts and potentially large multiplier effects, and due to the positive social and cultural impacts the interaction between tourists and inhabitants may cause. However, in many remote rural contexts, this positive impact on development is not so convincing, at least not in all its dimensions (Cavaco, 1999). In reality, the positive (and mainly economic) impacts of tourism (typically small-scale, family-based activities) on small rural communities are often limited to a few groups, not creating many new nor well paid jobs and not contributing to enhance the community’s overall quality of life. Furthermore, although tourism can contribute to enhance the population’s quality of life, it may also trigger negative impacts (Choi & Sirakaya, 2005).

4. EMPIRICAL STUDY

4.1. METHODOLOGY

In this paper, a case study approach was undertaken. Although not permitting the generalization of results, it is a useful approach for providing a deeper understanding of the perceptions of all stakeholders (visitors, residents, private sector supply agents, and public sector entities) concerning the contributions of tourism for sustainable development of rural destinations. These contributions were examined, based on an analysis of the stakeholders’ views of a schist village located in the Central Region of Portugal (*Janeiro de Cima*), concerning tourism impacts and satisfaction with tourism.

Data was collected through semi-structured interviews, conducted between December 2010 and August 2011 by trained interviewers (researchers of the ORTE Project). A total of 9 visitors, 11 residents, 7 local supply agents and 8 representatives of the local administration were interviewed. The most important characteristics of the interviewed stakeholders are summarized in Table 1.

Data was analysed using content analysis. Following Eisenhard’s (1989) recommendations, first all interviews were transcribed, followed by categorization and systematization of discourses, carried out by a group of researchers knowledgeable about the phenomenon. Further, the main issues of each respondent’s discourse concerning the here relevant themes, related with sustainable destination development (satisfaction, social interaction and tourism impacts), were identified and then a comparative analysis of the stakeholders’ views was undertaken.

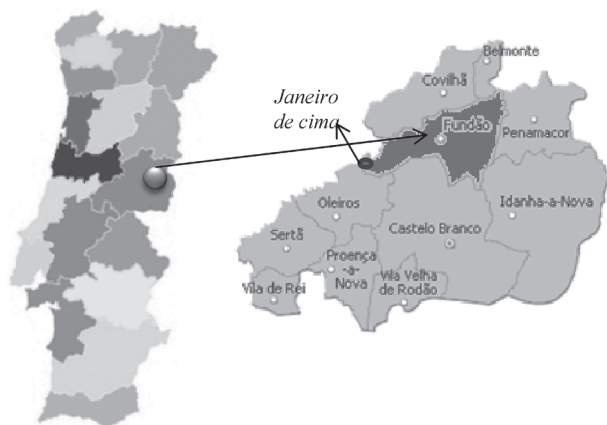
TABLE 1. SAMPLE PROFILE OF THE INTERVIEWED STAKEHOLDERS

Stakeholders	Characteristics
Visitors	mostly 30 years or older; generally travelling as a couple or with family (predominantly without children); high socio-economic status; living in cities (three were excursionists).
Local community	mostly aged between 20 and 59 years; female; married; medium education levels; professionally active.
Private sector supply agents	rural accommodation; handicraft shop/museum (Weavers' House); restaurant; bar; pub; two minimarkets.
Public and third sector planning agents	two representatives of the Municipality's tourism department; one representative of the team responsible for the village's restoration plan (architect); one representative of a local development association (<i>Pinus Verde</i>); two representatives of a regional tourism development association (ADXTUR); two representatives of the Regional Tourism Board (<i>Turismo Serra da Estrela</i>).

4.2. CHARACTERIZATION OF THE SCHIST VILLAGE OF JANEIRO DE CIMA

Janeiro de Cima is a small village with 306 inhabitants, located in the municipality of *Fundão*, in the Central Region of Portugal (Figure 2). It is situated in the vicinity of two important Portuguese mountain areas – *Serra da Estrela* and *Serra da Gardunha*.

FIGURE 2. LOCATION OF THE VILLAGE



Janeiro de Cima is a good example of a typical village of the country's hinterland, suffering from ageing population and demographic decline (Table 2). It offers limited employment opportunities for women (14% unemployment rate for women against 0% for men (INE, 2012). The local population is mostly employed in the tertiary and secondary sectors (especially in neighbouring towns), with some working in agriculture.

Since 2001, this village has been associated to the brand "Schist Villages", whose origins lie in a publically funded requalification program of 24 villages of Portugal's Central Region. The Schist Villages Network is a regional development project, promoted by ADXTUR — *Agência para o Desenvolvimento Turístico das Aldeias do Xisto*, yielding sustainable village development, based on the renovation and setting into value of traditional architecture, traditions, handicrafts and local products, as well as these resources'

use in the context of sustainable cultural and nature tourism. Nowadays, this network integrates 27 villages, from 21 municipalities of the Central Region and over 70 operators with businesses in this territory.

TABLE 2. BRIEF SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC PROFILE OF THE VILLAGE

Indicators	2001	2011
Resident population	352	306
Rate of population above 65 years	30.90%	39.6%
Rate of change of the resident population (1991-2001 2001-2011)	-20.3%	-13.07%
Illiteracy rate	19.14%	14.69%
Unemployment rate	7.6%	6.9%

Source: INE, 2012.

4.3. STAKEHOLDERS' VIEW ON TOURISM AND SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

4.3.1. THE VIEW OF THE VISITORS

Several researchers agree that without guaranteeing the satisfaction of visitors, the long-term economic feasibility of a tourism destination is impossible (Butler, 1999; Choi & Sirakaya, 2006; Saarinen, 2006). All the visitors interviewed within the scope of this research mentioned that they really liked the village. One visitor stated "*I really liked, loved it. I promise to return.*". Others stated "*I feel so good here, I do not want to leave*". The place, with its natural beauty and rich cultural heritage, and the local people, with their values and customs, were the two elements most mentioned by the visitors affecting their level of satisfaction: "*I like [it] a lot. It is a nice place with nice people*". In this context, visitors interact frequently, both with tourism supply agents and with the local community, mainly for information exchange.

Visitors consider the interactions with residents very important and pleasant. One visitor highlights that "*local people have a very important knowledge, which comes from their relationship with nature*", another one states that the "*interaction with people living in the territory leaves*

a strong impression". Thus, visitors report long conversations with some residents about their lives or concerning specific characteristics of the village, such as what kind of products are produced and what kind of techniques are used to cultivate the land. Visitors appreciate the local hospitality and perceive it as one of the most distinctive elements of the village. One visitor remarked that *"it is the [real] Portugal that is still here... perfectly genuine"*. For most visitors, the residents are friendly, helpful, hospitable, welcoming. They provide relevant information, allowing a better exploration of the village and, in some cases, identifying other places and attractions to visit, recreational activities to engage in and typical products to buy, significantly enriching their visit (Kastenholz, Eusébio, Carneiro & Figueiredo, 2013).

Only very few visitors mentioned constraints related with the interaction with local people, referring to some residents being more accessible to communicate with visitors than others. However, when the visitors stay in the village a longer period of time, the interaction is more frequent, allowing the development of deeper relationships with the residents.

The majority of the visitors bought local products (e.g. linen handicrafts, wine, cheese, honey and jam). This has a positive impact on the village's economy, stimulating local activities. Visitors appreciate local products *"because they are typical and this makes all the difference"*. However, in the village there are several products, mainly farm products, whose commercialization to visitors should be stimulated so as to increase the economic benefits of tourism. For this purpose, tourism supply agents should help integrate more these local farm products into their offers.

4.3.2. THE VIEW OF PRIVATE SECTOR TOURISM SUPPLY AGENTS

Usually, private sector agents interact frequently with visitors and appreciate these interactions. However, for some, the interaction is rare, occurring when visitors ask for information. Nonetheless, when the contact occurs, these agents make sure to have a meaningful interaction: *"When they [visitors] come here I ask where they come from, whether they are enjoying or not... And they like it, that's why I say those who come, in general, like to talk about everything, the village has to offer, and some also seek some stories..."*. These agents perceive local hospitality as an important element to attract visitors. They consider that visitors are looking for and enjoy interacting with the local community, being interested in the attractions, but also in the population's way of life.

Opinions about the impacts of tourism are unanimously positive. The most mentioned ones are related with the economic and demographic revitalization of the village, namely in job creation; dynamization of commercial and other service activities; population settlement; revitalization of local products; and prevention of social isolation. In the opinion of these agents, agriculture also benefits from tourism,

however its impacts are limited due to legal constraints (local producers cannot sell their products directly to visitors). Tourism activities are seasonal registering an increase on weekends and especially in the summer, leading to more income, but also to an unusual workload. The uneven distribution of visitors makes it difficult to manage the fix costs during the low season, when the flow of visitors is low.

Generally speaking, as private sector agents, they recognize mostly the economic impacts of tourism, being very satisfied with the benefits obtained from this activity. However, they also perceive tourism as an activity that brings positive social changes to the village. As one stakeholder mentions: *"It is very evident that the local people, regardless the fact of having an economic activity or not, benefit from visitors: either it is the supermarket owner that welcomes them and, therefore, sells products, or the older people passing by on the street, alone... it appears that visitors like to talk with them, and they tell stories about the village. This happens a lot, and there are many people who come here exactly looking for this, to have an experience in the village, a basic and simple one: listen to a story, or let their children touch the animals that are nearby, and the kids end up interested in the animals. So, there is all this exchange, which is not only about selling physical goods, but also about experiences related with the village's way of living."*

Despite the positive contribution that tourism can bring to the community and local businesses, these stakeholders believe that they should have a say in the tourism development process of the village. They feel somehow excluded from the decision making process. They tend to use informal channels to exchange information and participate in the decision making process.

4.3.3. THE VIEW OF ENTITIES RESPONSIBLE FOR THE VILLAGE'S TOURISM PLANNING

The views of the public agents and third sector entities responsible for the village's tourism planning and development regarding tourism impacts are very similar to those of private stakeholders, considering tourism a driver of local development, and a complement to other economic activities, but also as a form of valorisation and promotion of endogenous resources and local products. It can contribute to the creation of a composite product and the reinforcement of innovation, entrepreneurship and business culture; promote scale and global network integration for internationalization; preserve the village's authenticity and resources; engender a greater sense of pride and local identity; and stimulate local production.

These stakeholders do not interact directly with the visitors, thus not contributing directly to their visit experience. They are, however, responsible for strategies and actions that affect tourism development in the village and, ultimately, the overall tourist experience. *"We were the first municipality in the country to have a PITER [Regional Tourism Policy Program Anchored on Private Sector Investment] approved, with the idea of creating a territorial park, not a*

theme park, not a golf course, but a territorial park. In my opinion, that was a well-defined strategy, based on nature-based tourism and touring. Tourism is regarded as a process, but also as a goal in itself, that can influence and be influenced by demand and supply indicators, but also by public policy. For instance, the viewpoint on resource revitalization, namely the classification of historic centers, and the tourist animation has a strong implication on the consistency of tourism products. We have themed fairs and festivities that often accompany the agricultural calendar, where we work the symbolic elements. In this sense, tourism, while a process of upgrading resources as a factor of attractiveness, is clearly regarded as very important for us."

Some of these entities, especially the local ones, have closer links with private stakeholders and the population. These close relationships are important to gain trust, which is especially accomplished through community meetings. There is a clear investment made by some supra-municipal/regional entities in building a community spirit and network relationships, to engage the local community (residents and private stakeholders) in the development process, namely using participation methodologies of Local Agenda 21.

4.3.4. THE VIEW OF THE LOCAL COMMUNITY

Residents are very pleased with tourism in the village, and are willing to attract more visitors and encourage the emergence of new tourist activities. They tend to view tourism as a positive activity that has contributed to the revitalization of the village, therefore being in favour of tourism development. Residents suggest the creation of recreational activities and the improvement of commercial and other services to make tourists stay longer. However, some residents feel excluded from the decision making process, while sustainable tourism development should imply the involvement of all stakeholders, being crucial to stimulate the participation of residents in the tourism development process. The residents interviewed revealed preferences for informal channels for information exchange and participation in decision making.

Opinions about the impacts of tourism on the village are consensual: tourism contributes to development. Several residents pointed out the economic benefits – employment generation, revitalization of traditional activities and creation of new businesses. However, farmers do not benefit from selling directly their products to visitors. For residents, commercial establishments are the main beneficiaries from tourism, in many cases, through the sale of typical products (e.g. linen handicrafts, wine, cheese, honey and jam).

Most residents refer that tourism had a crucial role in the rehabilitation of the architectural heritage and in the revitalization of public spaces. *"Before tourism development, most of the village's houses were becoming degraded, tourism contributed to their rehabilitation"*. In addition, tourism development has contributed to local people feeling proud of their tangible and intangible heritage, increasing the community's self-esteem: *"people begin to be more aware*

that they had something of value". Residents also highlight the role of tourism in social dynamics and cultural learning opportunities. One resident remarked: *"the village is more alive with visitors, and the arrival of other people in the village is a breath of fresh air"*. This enthusiasm may be related with the stage of tourism development in this village, tourism activities being relatively recent in *Janeiro de Cima*, and, therefore, generating positive expectations towards tourism activities and visitors (Kastenholz *et al.*, 2013).

Residents interact with visitors and enjoy interacting with them, although sometimes there are communication difficulties. These interactions are frequently motivated by visitors, searching information about the village's cultural and natural attractions. However, the interactions are also very appreciated by residents, being a means of reducing loneliness, mainly for older people. Additionally, the population perceives local hospitality as one of the most distinctive elements of the village. As one resident points out, *"a visitor likes to be welcomed, if he does not feel welcome he probably will not return"*.

5. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

For tourism planners and local supply agents, tourism is the main driver for local development. The population is less enthusiastic, perceiving an unbalanced distribution of economic benefits, however recognizing a more dynamic social life. However, all local destination stakeholders understand that the village could improve its tourism appeal, especially if making better use of endogenous resources and local products.

Planning agents stress the potential of tourism for enhancing sustainable development. They suggest tourism supply based on endogenous products and provided by networks, which is, however, difficult to achieve due to inertness of local agents, aged population and excessive individualism. In addition, tourism supply agents identify population decline, bureaucracy and restrictive laws (especially for food production) as constraints for improving tourism supply. Local destination stakeholders understand that tourists seek opportunities to relax and get away from the confusion of urban life and look for "genuineness" (e.g. family-like, close relations within the local community), confirming results of other studies on the rural tourist market (Kastenholz & Sparrer, 2009), however not really understanding the variety of tourist motivations (Lane, 2009). The population perceives local hospitality as one of the most distinctive elements of the village, which is, indeed, valued by tourists.

All agree that the most relevant attractive features of the village are its scenic beauty, restoration and its people, with its integration into the network of "Schist Villages" also recognized as important. Tourists, additionally, refer to curiosity, novelty-seeking and the desire of different experiences as (push) motives to visit the village.

It seems that tourism contributes to sustainable development of the village, in terms of enhancement of an en-

riched social life, reduction of the community's isolation and by contributing to a stimulation of local production and businesses, i.e. to local economic development. All this is reflected by a high degree of satisfaction among all stakeholders regarding the tourism phenomenon in the village. One may conclude that tourism is perceived as impacting positively on the economic, social, cultural and technological context (through the introduction of e-business approaches), indirectly on political structures (due to increased self-esteem and social capital) and, however not so evident, on the environment (through the setting into value of the village scenery and recognition of the value of nature). In sum, positive impacts are apparently recognized regarding all six dimensions of sustainability, suggested by Choi and Sirakaya (2006).

However, the community and supply agents are apparently not very much involved in the tourism planning process, although showing interest in getting involved, but in rather informal ways. Planning agents are also interested in this participation, trying to enhance it. They stress the potential of tourism for enhancing sustainable development; suggesting tourism supply based on endogenous products, provided by networks, which may also permit a better position for attracting international visitors (Cai, 2002).

The population suggests improved commercial and other services, the organization of recreational, cultural and sports activities, enlarged opening hours of services and attractions. They also suggest a better integration of agriculture production in the tourism supply, which should, in fact, increase the activity's multiplier effect.

It seems that all admit that things should be changed and identify ways to do so, however not always coinciding with their views on the real obstacles and potentials. A better communication amongst all seems necessary to find a common ground for successful and integrative tourism development involving all relevant stakeholders, as well as most attractive and distinctive destination resources (Kastenholz *et al.*, 2012, Saxena *et al.*, 2007).

It must be recognized that the here presented results are of an exploratory type and would benefit from additional quantitative data analysis. This is, in fact, in course and will be most important for a better understanding of statistically relevant differences between stakeholder groups. It would also be interesting to undertake similar research in other villages with eventually different tourism development, since these very positive views may be due to the initial stage of development, characteristic of tourism in the Janeiro de Cima village (Kastenholz *et al.*, 2013). Also the real network dynamics deserve a more profound analysis and may reveal insights into how to achieve improved integration of most interested stakeholders. In any case, many relevant issues could be identified, gaps between stakeholder views assessed, but also common views observed, being an interesting starting point for both, additional research and the introduction of destination management approaches that may enhance the village's destination success and sustainable development.

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EXAMINING TOURISM STAKEHOLDER NETWORKS AND RELATIONSHIP QUALITY: THE SPECIFIC CASE OF PENEDA GERÊS NATIONAL PARK (PNPG)

ANÁLISE DAS REDES DE *STAKEHOLDERS* E QUALIDADE DE RELACIONAMENTO EM TURISMO: O CASO DO PARQUE NACIONAL PENEDA GERÊS

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ABSTRACT/RESUMO

This paper draws insights from three key strategic management theories: the stakeholder theory, the network theory and the relationship quality theory. It examines how viable tourism policies could best be developed in PGNP, considering the stakeholder networks related to tourism, specifically by considering the relationship quality (trust, commitment and cooperation). Under this view it addresses the structure, nature and composition of ties among PNPNG stakeholders using social network analysis (SNA) methodology, combining qualitative and quantitative techniques.

Additionally, the study categorizes stakeholders according to the “stakeholder salience” model, illustrates the relationship quality among the network and stakeholder’s positioning in a complex structure of relationships informing about interactions, providing possible directions to minimize potential constraints in networks.

Este artigo reúne contributos de três importantes teorias no âmbito da gestão estratégica, a saber: a teoria dos *stakeholders*, a teoria de redes e a teoria da qualidade do relacionamento. Pretende examinar como podem ser desenvolvidas políticas de turismo viáveis no PNPNG considerando as redes de atores ligados ao turismo, analisando especificamente a qualidade do relacionamento (confiança, compromisso e cooperação). Tendo em conta esta perspetiva, este artigo analisa a estrutura, a natureza e a composição das interações entre os *stakeholders* do PNPNG com recurso à metodologia de redes sociais, combinando técnicas qualitativas e quantitativas.

Acresce ainda que o estudo classifica os *stakeholders* de acordo com o modelo de “saliência dos *stakeholders*”, ilustrando a qualidade do relacionamento entre *stakeholders*, o seu posicionamento numa estrutura complexa de relacionamentos, informando sobre as interações ocorridas e fornecendo possíveis orientações para minimizar eventuais restrições inerentes às redes sociais.

Keywords: Actors, Networks, Relationships, Stakeholders, Tourism

Palavras-chave: Atores, Redes, Relacionamentos, *Stakeholders*, Turismo

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Código JEL: I83

1. INTRODUCTION

This article arose in the context of a research that explores the importance of interorganizational networks and the importance of cooperation among different stakeholders. One way to gain a thorough understanding of stakeholder theory is to link this theory with social network analysis and relationship quality (Rowley, 1997).

The last two decades have seen an increasing number of studies on networking, whose approach underlines the importance of social relationships and structural patterns of behavior rather than focusing upon the attributes and actions of single individuals and organisations (Scott *et al.*, 2008). Specifically, networks enable individuals and organizations to search for, obtain, and share resources and engage in cooperative actions for mutual benefit (Saxena, 2005).

The study, therefore, draws insights from three key management theories: the stakeholder theory, the network theory and the relationship quality theory. Specifically, the research questions that the study aims to address are: 1) How are the tourism stakeholder networks related to tourism in the PNPG composed (quantitatively and qualitatively)? 2) What has been the association between the level of trust, commitment and cooperation among stakeholders, regarding PNPG tourism in the last five years and what will be in the next five years?

In order to achieve this aim, the patterns of relationships among the major PNPG tourism stakeholders are analyzed and classified according to their goals and their ability to influence each other when involved in tourism projects for the region, particularly concerning its power, urgency and legitimacy (Mitchell, *et al.*, 1997). In order to address the first research question, social network analysis was used, which is a well-developed set of techniques to study social interaction among different actors. This technique presents some indicators appropriate for analysing the patterns of interactions of the PNPG network. Second, the study analyzes the quality of interactions among different stakeholders in order to understand their impact on tourism activities, promoting the PNPG tourism policies more effectively.

This study also aims to demonstrate that SNA is a relevant tool for investigating network characteristics of a specific region, which is characterized by its natural beauty and demand for tourism. The foundation of the PNPG aimed at creating and planning a system that values human activities and nature conservation from a long-term perspective. It integrates the biogenetic reserves of the Council of Europe with the "Forest of Palheiros – Albergaria". However, it has not been easy to manage due to the degree of complexity of different interests among various stakeholders because two countries (Portugal and Spain) are involved in its social, cultural and economic development and promotion.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows: we review the major theories of study, namely: the stakeholder theory, the network theory and the relationship quality and its integration. After this, we present the study methodology, focusing on the data collection procedure. Subsequently,

the findings of this study are discussed. Finally, the conclusions, implications, limitations and future research directions are presented.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. STAKEHOLDER THEORY

The publication of Freeman's work, in 1984, is the cornerstone for the development of stakeholder theory which would be further used in management, marketing and, more recently, in tourism (Lewis, 2006). The concept of stakeholder varies over time and from author to author. To Freeman (1984), stakeholders, in an organizational and management context, are any groups or individuals who can affect or are affected by the achievement of organizational goals. The concept is underpinned by the idea of two types of stakeholders: strategic and moral. Zsolnai (2006) proposes a re-interpretation of the concept of stakeholder, stating that not all stakeholders are morally valid and only those who are should be considered. In the same line, Frooman (1999) refers to whom controls critical resources to the survival of organizations. Main literature points to the importance of examining the interests and capacity of influence on the organization. The definition of stakeholder can be presented as: (i) broad (Freeman, 1984; Carroll, 1993) or (ii) restricted (Clarkson, 1995 – stakeholders are risk carriers).

Over the past 30 years, stakeholder theory has been used in multiple contexts, namely: assessment of performance (Keeley, 1978), development of competitive advantages (Slatter, 1980) and development of the company mission (Pearce, 1982). In terms of planning and management in tourism, emphasis should be given to the role and the importance of a vast number of studies which used stakeholder theory as a management tool for business ethics with longitudinal analysis of stakeholders' attitudes (see for instance Sautter and Leisen, 1999; Yuksel *et al.*, 1999; Robson and Robson, 1996; Timur, 2005; Sautter and Leisen, 1999; Ioannides, 2001) ethics in tourism marketing (Sautter and Leisen, 1999; Yuksel *et al.*, 1999; Getz and Jamal, 1994; Robson and Robson, 1996), identification of stakeholders and perceptions related to sustainable tourism (Timur, 2005; Sheehan and Ritchie, 1997), analysis of the attitudes of stakeholders (Ioannides, 2001) and development of a tourism plan (Pforr, 2002).

Mitchell *et al.* (1997) conducted a review of stakeholder theory proposed first by Freeman (1984) and identified both power (also emphasized by Frooman, 1999) and legitimacy as the core attributes of a stakeholder's typology. Urgency was also added, and therefore the model of stakeholder salience was proposed.

This article seeks to integrate these contributions regarding the identification of relevant stakeholders under the criteria of power, legitimacy and urgency suggested by Mitchell *et al.* (1997) seeking to classify them according to its "stakeholder salience" model.

Over time, the stakeholder theory has evolved into a strategic vision and with the contributions to the development of stakeholder theory given by Freeman (1984), Clarkson (1995), Mitchell *et al.* (1997) and Rowley (1997) it became a new management model. The stakeholder theory becomes broad and permeable enough crossing other theoretical fields such as social network analysis and relationship marketing.

2.2. SOCIAL NETWORK ANALYSIS

Social Network Analysis (SNA) has its origin in three research streams: (i) the sociometric perspective (that used and developed the graph theory), (ii) the Harvard perspective which pioneered the use of inter-relational models and cliques and which, after 1970, developed the algebraic models and (iii) the anthropologist perspective of the Manchester School, which focused on the analysis of structural relations of power/conflict (Scott, 2000). A later work by Scott *et al.* (2008) categorised the evolution of networks in two schools: one based on mathematics and another based on the study of social sciences, both with relevance in the mid XX century.

From a marketing and strategy perspective, SNA has been increasingly applied in the analysis of distribution channels in marketing (Iacobucci and Hopkins, 1992), in understanding consumer behavior (Rowley, 1997, Wasserman and Faust, 1994), in word-of-mouth communication (Duhan *et al.*, 1997) and in relationship marketing (Iacobucci and Ostrom, 1996).

In line with Morrison *et al.* (2004), some of the success factors associated with tourism networks relate to the establishment of a culture of trust, resource sharing and interconnection between the community network members.

The social network analysis interfaces with the analysis of destinations since they represent systems of relationships that influence the behavior and stakeholder's opportunities in a given destination. The stakeholder theory has been applied in tourism, for example, to understand the collaboration on the development of local tourism policies (Easterling, 2005).

2.3. RELATIONSHIP MARKETING

For some authors relationship marketing is understood as the set of marketing activities aimed at the establishment, development, maintenance and extinction of relational exchanges (Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Eiriz and Wilson, 1999).

Other authors view relationship marketing as an area centered on the development of ongoing relationships with customers involving a family of complementary products and services (Shani and Chalasani, 1992). Basically, its main focus is based on the creation of links with each customer providing mutual benefits. Also, Shirshendu *et al.* (2009) defines the goal of relationship marketing as the achievement of long-term relationships with positive effects on businesses with an optimum use of resources

through constant interaction, network connections and cooperation among all members (employees, customers, suppliers and business partners) associated with a high degree of commitment that can generate greater value for all stakeholders in a trusted environment.

Healy *et al.* (2001), for their part, showed that the theoretical development of relationship marketing must take into account both the context of the relationship and the number of participants in the exchange process. So, they analyze relationship marketing under three perspectives: First, the buyer-seller relationships, which ignore the role of other elements in the distribution channel and shareholders (Berry, 1983; Grönroos, 1994); Second, the Neo-relationship marketing perspective that includes all marketing activities directed at establishing, developing and maintaining successful relational exchanges. It also includes research in the area of consumer behaviour, marketing research methods and marketing communications (Christopher *et al.*, 1991, Morgan and Hunt, 1994); Third, the network view which embraces a more complex structure of networks with three or more actors.

A broad agreement exists about different schools of thought that have emerged within relationship marketing research. For instance, according to Grönroos and Strandvik (1997), it is not possible to understand this concept without taking into account the following schools of thought: 1) the Nordic school of service management which is mainly characterized by focusing attention on service management as the key aspect in building and maintaining relationships (Egan, 2003); 2) the network perspective that is mainly directed at industrial marketing and business-to-business marketing; 3) the Anglo-Australian perspective, which combines concepts such as quality, customer service and marketing; 4) The alliances and strategic partnership perspective, which considers the relevance of strategic alliances among business partners and, finally, 5) Research on the nature of relationship marketing itself.

Coote (1994) also identified three major approaches to relationship marketing, namely: 1) the Nordic perspective which covers the theory of interactive networks of industrial marketing and innovation in services marketing concepts, which are central to building and maintaining long-term relationships (Grönroos, 1994). This school advocates a change in the focus of the central areas in marketing and management of the process of interaction; 2) the North American perspective which is based primarily on transactional marketing, where marketing communication assumes a central role. This perspective emphasizes the relationship between buyer and seller in the context of the organizational environment (Berry, 1983; Levitt, 1983; Perrien *et al.*, 1993); 3) the Anglo-Australian perspective which is mainly based on the work of Christopher *et al.* (1991) and emphasizes the management of stakeholder relations. These authors associate quality and relationship marketing in the sense that quality contributes to the loyalty of customers. Marketing is concerned with the management of relationships between an organization and its

customers with quality and customer service as a key linking element to this relationship.

It is also relevant to notice that several authors use the notion of relationship quality within the framework of relationship marketing (Crosby *et al.*, 1990; Hennig-Thurau *et al.*, 2002; Athanasopoulou, 2008; Ashnai *et al.*, 2009). Specifically this construct, is a meta-construct that is composed of several components reflecting the nature of relationships between organizations and customers (Ashnai *et al.*, 2009). Among the most important relationship quality dimensions reported in the literature are: Trust (Crosby *et al.*, 1990; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Leuthesser, 1997; Wilson and Vlosky, 1997; Doney and Cannon, 1997; Iacobucci and Hibbard, 1999; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Naude and Buttle, 2000; Wong and Sohal, 2002; Woo and Cha, 2002; Ramayah and Leen, 2003; Búrca *et al.*, 2004; Huang and Chiu, 2006; Athanasopoulou, 2009; Ashnai *et al.*, 2009); Commitment (Crosby *et al.*, 1990; Anderson and Weitz, 1992; Morgan and Hunt, 1994; Wilson and Vlosky, 1997; Garbarino and Johnson, 1999; Iacobucci and Hibbard, 1999; Wong and Sohal, 2002; Búrca *et al.*, 2004; Athanasopoulou, 2009; Ashnai *et al.*, 2009); and Cooperation (Naude and Buttle, 2000; Búrca *et al.*, 2004; Woo and Ennew, 2004).

Gordon (1998) states that managing services involves building and maintaining relationships, and relationship marketing is based on aspects such as the construction of networks and the establishment of strategic alliances and partnerships. Lewin and Johnston (1997) conducted a case study on relationship marketing involving six major constructs: relational dependence, trust, commitment, communication, cooperation and fairness. The authors use these same variables to develop profiles of successful partnerships.

3. INTEGRATING STAKEHOLDER, NETWORKS AND RELATIONSHIP QUALITY IN TOURISM

In the tourism literature, the application of SNA brings clear benefits related to the analysis of tourism destinations and organizations because the tourism sector naturally operates in a network, where the organizations cooperate but also compete dynamically (Scott *et al.* 2008). Therefore, it is generally accepted that networks have strong applicability in the tourism sector because they are frequently related to a tourism product and endeavours regarding cooperation should focus on the promotion and sale of the destination (Valdez, 2009).

The literature has given rise to a strong debate between the paradigm of interorganizational networks (Borgatti and Foster, 2003; Podolny and Page, 1998) and research networks, which emphasize traditional qualitative methods. Webster and Morrison (2004) emphasised the importance of social network analysis as a tool to understand Word-of-Mouth communications, relationship marketing and the adoption of new products and services.

The first studies on tourist destination networks were mainly based on qualitative methodologies with strong

emphasis on the description of networks and identification of groups. However, other studies have adopted other techniques (more quantitative) where the emphasis shifts from attribute data to the collection of relational data based on patterns of social relationships established between organizations (Timur, 2005). For Timur (2005) it is important to consider the need to integrate topics related to tourism and relational network analysis in order to understand the nature of flows between different stakeholders operating in this particular field.

In the context of tourism, networks enable mapping relations and interactions by analyzing their structure and pattern. At a broader level, tourism involves the development of formal and informal collaboration, partnerships and interorganizational networks (Scott *et al.*, 2008), so it is relevant to assess the quality of these relationships. In most cases interorganizational networks are exemplified in destinations which can be viewed as loosely articulated groups of independent suppliers linked together to deliver the overall service or product (Scott *et al.*, 2008).

Pavlovich (2003) refers to the importance of considering relational issues in tourism, particularly social network analysis which can be used to understand the interactions between stakeholders within tourism. Other authors like Blackshaw and Long (1998) argue for the application of social network analysis in the context of leisure and recreation. Cobb (1988), in turn, introduced network analysis into tourism applying this technique to identify patterns of communication between tourism organizations. Money (2000) applied the social network analysis to explain the role of the "mouth-to-mouth" on the buying behavior in business corporate travel, while Pavlovich (2001, 2003) focused on relational bonds in tourist destinations.

In the area of tourism it is worthwhile emphasising the work of Saxena (2005) who applied to the principles of relationship marketing and networks approach to determine the nature of exchange structure in three case study areas. He analyzed different attitudes of actors towards partnership building and their understanding of cross-sector networks.

4. RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

From a methodological stance, a review of the relevant literature in tourism reveals that the most commonly used methodology in the context of network analysis of tourism (Timur, 2005; Timur and Getz, 2008; Leung *et al.*, 2012; Flecha *et al.*, 2012) is the case study. This can be partly explained by the fact that it generates relevant and rich information about social dynamics and operations developed over time (Coviello, 2005). However, despite its relevance, the number and diversity of relevant actors makes this methodological approach difficult to implement. Additionally, there is a need for further studies involving multiple cases and analysis of crossover networks. Relevant actors in this study mean those informants that are likely to be strongly involved in the strategic decisions of their organizations,

particularly related to rural tourism decisions. To ensure that the respondents were sufficiently knowledgeable to provide the required information accurately, we followed a snowballing sample. Networks are always embedded in specific locations, although the extent of their geographical reach and complexity may vary. Given the reality under analysis, this research adopts a three-stage research design.

Stage one: a list of major stakeholders involved in the PNPG tourism activities was identified and developed based not only on secondary data (blogs, websites, brochures, books, marketing data, etc.) but also on interviews to residents, tourism companies, public and private organizations. This is in line with Cooper *et al.* (2009), who observed that identification of the relevant class of stakeholders is important for destination managers to achieve their organizational objectives. Therefore, this preliminary analysis enabled us to produce an initial list of relevant stakeholders (based on Mitchell *et al.*, 1997, “Stakeholder Saliency” model) involved in Peneda-Gerês National Park rural tourism and local destination.

Stage two: Exploratory field work based on exploratory interviews (recorded, transcribed and analyzed) was undertaken in order to identify and confirm key players in the Peneda-Gerês National Park rural tourism. This option was justified by the need to define the network boundaries in order to facilitate the analysis of relationships within the network of stakeholders involved in implementing tourist activities. This qualitative technique is well known in the literature as it makes possible to define network boundaries, particularly when faced with a large number of actors. At this stage, a list of stakeholders was produced, assessed and the different stakeholders were ranked based on Mitchell *et al.* (1997) theory and further revised by Driscoll and Starik (2004). To a better understanding, Mitchell *et al.* (1997) proposed a model for identification of relevant stakeholders (“stakeholder saliency”), which considers that stakeholders that have three main attributes (power, legitimacy and urgency) are more relevant than others. Based on these three main criteria Mitchell *et al.* (1997) categorise stakeholders in six categories, namely:

1. Dormant stakeholders – have power but, not having a legitimate relationship or an urgent complaint, their power becomes useless;
2. Discretionary stakeholders – have a legitimate relationship but no urgent complaints or power, so do not influence the organization;
3. Demanding stakeholders – have power and legitimacy, so their influence on the organization is assured;
4. Dangerous stakeholders – have urgency and power, so they tend to be coercive and even potentially violent;
5. Dependent stakeholders – have urgency and legitimacy but lack of power, so soon become dependent on others to carry out their intentions;
6. Final stakeholders – have power, legitimacy and urgency, so become priority and relevant stakeholders.

The results allowed us to validate the initial list of stakeholders considered for the purposes of the study.

The major criteria used for selecting the major key players were: power, legitimacy, urgency and proximity (see Mitchell *et al.*, 1997). Additionally, a first in-depth interview was developed with ADERE-PG a key public entity actor that is responsible for managing Peneda-Gerês National Park marketing activities.

Stage three: This involved the personal application of the questionnaire administered to forty six relevant stakeholders in the Peneda-Gerês National Park. This stage enabled the collection of relevant information about the structure of relationships in the Peneda-Gerês National Park tourism network, the type and nature of relationships among actors, and the major responsible for implementing rural tourism projects. The questionnaire was pre-tested with three academics and with one of the main representatives of the ADERE-PG. Based on these initial interviews forty six key stakeholders were identified and each organization was interviewed in person with the interviews taking around forty minutes.

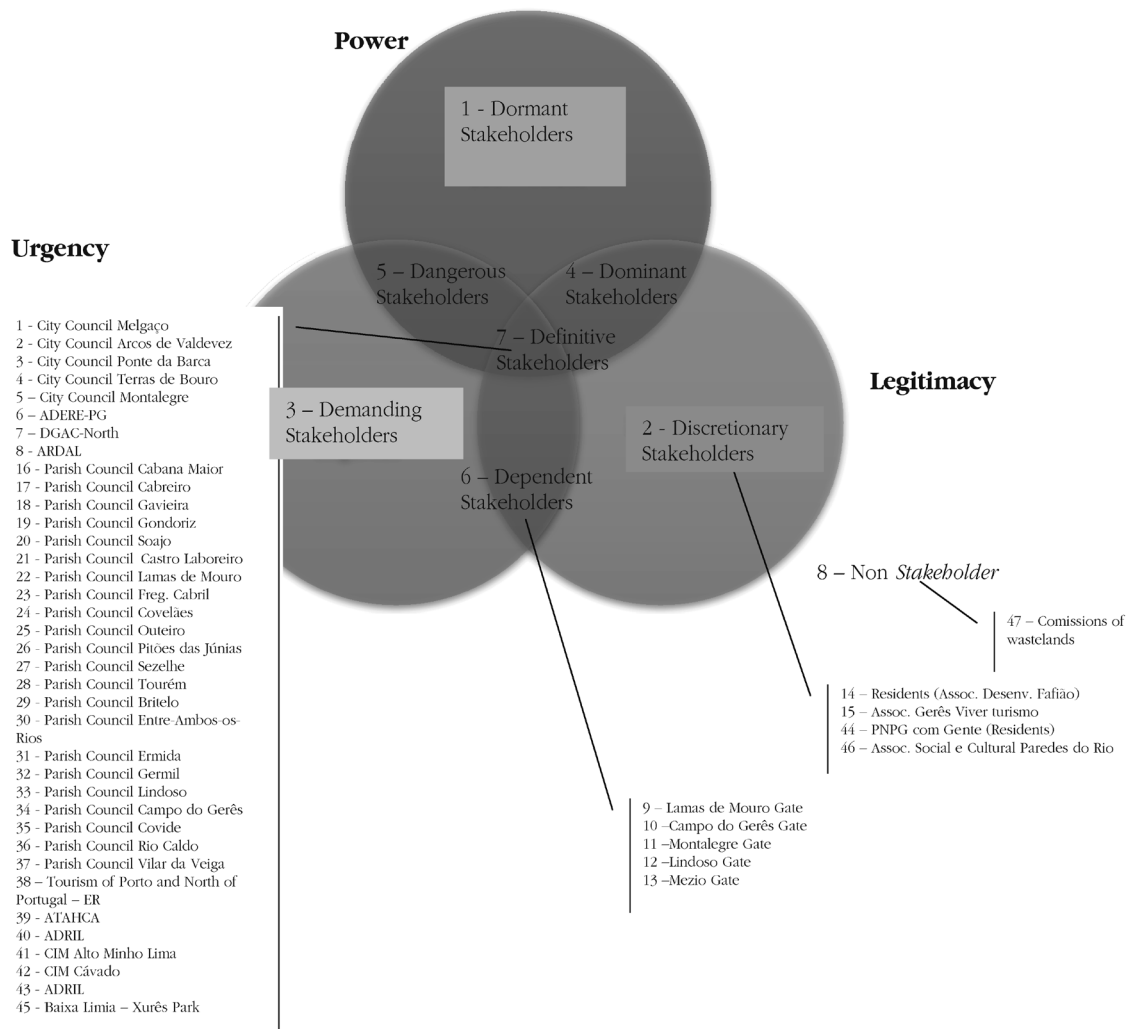
Concerning the data collection procedure, to perform a SNA it usually requires collection of data from all members of a population, or the use of representative samples of the population. For the present study, although a convenience sample was adopted, the sampling frame includes forty six ($n = 46$) key stakeholders operating in the specific region known as Peneda-Gerês National Park. While the study may be seen to use a small sample, the respondents were perceived as the key stakeholders in the region. The unit of analysis was considered the interactions between these key stakeholders. It should be noted that this study adopted the methodologies inherent to SNA, and measures of network analysis such as network size, symmetry, density, intensity and centrality (see for instance Timur, 2005; Timur and Getz, 2008; Leung *et al.*, 2012).

While the qualitative stage of this study allowed the identification of relevant stakeholders (involved in the decisions of PNPG tourism), the quantitative stage allowed both the identification of different relationships (interactions) among different stakeholders and the quality of their relationships, particularly considering Trust, Commitment and Cooperation. To analyze the data collected (between August 2011 and March 2012) PASW 18.0 and UCINET 6.0 were used.

5. STUDY FINDINGS AND RESULTS

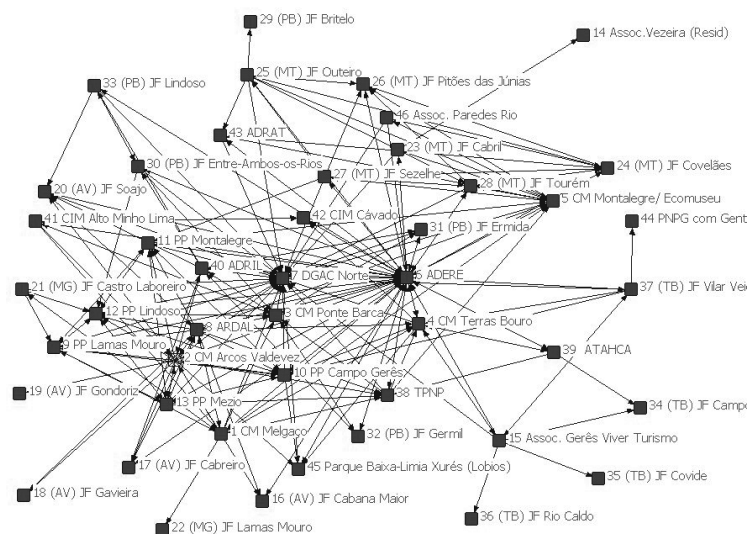
Concerning the first objective established, this study follows Frooman’s (1999) proposals, which made it possible to identify and classify different stakeholders under the model of “Stakeholder Saliency” proposed by Mitchell *et al.* (1997). Therefore, for the purpose of this study three categories were identified (Figure 1): Discretionary stakeholders (have legitimacy but have no power, and there is no urgency in meeting their aims); Dependent stakeholders (have legitimacy and urgency but depend on others to support them); and Final stakeholders (represent a group that has power, legitimacy and urgency and were named as priority stakeholders).

FIGURE 1. RELEVANT STAKEHOLDERS INVOLVED IN THE PNPg TOURISM PROJECTS



Source: Author (2012).

FIGURE 2. GLOBAL RELATIONSHIP MATRIX



Source: Author (2012).

As can be seen in Figure 1, 37 definitive stakeholders were identified. It is important to refer that among these, DGAC-North was the one that showed most power, legitimacy and urgency, followed by the five city councils and lastly by ADERE-PG. From this data, it was possible to confirm what Pesqueux and Damak-Ayadi (2005) argued that, within the stakeholder framework, the organization has relationships with various groups that affect, or

are affected by their decisions. The most relevant stakeholders control those resources which are critical to the organizations (Frooman, 1999). Considering the network structure identified, Figure 2 presents a graph illustrating of the global relationships among major stakeholders (in the past 12 months) involved in tourism projects in the PNPG.

The main network indicators are presented in Table 1:

TABLE 1. NETWORK INDICATORS

Number of <i>Stakeholders</i>	46	<i>Degree</i>	5,1
Potential Links	2.070	Reciprocity	51,2%
Existing Links	263	Average distance	2,17
Density	12,7%	Transitivity	37,36%
Centralization (<i>outdegree</i>)	61,1%	Clique	15
Centralization (<i>indegree</i>)	58,7%	Clusters	5
<i>Clustering</i>	0,483		

Source: Author (2012).

The global network shows the centrality of ADERE-PG and DGAC-North. As central actors, these stakeholders have central access to information and a relevant positioning in the network, such as easy access to other actors, more power and legitimacy. Surprisingly, residents in the PNPG have a marginal positioning within the network.

Consistent with Rowley (1997), who considered both network density and centrality of the actors, this study found that there are two stakeholders identified as “commander” organisations, which are ADERE-PG and DGAC-North. All other stakeholders are assumed as “solitarian” organisations, which are isolated and are under less pressure from other central actors. Regarding tourism projects in PNPG, 19.57% identify ADERE-PG as the main stakeholder and 17.39% identify DGAC-North. The network presents a reciprocity of 51.2%, i.e. from all the links in the network, only 51.2% are bidirectional. Regarding the subgroups 15 cliques were detected and ADERE-PG was present in 14 of these. It is possible to conclude that ADERE-PG is the actor that reveals the highest intermediation (51.9%), followed by the Council of Melgaço (5.1%) and Council of Arcos de Valdevez (4.8%). This helps to explain the first research question proposed in the present study.

With regard to the quality relationship dimensions (Trust, Commitment and Cooperation) and to ensure the homogeneity and internal consistency of sub-scales (Nunnally, 1978) those items which account for each dimension were correlated with their item-to-item total correlation. Those items below a sudden drop-off in the total item correlation (i.e., 0.30) have been eliminated because such items are assumed to lack internal consistency, that is, they do not co-vary or are not consistent with the total score or with other items.

After examining the item to item correlation used to capture each sub-dimension, factor scores representing the

sub-dimension of each quality relationship were computed in order to be used in the subsequent analysis.

Given the fact that we are dealing with an ordinal variable we decide to compute Spearman’s rho correlation which enables us to find potential associations between different quality relationship sub-dimensions. First, descriptive analyses show that there is a moderate Trust ($M = 2.65$; $SD = 1.6$), moderate Commitment ($M = 2.71$; $SD = 1.7$) and moderate Cooperation ($M = 2.55$; $SD = 1.55$) in relation to major stakeholder (the following scale was used: 0 = Not applicable; 1 = Strongly disagree; 2 = Disagree; 3 = Agree; 4 = Strongly agree). Second, a Spearman’s rho correlation was conducted to examine the correlation between different sub-dimensions. Results show that there is a high correlation between the three sub-dimensions of Quality Relationship, namely between Trust and Commitment ($r = 0.95$; $n = 46$; $p < 0.01$), between Trust and Cooperation ($r = 0.71$; $n = 46$; $p < 0.01$) and between Commitment and Cooperation ($r = 0.71$; $n = 46$; $p < 0.01$).

These results are in line with the study by Morgan and Hunt (1994) who found that Trust has a positive impact on both Commitment and Cooperation. That is, when Trust and Commitment are higher, the Cooperation tends to be more intensive. So, the present study highlights the advantages of creating a solid relationship quality among stakeholders based on Trust, Commitment and Cooperation. Additionally, it is important to mention that while the major elements determining the Trust in the relationship relate to honesty, loyalty, sincerity and high level of integrity, the major elements of commitment are the endurance of the relationship and the effort and time put into the relationship. In turn, the major elements of Cooperation among actors relates to joint tourism projects and joint advertising. From qualitative interviews it was found that Cooperation is most influenced by the following main

stakeholder attributes: technical knowledge, recognition by tourists, quality of service, financial resources and human resources development. The active involvement of residents was shown to be an important factor to reinforce Trust among stakeholders.

To conclude, it should be emphasized that the network concepts are closely related to relationship marketing, as the network structure and position is built upon social interactions and relationships provide trust (Saxena, 2005). In the present study it was found that the players with the highest degree of centrality in the network are also those who have higher index of Trust, Commitment and Cooperation.

ASSOCIATION BETWEEN COOPERATION AND TOURISM ACTIVITIES (IN THE LAST/NEXT FIVE YEARS)

This section attempts to analyze whether Cooperation with the major stakeholders is reflected in a positive or negative association with the evolution of a number of tourism indicators, such as tourism investments, tourism revenue, number of tourists, relationship with locals and preservation of natural environment. This analysis was undertaken in relation to the past five years and also with regard to the next five years.

Concerning the past five years, a positive correlation was found between Cooperation and tourism investments ($r = 0.39$; $n = 46$; $p < 0.01$), Cooperation and tourism revenue ($r = 0.49$; $n = 46$; $p < 0.01$) and Cooperation and the number of tourists ($r = 0.32$; $n = 46$; $p < 0.01$).

These results give an idea of the importance of Cooperation between the different stakeholders involved in the PNPG tourism projects as it is an essential concern for the development and management of the PNPG tourism sector. It is also an important way for local people in positions of responsibility to reach out and work closely with the several actors involved, particularly regarding the development of a common communication strategy and joint marketing projects. In order to boost tourism investments, tourism revenue and the number of tourists, tourism should be viewed as the result of collaborative actions among key stakeholders.

With regard to the next five years, results showed a positive correlation between Cooperation and Tourism investments ($r = 0.35$; $n = 46$; $p < 0.01$) and Cooperation and tourism revenue ($r = 0.37$; $n = 46$; $p < 0.01$). Similarly, for a future scenario of tourism in the PNPG, Cooperation is seen as an important factor and is positively associated with tourism investments and tourism revenue. An increase in Cooperation between the stakeholders involved, sharing tourism benefits, costs and risks, as well as shared tourism projects will bring economical and financial benefits for the PNPG.

In this context it is important to recognise that Cooperation needs to involve all the stakeholders and tourism organizations ensuring relationship quality, as the foundation of future tourism in the PNPG, and respect for cultural values while bridging this with the interests of residents' groups and the preservation of the natural heritage.

The aforementioned analysis helps to clarify research question two which attempts to analyse the association between the level of Trust, Commitment and Cooperation among stakeholders, regarding PNPG tourism in last/next five years. A possible explanation for these results is the fact that different stakeholders value continued cooperation in order to obtain higher outcomes in tourism investments and revenue. In other words, cooperation is a necessary condition for generating potential benefits not only in the past but also in the future.

6. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

This study has attempted to integrate some of the concepts of social networks, stakeholders and relationship marketing to gain an understanding of how different actors interact with each other in order to promote the development of the Peneda-Gerês National Park tourism activities.

In terms of conclusions, this study found that the small size of organizations involved in Peneda-Gerês National Park tourism activities and the need to build a common strategy specific to that region is possible if we understand who the major stakeholders operating in the region are. Here, we include public and private organizations, the local community, non-profit organizations and residents. Second, it is important to identify how they interact with each other. This was possible by applying SNA analysis which provides indicators related to measuring node links and illustrates the structural patterns among different stakeholders. Ultimately, as it deals with developments that have been taking place recently in the field of tourism, SNA is a tool which cannot be ignored by those who, either from a theoretical or a practical point of view, wish to keep up-to-date in the context of tourism marketing. Third, the understanding of the association between Trust, Commitment and Cooperation among stakeholders regarding the PNG tourism policies in the last five years, and in the coming five years is also an important topic under analysis.

This research applied to the PNPG tourism network made it possible to map the network of organizational actors that are responsible for tourism projects in the region. The identification of differences in terms of centrality in the stakeholder network helps organizations to find the balance between relationships with their partners, paying attention to the principles of dialogue and transparency, seeking mutual benefits. The research also revealed interesting results that are in line with the existing literature, including the advantages of collaboration between stakeholders (for example regarding the exchange of resources). The challenge of operating in a network requires organizations to expand their relationships, increasing the importance of management stakeholders (according to their categorization).

The network of stakeholders involved in tourism projects in PNPG reveals 263 links and has a density of 12.7%. Furthermore, the centrality of ADERE-PG in this network is highlighted, and this is important as it integrates different

municipalities and interests and creates articulation with DGAC-North (managers of the national park).

This study contributes to the advancement of knowledge in the field of tourism by integrating the stakeholder theory with the social network theory and by examining the quality of those relationships.

Furthermore, the study tested the Mitchel *et al.* (1997) work, and presents an integrated perspective considering the type of stakeholders involved, their interests and goals and their relationship quality. Finally, the differences among stakeholders can be traced by identifying opportunities and constraints resulting from the actors' structural positioning in the network.

This study went a step further by examining the quality relationship between different actors and the key stakeholders as well as analysing the association of different quality relationship dimensions with several tourism indicators or outcomes. With regard to the past five years, a positive correlation was found between Cooperation and Tourism investments, Cooperation and tourism revenue and number of tourists. Concerning the next five years, results showed a positive correlation between Cooperation and Tourism investments and Cooperation and tourism revenue.

7. RESEARCH LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The study has some limitations regarding cost and time constraints. Taking into account that this study is linked to the provision of tourism services, the characteristics that make services unique and different may also constitute an impediment in analysing different relationships. Another limitation relates to the subjective nature of data. For instance, the different flows between stakeholders were measured based on perceptions of respondents.

Another limitation relates to the use of a convenience sample. Interpretation of these findings and their generalization is not possible. However, this study demonstrates the utility of SNA in understanding the major stakeholder interactions and the quality of their relationships. Specifically, in line with other studies, the visualization of the interactions and the structural patterns of behaviour make this technique particularly useful.

Finally, future research could be developed by examining the collaborative outcomes and mainly how these evolve from a longitudinal perspective. It is generally recognized that networks are dynamic with interactions among stakeholders changing as they draw together and interact with the external environment.

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LOCAL STAKEHOLDERS' PARTICIPATION IN (SUSTAINABLE) TOURISM DEVELOPMENT: THE CASE OF THE SOUTH KYNOURIA MUNICIPALITY, GREECE

A PARTICIPAÇÃO DOS PARCEIROS LOCAIS NO DESENVOLVIMENTO DO TURISMO (SUSTENTÁVEL). O CASO DO MUNICÍPIO DE KYNOURIA-SUL, GRÉCIA

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ABSTRACT/RESUMO

The attempt to integrate tourism in rural areas is founded on the understanding that tourism can contribute to their viability. The establishment of the conditions for tourism development requires the mobilisation of the totality of the resources available in an area through networks which highlight the local offering and create synergies based on local planning with a view to sustainability. The current paper explores the participation of stakeholders in tourism development in a Greek municipality, based on a series of in-depth interviews with local actors. The findings point to the lack of sound local development design processes aiming at integrated actions for the utilisation of local resources, of entrepreneurial spirit and of networking and collaboration of the concerned stakeholders who are not involved in public affairs, i.e. of critical for sustainable tourism development factors.

Keywords: Sustainable Tourism, Networks, Participation, Destination Governance, Greece.

JEL Codes: Z130, D830, O150, O180, R580

A tentativa de integrar o turismo nas áreas rurais baseia-se na compreensão de que o mesmo pode contribuir para a sua viabilidade. O estabelecimento de condições para o desenvolvimento do turismo requer a mobilização da totalidade dos recursos disponíveis numa área, através de redes que privilegiem a oferta local e criem sinergias com base no planeamento local, com vista à sua sustentabilidade. O presente artigo explora a participação dos parceiros interessados no desenvolvimento do turismo de um município grego, com base numa série de entrevistas aos atores locais. A conclusão aponta para a falta de processos sólidos de desenho do desenvolvimento local, visando ações integradas para a utilização dos recursos locais, de espírito empreendedor e de trabalho em rede, bem como de colaboração entre as partes interessadas que não estão envolvidas nos negócios públicos, ou seja, de fatores críticos para o desenvolvimento do turismo sustentável.

Palavras-chave: Turismo Sustentável, Redes de Trabalho, Participação, Governança de Destinos, Grécia

Códigos JEL: Z130, D830, O150, O180, R580

1. INTRODUCTION

Worldwide, rural tourism has emerged as a major option for regional development strategies (Briedenhann & Wickens, 2004; Wilson, Fesenmaier, Fesenmaier, & Van

Es, 2001) due to its potential to supplement existing local/regional economic activities and lead to direct income improvements and wider developmental benefits in rural areas (Saxena & Ilbery, 2008). The effort to integrate tourism in rural structures, based on bottom-up processes,

networking and inter-sectoral synergies (Fadeeva, 2005; Saxena & Ilbery, 2008), stems from a holistic theorisation of development, implying the development of all economic sectors, the mobilisation of local potentialities, a focus on SMEs (small and medium enterprises) and entrepreneurship, strong local/regional governance, innovations tailored to local/regional specificities and a sustainability vision (Todtling, 2009). Critical for the success of such a rural development agenda are stakeholders' participation and democracy (Koutsouris, 2004, 2009).

This paper aims at exploring the involvement of local actors in tourism development in the rural municipality of South Kynouria, Greece. Therefore, the networks and cooperation tourism entrepreneurs and local agencies develop, especially with a view to the valorisation of local resources, are examined vis-à-vis the consolidation of the conditions for sustainable (tourism) development.

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

The potential of rural tourism to permeate a wide range of social and economic sectors as well as to utilise many of the resources available at the countryside highlights its pivotal position as a developmental tool. At the same time, due to its diverse and fragmented nature (Saxena & Ilbery, 2008; Vernon, Essex, Pinder, & Curry, 2005), it may render the local society a battlefield of diverse and conflicting interests; while various stakeholders are called upon to cooperate and benefit through the synergies created, they may also well fall into the pit of competition for the distribution and utilization of limited resources (Berno & Bricker, 2001; Wilson et al., 2001).

In this respect, networks, that is, "sets of formal and informal social relationships that shape collaborative action" between (heterogeneous) actors "that transcend organisational structures and boundaries" (Dredge, 2006, p. 270), have attracted increased interest and become a popular organisational form for dealing with questions of (sustainable) tourism development. Network theory, in short, implies that individuals are not isolated but connected to others, i.e. that there is some 'connectedness' (ties; Granovetter, 1973) between actors which may both facilitate and constrain their actions, including economic action (embeddedness; Granovetter 1985); and while actors interact within existing constraints and opportunities they also act upon and restructure them. Therefore, destinations can be conceived as settings of interactions comprising actors, relationships and resources (Scott, Cooper, & Baggio, 2008).

Importantly, networks are not limited to (tangible) resources' coordination and actors' collaboration; they evolve to (collective) learning processes, utilising, empowering and developing local knowledge thus also allowing for the development of innovations (Dredge, 2006; Zach, 2012). Especially the establishment and enhancement of cross-sectoral networks broadens the number of cooperating actors, stretches the boundaries of their collaboration

beyond conventional arrangements and opens wider 'windows of opportunity' for the generation of innovations. According to Fadeeva (2005), cross-sectoral networks respond to the increased complexity of the issues to be dealt with as well as the need to balance the power of the actors involved, and augment the legitimacy of such partnerships as processes aiming at sustainable development practices.

Given that, as aforementioned, the competitive advantage of a destination relies on network configuration rather than on individual firm competencies, different network approaches result in the development of different tourism competencies (Denicolai, Cioccarelli, & Zucchella, 2010). Many studies have indeed shown the importance of various types of partnerships, co-operation and networks, further leading to the emergence of the issue of governance in tourism destinations. The concept of governance itself is characterized by numerous and disparate definitions and confusion (Ruhanen, Scott, Ritchie, & Tkaczynski, 2010). Concerning specifically tourism destinations Beritelle, Bieger, and Laesser (2007, p. 96) assert that "the concept of governance ... consists of setting and developing rules and mechanisms for a policy, as well as business strategies, by involving all the institutions and individuals" (see also: Bramwell & Lane, 2011; Hall, 2011; Nordin & Svensson, 2007). Within such a framework, special attention has been given to DMOs (Destination Marketing and/or Management Organisations), aiming at forming and managing governance structures. DMOs' main purpose is to foster stakeholders' active and collaborative participation in the decision making process through a facilitation strategy involving stakeholders' mobilization, building and managing of their relationships (bridging) and reconciling their diverging interests (d'Angella, De Carlo, & Sainaghi, 2010; Elbe, Hallen, & Axelsson, 2009; Fyall, Garrod, & Wang, 2012).

At this point the fact that local people usually find themselves excluded from such processes should be stressed vis-à-vis the requirement, in terms of sustainable tourism and collaborative planning, for the active involvement/participation of local populations in the design, implementation and control of tourism development (Nunkoo & Smith, 2013; Presenza, DelChiappa, & Sheehan, 2013). As Panyik, Costa, and Rätz (2011) assert, even if not all stakeholders are equally involved in the decision making process, it is necessary that all interests are identified, understood and taken into account.

Moreover, the capacity for holistic consideration of the factors involved in tourism development is a crucial element for development planning, particularly with reference to sustainability (Panyik et al., 2011); the development of such a capacity is thus a challenge for local societies (Berno & Bricker, 2001; Vernon et al., 2005). This is more so since nowadays rural tourism "outstrips the economic value of agriculture to the rural economy" (Haven-Tang & Jones, 2012, p. 29). Such a capacity has to mark the local community, its leadership as well as, given the large number of small-scale and diverse enterprises involved, a substantial number of stakeholders. Such players, as aforementioned,

make up the factors that contribute to the success of rural tourism through the development of cooperative networks, the interconnection of local resources and the configuration and promotion of the local tourism product through appropriate strategic planning (Wilson et al., 2001).

On the other hand, as Janschitz and Zimmermann (2010) point out, a serious problem in relation to the realization of participation in strategic planning is that stakeholders' groups (and the public) taking part in the participatory processes bring forward their views at the 'lower logical levels', that is without been related to the strategy level and thus to the vision and mission from which strategy derives. Therefore, they do not recognize the need to change their values and beliefs which, in turn, can transform capabilities and behaviours and constitute basic elements of sustainable development.

Moreover, collaboration and networking are not easily attained due to factors such as: the diversity of relevant actors and their varied interests and priorities; the lack of time, resources, knowledge/expertise and training, and local attachment; a mentality of low engagement in wider destination development processes; and the avoidance of pursuing commercial objectives by particularly small-scale businesses (Bramwell, 2011; Haven-Tang & Jones, 2012).

3. METHODOLOGY

The current paper aims at exploring local stakeholders' participation in tourism development in the South Kynouria municipality. Data were collected through in-depth interviews addressing relevant local actors' perceptions and behaviours, with emphasis on networking and cooperation. Thirty-one businesses and 7 local agencies (including local authorities) participated in the research carried out in the period December 2011-March 2012. Interviews were taped, transcribed and analysed (exploratory analysis; Sarantakos, 2005, p. 294).

The businesses were drawn from a list provided by the local association of accommodation owners and the local authorities comprising accommodation as well as restaurant (including tavern) owners (100 and 64 respectively). The final sample was selected following the stratification of the population according to the locale and businesses' capacity. The local agencies comprise representatives of the local authorities, the association of accommodation owners, the development agency, two cultural clubs and two agricultural cooperatives.

4. RESULTS

4.1. TOURISM IN SOUTH KYNOURIA

The South Kynouria municipality, located at the south-east of Arkadia Prefecture, Peloponnese, was established through the unification of two (former) municipalities and

an independent community since 2010. It comprises 16 towns and villages with highly varying topography, a fact that determines its interesting and diverse natural environment. Its capital is the town of Leonidio, located in a small but highly productive plain.

The population of the municipality in 2011 is as high as 8,180 inhabitants and declined by 9.1% since 2001. The main occupations of the locals have always been agriculture, navigation and commerce. Recently though, there has been a turn away from agriculture towards services, especially tourism; it suffices to note that the local aubergine registered as PDO is cultivated in only 10 ha. Consequently, the priority of the local agencies is the establishment of the area as a tourism destination through the utilization of local resources.

A large part of the municipality is included in the NATURA 2000 network; at the borders of the 'Mt Parnonas – Moustos wetland' ecodesign area, biotopes of high aesthetic and scientific value are located. The area is known for its hiking routes, including the international path 33. Locations with geological and speleological interest are also found in the area. The distinctive cultural identity of the area stems from the Tsakonones inheritance, a large group of inhabitants coming from the ancient Doric tribes. Main features are the Tsakoniki dialect, an evolution of the ancient Doric dialect and the Tsakonikos dance devoted to Theseus' attempt to escape from Labyrinth. In the area, where according to the mythology Dionysus was raised, ruins of ancient as well as byzantine villages, forts, graves, temples and churches, ports, roads and quarries can be found. The area is also famous for its monasteries. Many among the settlements have been officially registered as traditional owing to the outstanding preservation of their 18th and 19th century architecture.

Tourism demand is covered by 22 hotels, 88 rent rooms businesses and two camping sites. The area mainly attracts Greek families and pensioners looking for a peaceful environment for their vacations. Nevertheless, foreign tourism is not negligible; additionally, quite many foreigners have bought houses in the area.

4.2. RESOURCES' MANAGEMENT

The area's features as a tourism destination comprise its natural beauty and cultural identity. According to the local agencies local development is (to be) pursued through the development of soft tourism which will combine activities in the nature, the agricultural economy and education revolving around local architecture. However, the management of both the natural and the cultural resources does not meet expectations; it is a commonplace that the degree of utilization of the resources does not meet the area's potential.

The local culture is mainly promoted through festivities which, organized by the local authorities, aim at the entertainment of locals and visitors and the promotion of local products. Major such events are Easter and the local

(PDO) aubergine feast including music and dances, local products' sales and the preparation and enjoyment of local dishes. The second feature of the local culture, the Tsakoniki dialect, is largely neither spoken nor promoted so as to enrich tourists' experiences. At the same time, local entrepreneurship is limited to accommodation and eating without being supplemented by other activities.

Both local agencies and entrepreneurs believe that the area's natural environment is partially protected, claiming at the same time that it is rather unharmed; the institutionalization of the ecodevelopment area in 2008 was a decisive step towards its protection. On the other hand, potential dangers which may downgrade the natural resources, such as the irrational use of resources by agriculture and tourism, the inadequate institutional framework (lack of land register and spatial planning) and the inactivity of the relevant state control mechanisms, resulting at considerable pressure for often illegal building developments outside the existing settlements, are referred to. Nevertheless, interviewees do not object either to real estate or the development of heavy infrastructure (such as a ski resort).

A major constraint for tourism development is considered to be the poor road network and the lack of coastal lines connecting the area with Piraeus and other well-known regional tourism destinations. A further important constraint, referred to by all participants, relates to the lack of development planning perpetuating the inadequate institutional framework as well as locals' distrust and reluctance to participate in/undertake local action. According to the entrepreneurs, organisational weaknesses, the lack of coordination between various agencies, which "act independently, even if they serve the same purpose", and "the lack of professionalism" on their own part discourage some of the tourists to revisit the area; additionally, the current crisis is expected to result in the stagnation of tourism in the area.

4.3. TOURISM ENTREPRENEURSHIP

The large majority of the interviewed tourism entrepreneurs are permanent inhabitants of the area; their average age is 48 years; 45% are women. Half of them have inherited the business and operate it on a seasonal basis as a family business. The entrepreneurs' educational level varies; additionally, none of them but one has followed training in tourism. Tourism is the main occupation for less than half of the entrepreneurs; nine out of ten claimed that their family income comes from multiple resources. Two thirds said that they had been looking for opportunities to access tourism related programmes. One out of three succeeded and thus obtained financial assistance to develop his/her business. Their main sources of information were the local development agency, the regional and national authorities, occupational associations, the internet, their immediate social environment and mass media. Major problems have been bureaucracy, delayed repayments for their in-

vestments, causing liquidity problems and obliging them to borrow from the banks and, in some cases, the fuzziness of the legal framework.

According to the local agencies, the capacity of local businesses is moderate. Their further development is related to entrepreneurs' training which would allow them to undertake initiatives and access investment programmes, resulting in a considerable improvement of the quality of the tourism offering. Half of the interviewed agencies have managed tourism related programmes and consider their contribution to local development being significant; through such programmes a number of local entrepreneurs obtained financial assistance for their investments while, in parallel, public works and the restoration of sites as well as the promotion of the area were attained.

On their part, the entrepreneurs maintain that bureaucracy, the seasonal character of tourism and the low level of tourists' spending are factors suspending entrepreneurial development; moreover, the current financial crisis has eliminated incentives in terms of undertaking entrepreneurial initiatives. Thus the plans of three out of four for the near future do not include investments; half of them are uncertain and pessimist about the future of their businesses. Their proposals relating to tourism development include the improvement of the existing or new infrastructure (3 out of 4), the marketing of the area (1 out of 3) and the design of activities which will facilitate the acquaintance of tourists with the place (1 out of 5).

4.4. NETWORKING – THE INTEGRATION OF TOURISM IN THE LOCAL ECONOMY

4.4.1. TOURISM BUSINESSES NETWORKING

The local association of the accommodation owners is the professional body representing all those who are occupied with accommodation services while commercial businesses are represented through 3 different associations, one in each of the previously existing administrative units which nowadays constitute the municipality.

Tourism businesses can also join the Local Quality Convention (see: Koutsouris, 2009), a network established since 2003 by the local development agency, aiming at bringing together tourism and agricultural units in order to promote the area's identity and secure the quality of the local products and services. However, only one out of ten of the interviewed entrepreneurs is knowledgeable of the Convention and none participates. Among the representatives of local agencies only one knows about it claiming that its function is unsatisfactory. Nevertheless, the agencies believe that, in general, tourism and agriculture interconnect. Only two representatives complained that the local produces are not adequately marketed but took notice of recent attempts by hotel owners to promote local delicacies.

The representatives stress the fact that the local networks between tourism entrepreneurs as well as those be-

tween all the area's entrepreneurs are extremely weak and cooperation is based on personal relationships. This is attributed to "the lack of a culture of cooperation", "indifference towards public matters" and "non-participation in the associations' administration".

4.4.2. NETWORKS BETWEEN ENTREPRENEURS AND AGENCIES

The views of the local agencies' representatives regarding the frequency and quality of the relationships between their organisations and local entrepreneurs vary with only half of them stating a satisfactory, though infrequent, level of cooperation.

More than two out of three of the entrepreneurs know of actions related to tourism development undertaken by the local agencies, mainly entertainment activities (8 out of 10) and the area's promotion (1 out of 4); one mentioned the establishment on the part of the local authorities of a tourism development committee. The local authorities and associations are evaluated higher in comparison to the local development agency and the central (regional and national) administration, even though the highest evaluation scores revolve around medium. Nevertheless, the situation is more complex. For example, one entrepreneur who declared that he was very satisfied with the services provided by the local development agency in view to his access to a tourism investment programme also appears "very disappointed due to the lack of communication afterwards". Furthermore, one out of three entrepreneurs does not have a clear picture of its activities and thus refused to evaluate it.

4.4.3. LOCAL AGENCIES' NETWORKING

The local authorities play a central role in the area's agencies' networking since all of them cooperate with them. A feature of the area is the absence of collaboration between similar bodies activated in different (groups of) settlements, a fact attributed to the localism of the formerly independent administrative units nowadays unified into the municipality. As far as networking with external actors is concerned, the agricultural cooperative shows considerable activity; such activity goes beyond the collaboration necessary for the marketing of their produce and concerns the regional and national authorities and two educational/research institutes. The development agency has also established relationships beyond the areas' boundaries.

The views of the local agencies with regard to their level of cooperation differ; some believe that such efforts are successful, others that they are not and yet others that there is some success in their efforts for coordination. Their representatives maintain that "some of the agencies work well together" while in other cases "communication is difficult" or "cooperation takes place in a limited number of issues", mainly in the form of consultation, "which

[however] does not imply the establishment of steady communication channels".

4.5. LOCAL CONSULTATION – INFORMATION

The entrepreneurs claimed that they contribute to the design of local actions through their participation in the boards and the assemblies of their association. Nevertheless, it is accepted that such participation is limited, especially on the part of younger entrepreneurs. Six out of ten entrepreneurs acknowledge the fact that they do not actively participate in the collective activities of their association mainly due to their engagement in multiple professional activities. Thus, participation refers to the payment of their annual fee and attendance of the cultural events organized by the association; only two have taken part in consultations out of who one maintained that "no matter what our proposals are, they are always bypassed". Concurrently, some of the hotel owners believe that the association cannot adequately represent their interests since their businesses are under a different legal framework as compared to the entrepreneurs who rent rooms and operate without being strictly controlled by the state and thus compete with hotels on an unequal footing.

According to the local agencies' representatives the area's needs are defined "through the everyday contacts of their staff with the local population" and discussions within each of the agencies; in turn, the satisfaction of the local needs is related to the existence of opportunities, as, for example, investment programmes. Nevertheless, one of the representatives noted that "all decisions are taken at the central/national level", usually "without a clear target"; additionally, consultation processes are rare while, in case they are held, the results are often ignored. Although such a picture is but a positive one, they underline their efforts to mobilise the participation of certain segments of the local population in local development processes; an example is the rural women's cooperative of Leonidio. However, often such attempts fail as locals do not respond to such initiatives.

The representatives recognise the need for the improvement of the mechanisms aiming at the provision of timely, reliable and appropriate information to the local population which for the moment is based on public announcements and briefings; they also accept that although general information is provided, access to detailed and tailor-made information is difficult. Furthermore, although they reckon that such passive methods do not mobilise the local population, they insist in the intensification of information provision, including the establishment of a public information centre in the municipality's offices. The case of the ecodesvelopment area is characteristic in this respect: although two out of three entrepreneurs know about it, half of them claim that the information they receive about it is occasional and fragmentary; furthermore, only two of them participated in the consultation process aiming at its establishment.

5. CONCLUSION

Local people's expectations concerning tourism development in the research area are founded on its abundant natural and cultural resources. Nevertheless, the existence of resources per se is not sufficient for local development (Terluin, 2003) and does not necessarily make the area a successful tourism destination (Wilson et al., 2001). At the same time, the view that is dominant in the area focuses on the management of the local, mainly tangible resources (and the interplay between economy and the environment) thus neglecting the social dimension, the human resources (and the development of human capabilities) that is, a crucial dimension in tourism development (Denicolai et al., 2010). However, as underlined by Panyik et al. (2011), community mobilisation and its involvement in decision-making and the control of development processes is a prerequisite for sustainable development; in this respect, local leadership is of crucial importance and "key to organisational effectiveness and successful endogenous development activities" (Davies 2011, p. 61, as cited in Haven-Tang & Jones, 2012, p. 30).

In the research area, local leadership does not seem to have been successful in terms of organisational effectiveness regarding development processes. Despite the fact that various development programmes have been implemented, these have not sufficiently been related to the satisfaction of local needs and have not led to the realisation of fundamental (institutional) infrastructure (waste management, land register, spatial planning, etc.). On the contrary, interventions have been scattered and failed to create synergies thus pointing to the inadequacy of development design and the lack of coordination between the local, the regional and the national level.

Furthermore, tourism development is conceived of in terms of local events which, however, do not contribute markedly to the promotion of the area and its differentiation vis-à-vis competitors; additionally, the existing positive attitudes on the part of some of the local entrepreneurs who actively contribute to such activities (e.g. cultural events) is not further utilised. Notably, the Tsakoniki dialect despite rhetoric and its potential to generate a unique tourism destination image and enrich tourists' experience in combination, for example, with the archaeological sites, is largely neglected; such negligence weakens the awareness of the local community for the value of such a cultural resource and on the long-term may result in its distortion or the invalidation.

The feeble entrepreneurial spirit and the weak relationship between tourism and other sectors of the local economy ascertained in the area are also expressions of the inadequate development processes which target tourism rather than holistic local development. Actions, such as the training of local entrepreneurs and the establishment of networks, which would foster the local knowledge base, widen entrepreneurial horizons and allow access to markets through modern, collective schemes are not in place;

actions which would enrich the tourism product and might overcome the seasonal nature of tourism are also lacking.

It is also obvious that the current state of tourism development in the research area also owes to poor stakeholders' participation; the limited participation of, at least, the local tourism entrepreneurs in planning processes, their passive role as recipients of information and the devaluation of their own association are indicative of the situation. A tentative explanation for this may be the diversity of interests of those involved in professional associations; in any case, the fact is that the local entrepreneurs do not strive together for the attainment of common goals. However, notice should be also taken to allegations that "participation is easier advocated than achieved" (Goymen, 2000, as cited in d'Angella et al., 2010, p. 63) or that it "cannot be assumed that to participate is the default position or the social norm" (Shortall, 2008, p. 455). It can therefore be argued that participation is rather a behaviour which is realized through people's mobilization (see: Koutsouris, 2004).

The limited participation of the local entrepreneurs has at least two repercussions. First, it weakens collaboration among them as well as between them and external actors and thus their capability to perceive and utilise entrepreneurial opportunities which, in turn, would foster innovative thinking and strengthen their willingness to participate in development processes. At the same time, such activities would allow stakeholders' collectivities to play a decisive role in development and foster a trust climate between groups, which, despite not benefiting in terms direct economic revenues, contribute in putting together the prerequisites for their attainment.

Second, it limits the capacity of the local society to grasp the 'real meaning' of various development interventions, to orient itself towards the exploration of the most appropriate solutions vis-à-vis its needs and problems, to make decisions and control tourism development processes. Our research has clearly identified gaps in terms of information dissemination and expectations as well as that the latter divert from the espoused model of soft tourism development. It is worth noting that in the area, despite the fact that all parties focus on the lack of information, training and in the last instance of comprehension, actors in fact deny to participate in activities which would ameliorate the situation; instead they expect solutions to come through infrastructure development and the marketing of the area. Finally, the lack of involvement of stakeholders in the design of the strategy of tourism development prevents the establishment of the 'logics of sustainability' (Janschitz & Zimmermann, 2010).

A solution under such circumstances might be the establishment of a DMO (or some co-ordination structure) through an initiative taken jointly by the local authorities and the development agency (possibly along with one or more interested entrepreneurs). As underlined by Ruhanen (2013) "[T]he reasons for, and challenges associated with, local government involvement and direction in addressing the objectives of sustainable development in a tourism

destination context are numerous" (p. 82); development agencies have also the potential to play a decisive role in such a process (Koutsouris, 2009). Based on the realization that the interdependence pertaining tourism development creates incentives for combined action, especially under the current economic crisis, such an organization should strive to identify stakeholders and bring them together in order to involve them in achieving accepted and sustainable outcomes (Elbe et al., 2009; Koutsouris, 2009). Such an endeavour can take off with 'limited' co-operation (Elbe et al., 2009) or 'project' partnerships (Svensson, Nordin, & Flagestad, 2005); so as, in the first place, to find a common understanding among stakeholders (esp. on 'collaborative' vs. 'competitive' advantage; Fyall et al., 2012); build upon existing capabilities, including the provision of training schemes, and enhance collaborative learning (Haugland, Ness, Grønseth, & Aarstad, 2011); mobilise/co-ordinate (some of the distributed) resources for the solution of a concrete, pending problem; and thus build the DMO's legitimacy and trust within the local society.

In a nutshell, our research in the South Kynouria municipality has shown the existence of extremely weak governance structures and limited community mobilisation resulting in limited participation in collective (tourism) development processes in the area. Furthermore, the lack of appropriate information and training as well as of collective learning processes results, on the one hand, in limited capacity for holistic theorisation of development and, on the other hand, in the predominance of chaotic conceptions of, at least, local agencies and tourism entrepreneurs about (sustainable) tourism development. Accordingly, local actors' views are restricted at the 'lower logical levels' thus undermining the establishment of the 'logics of sustainability'. The reorganisation of local structures and efforts and the reorientation of the local society's priorities, also triggered by the current economic crisis in Greece, may thus facilitate the turn (both conceptually and in practice) towards a more sustainable future. And, although this study draws on the experience of Greece, these lessons may be of wider interest.

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THE POTENTIAL FOR COOPERATION BETWEEN WINE AND TOURISM BUSINESSES IN THE PROVISION OF TOURISM EXPERIENCES: THE CASE OF THE DOURO VALLEY OF PORTUGAL

O POTENCIAL PARA A COOPERAÇÃO ENTRE EMPRESAS DE TURISMO E PRODUÇÃO DE VINHO NA OFERTA DE EXPERIÊNCIAS TURÍSTICAS: O CASO DA REGIÃO DO DOURO, EM PORTUGAL

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ABSTRACT/RESUMO

The provision of tourism experiences depends on cooperative relationships of businesses operating not only in the same, but also in complementary industries, as it is the case of wine production industry. This paper then focuses on the occurrence, or not, of inter-sectoral and/or diagonal cooperation between businesses operating in wine and tourism industries. The aim is to understand and discuss the current situation of cooperation in the region and its (potential) adoption to the provision of tourism experiences. Data here presented was collected through interview-based face-to-face questionnaire applied to businesses' decision makers, owners/managers. Results indicate cooperation is already being adopted by many of the owners/managers of wine and tourism businesses in the region and that although visitor experiences were not clearly indicated by respondents as one of the reasons to cooperate,

A oferta de experiências turísticas resulta da cooperação não só entre empresas que operam na mesma indústria, mas também entre empresas que operam em indústrias complementares, como é o caso das indústrias de turismo e de produção de vinho. Este artigo analisa a ocorrência, ou não, da cooperação intersectorial e/ou diagonal entre as empresas que operam nas indústrias de produção de vinho e turismo, tendo como objetivo examinar a situação atual da cooperação na região e compreender o potencial da cooperação entre estas empresas para a oferta de experiências turísticas. Os dados apresentados foram recolhidos através de um questionário baseado em entrevistas face-a-face aplicado aos proprietários/gestores das empresas. Os resultados indicam que a cooperação já é implementada por muitas das empresas inquiridas e que, embora as experiências turísticas não tenham sido claramente indicadas

¹ Correia, A. I. (2013), *An Examination of Inter-Business Cooperation by Wine and Tourism Small Sized Businesses in the Douro Valley of Portugal*, Thesis (PhD), School of Tourism, Bournemouth University.

offering complementary and diversified products/services and activities is one of the main reasons for businesses, particularly for tourism businesses, to cooperate with wine businesses. It was acknowledged by respondents an increasing demand for wine-related activities (as participating in harvests and wine tasting) and the need to offer adequate products/services to meet wine-related demand expectations of tourists when visiting the region. The results of this paper indicate that respondents, particularly tourism businesses, recognise that this offer is the result of cooperative relationships with wine businesses. Therefore, one can say that there is a great potential for cooperation between wine and tourism in the provision of tourism experiences in this region.

Keywords: Rural Tourism, Wine Tourism, Inter-Sectoral Cooperation, Tourism Experiences

JEL Codes: L83, L21, D22

1. INTRODUCTION

Overall, the tourism industry is characterised by the existence of multiple players (March and Wilkinson, 2009), and by its interdependent, fragmented and multi-sectoral nature (Fyall and Garrod, 2005). These characteristics contribute to the difficulty of enterprises surviving in isolation (Fyall and Garrod, 2005; Pansiri, 2007) in a highly competitive and complex marketplace (Fyall and Spyriadis, 2003; Buhalis and Peters, 2006) and providing alone all the products and services visitors need (Pesámma et al., 2007). This is particularly true at a time when consumers have become increasingly informed and active (Neuhofer et al., 2012) and that they are more and more in search for unique and diverse authentic experiences when travelling and visiting destinations (Gilmore and Pine, 2002; Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004; Ritchie and Tung, 2011; Clifford and Robinson, 2012).

The provision of tourism experiences to visitors depends on the interaction of different players through which complementary products/services and activities are combined (Scott et al., 2008), to deliver a quality product (Telfer, 2000), more specifically through cooperative initiatives between different players (Morgan et al., 2009). This is particularly true in rural areas, as in the case of wine-based areas, where, according to Getz (1999), the overall tourist experience comprises and depends on the existence of a set of elements, including the population and landscape, as well as different stakeholders and services. Thus, one can argue that the overall tourist experience in rural areas in general, and in wine tourism areas in particular, depends on cooperative business relationships involving different industries (Getz and Brown, 2006). Through cooperation, businesses can save costs, provide added value products and services (Human and Provan, 1997; European Com-

pelos inquiridos como uma das principais razões para cooperar, já a oferta de produtos/serviços e atividades complementares e diversificadas é uma das principais razões para as empresas, sobretudo as turísticas, cooperarem com as empresas produtoras de vinho. Os inquiridos reconheceram, por um lado, uma crescente procura de atividades relacionadas com a participação em vindimas e provas de vinho e, por outro, a necessidade de uma oferta adequada por forma a dar resposta às expectativas dos turistas que visitam a região. Os resultados indicam que há um reconhecimento, por parte dos inquiridos, de que esta oferta resulta da cooperação estabelecida entre as empresas. Desta forma, considera-se que existe um grande potencial para a cooperação entre estas empresas na oferta de experiências turísticas nesta região.

Palavras-chave: Turismo Rural, Enoturismo, Cooperação Intersetorial, Experiências Turísticas

Códigos JEL: L83, L21, D22

mission, 2003; Fuller-Love and Thomas, 2004; Shaw, 2006), and/or experiences to customers (Morgan et al., 2009).

Nevertheless, owners/managers of SMEs rarely have the time to participate in cooperative initiatives given their day-to-day management activities (Morgan et al., 2009). Thus, it seems important to further extend the existing knowledge in relation to whether owners/managers of small businesses operating in different industries do recognise or not the potential of cooperation to bring in complementary strengths, to provide diverse experiences to visitors and thereby be more competitive.

This paper then examines whether, or not, cooperation is being considered and adopted in the Douro Valley region by owners/managers of micro and small wine and tourism businesses to face these challenges and to be more competitive in the provision of experiences to customers.

A brief overview of tourism in rural areas is firstly presented, followed by a review of the concept of cooperation and an outline of previous research into potential benefits of cooperation. Then follows the methodology and the presentation and discussion of the research findings. Finally, conclusions and implications are outlined.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. TOURISM IN RURAL AREAS

Rural areas in Europe are characterised not only by depopulation, infrastructure inadequacies and high dependence on farming (Stathopoulou et al. 2004), but also remoteness and geographical isolation (Anderson, 2000). While remoteness and geographical isolation of rural areas can work as barriers and hinder business development

(Morrison and Thomas, 1999; Getz and Carlsen, 2005), and competitiveness (Page et al., 1999), they can simultaneously contribute to its attractiveness and constitute an opportunity for tourism development (Page and Getz, 1997; Edmunds, 1999; Scott, 2000). This attractiveness and opportunity for tourism development is the result of the characteristics of rural areas referred above and also of the developments in tourist-customers behaviour, such as improved lifestyles, increases in health awareness (WTO, 1997), valorisation of the contact with natural and rural settings and culture (Roberts and Hall, 2001) and the increasing search for experiences (Briedenhann and Wickens, 2004).

Moreover, tourism in rural areas has been widely promoted and relied upon as a means of addressing the social and economic challenges facing peripheral rural areas, as enabling the safeguarding of the integrity of the countryside resources and maintaining rural ways of life (Shaw and Williams, 2002). Indeed, tourism in rural areas can contribute both to the revitalization and promotion of traditional activities and the differentiation of the regions, particularly through the integration with local products, as it is the case of wine (Hall and Mitchell, 2000; Telfer, 2001). Wine production is, in turn, seen as an important component for the diversification of rural areas and the development of rural tourism. Its contribution to the promotion of agriculture revitalization, and to maintaining people in rural areas is of growing importance. It also contributes to the preservation of traditions and landscapes, and to the promotion of local products and the region where they are produced, contributing in this way to rural diversification (Hall, 2004) and to the attractiveness of rural areas, for example in the form of routes, as it is the case of wine routes (Bruwer, 2003).

2.2. MAIN CHARACTERISTICS OF SMES IN RURAL AREAS

SMEs are mostly family owned and run (Curran et al., 1993), and characterised by small establishments, lack of information and skills (Morrison, 1998; European Commission, 2003), and scarce resources (e.g. human, financial and material) (Morrison, 1998; European Commission, 2003).

In addition, and although businesses implemented in rural settings can have diverse opportunities (e.g. natural resources, landscape), they may also have to face different constraints to their activity (e.g. North and Smallbone, 1996; Stathopoulou et al., 2004). When SMEs are located in rural areas the difficulties associated with their smallness are exacerbated. Competitiveness is particularly influenced by the quality of transport infrastructure, the availability of suitably skilled and professionally trained staff, and external trade factors (Patterson and Anderson, 2003). To survive in remote rural areas, SMEs need to be adaptable, and this can result in them being more innovative in some respects than businesses elsewhere (Patterson and Anderson, 2003; North and Smallbone, 2004). The establishment of cooperation relationships/initiatives comes at the forefront of the list of options that can be adopted by SMEs operating in rural areas to be innovative and overcome some

of their location-related difficulties and enhance their performance (Smallbone et al., 2002).

2.3. CONCEPT, TYPES AND POTENTIAL BENEFITS OF INTER-BUSINESS COOPERATION

For the purposes of this paper, the term cooperation is used as describing the intentional and voluntary relationships/initiatives in which two or more independent businesses and/or individuals interact. Cooperation partners combine their efforts and resources on behalf of their businesses, and the initiatives are usually implemented in order to obtain mutual benefits (e.g. Barnir and Smith, 2002; European Commission, 2003).

Cooperation can be of different types; that will depend on the business context and on the demands that are put upon a business at any given time (European Commission, 2003). Cooperation can be vertical (between businesses that operate at different levels within the distribution channel) (Fyall and Garrod, 2005); horizontal (between two or more unrelated businesses at the same level of the supply chain) (Soosay et al., 2008); and diagonal or inter-sectoral (between businesses operating in different sectors or industries) (Gray, 1989; Fyall and Garrod, 2005). In inter-sectoral cooperation businesses are not seen as competitors but rather as partners providing complementary products or services (Fyall and Garrod, 2005). In this context, cooperation contributes to added value products of each participating business (Weidenfield et al., 2011).

Cooperation is widely recognised to be beneficial for businesses, particularly to SMEs (e.g. Human and Provan, 1997; European Commission, 2003; Fuller-Love and Thomas, 2004; Shaw, 2006). Through cooperation, tourism businesses can improve their facilities and enhance their products/services (Bastakis et al., 2004) in order to respond to tourists' needs (Fyall and Garrod, 2005) and to add perceived value to their products and services (Mitchell van der Linden, 2010). In addition, businesses can also improve their marketing activities (Meyer-Chech, 2005), widen market access and therefore increase their income through greater customers/visitors numbers (Fyall and Garrod, 2005). Also, through cooperation tourism businesses can increase their income (Hall et al., 1997), enhance their image (Fyall and Garrod, 2005), and increase their capacity to compete more effectively, than they would do if in isolation (Fyall and Garrod, 2005). It helps businesses to deal with their limitations (e.g. limited resources) (Pansiri, 2007), particularly those located in peripheral destinations (Morrison, 1998), and to explore innovative opportunities to operate locally and in a globalised business environment (Novelli et al., 2006). In addition, cooperation can contribute to enhance businesses' capacity of attracting, transporting, hosting, and managing tourists in a destination (Palmer and Bejou, 1995), and contribute to a coherent experience for visitors/customers (Lemmetynen, 2009). Thus, it seems that cooperation may contribute to meet consumers' expectations in terms

of the quality of products and/or services, and also in terms of the diversity of activities and the emotional and spiritual benefits sought in unique and memorable experiences (Morgan et al., 2009). This is particularly important at a time when there is a growth in experience-related offer at many destinations, including rural areas and when experiences are increasingly considered important to the survival, differentiation and competitiveness of tourism businesses and destinations (Pine and Gilmore, 1999; Morgan et al., 2009). In this context, cooperation is believed as essential as it may contribute to the survival and/or success of tourism businesses (Palmer and Bejou, 1995; Fyall and Garrod, 2005), but also as essential to the enhancement of the overall tourism experience (Lemmetynen, 2009; Morgan et al., 2009). Customers are increasingly more demanding and they are more and more in search for unique and diverse authentic experiences when travelling and visiting destinations (Gilmore and Pine, 2002; Prahalad and Ramaswamy, 2004; Ritchie and Tung, 2011; Clifford and Robinson, 2012). As a result, businesses suppliers are in search of new ways to distinguish themselves and to fight for the customer's attention (Binkhorst and Dekker, 2009). Thus, the provision of tourism experiences to visitors depends on the interaction of different players through which complementary products/services and activities are combined (Scott et al., 2008), to deliver a quality product (Telfer, 2000), more specifically through cooperative initiatives between different players (Morgan et al., 2009).

3. METHODOLOGY

The results here presented are part of a wider study², aiming at examining inter-business cooperation between wine and tourism SMEs in the Douro valley of Portugal. The focus was on cooperation in the same and in a different industry. This paper will only focus on some aspects related to inter-sectoral cooperation.

Empirical data was gathered by means of a survey through the use of a face-to-face interview-based questionnaire. The target population was composed of owners/managers of tourism and wine businesses (decision makers) in the nineteen parishes that comprise the Douro Valley as indicated in Table 1, the tourism/hospitality industry businesses taken into consideration in the current study were: accommodation (hotels and rural tourism establishments), restaurants and leisure businesses. The identification of these categories was facilitated by the fact that there were lists of the number of businesses provided by both industries organisations. A list of the different categories of businesses was obtained in early September of 2009 from

² Correia, A. I. (2013), *An Examination of Inter-Business Cooperation by Wine and Tourism Small and Sized Businesses in the Douro Valley of Portugal*, Thesis (PhD), School of Tourism, Bournemouth University.

the national tourism governmental organisation, Turismo de Portugal, and also the Regional Tourism Authorities and Municipalities. With regard to wine businesses, based on the information about the categories and the number of businesses provided by Institute of Vine and Wine (IVV), two categories of business can be found in the Douro, namely wine producers, and wine producers and bottlers. The latter were selected to be part of the study. These wine businesses were classified by the researcher as 'Quintas' and they refer to those businesses that produce, bottle and sell their products in the market. This name was adopted in this study mainly for two reasons. First, it was the name mostly used by the respondents when referring to wine producers and bottlers. Second, this name was also used in order to not contribute to any confusion when it comes to the legal classifications of wine businesses used in Portugal. The population of wine businesses considered in this study are also presented in Table 1.

TABLE 1. TYPOLOGY OF BUSINESSES IN THE TARGET POPULATION

Categories of tourism businesses	Total (population)
Accommodation	17
Rural tourism establishments	79
Restaurants	87
Leisure businesses	14
Total	197
Wine businesses	
"Quintas"	259

Source: Author.

A total of 200 interviews were conducted (100 of tourism businesses and 100 wine businesses). Considering that there are different categories, or strata, within tourism businesses (accommodation, rural accommodation, restaurants and leisure businesses), a stratified random sampling process was undertaken, to ensure that each significant dimension of the population was represented in the sample (Sarantakos, 2005). With regard to wine businesses, a systematic sampling method was used, as only one category was used in the study ("Quintas" – wine producers that sell their products in the market).

Wine and tourism are two different industries, but they are also potentially complementary industries, which is due to their characteristics and more specifically to their products. The potential relationship between the tourism and wine industries has been examined in the literature given the characteristics of both industries and also given the potential benefits that may result from the interaction of pairing tourism and wine together (Telfer, 2001). Thus, understanding perspectives and involvement of owners/managers of businesses of these two industries with regard to cooperation is important to comprehend the potential of cooperation in the provision of experiences to customers.

Therefore, a comparative analysis has been undertaken, and the type of business (wine and tourism) has been identified as the independent variable. A Chi-Square Test for Independence was used to verify the existence of statistically significant differences between the two groups of the independent variable (wine and tourism respondents) and nominal data (occurrence of cooperation and reasons for cooperation). Chi-square tests were performed for a confidence interval (p) of 0,05. When $p = < 0,05$ the effect size is also calculated (Phi value for 2 x 2 tables and Cramer's V for bigger tables) (Pallant, 2007). Results of statistical tests will be provided in the respective tables, but reference to it will be kept to the situations where differences are evident. When the significance level (p) is less than 0.05, the null hypothesis (that there are no differences between the answers given by wine and tourism respondents) was rejected and the alternative (that there were significant differences) was accepted.

In order to determine if the proportion of cases in the sample would differ from the distribution in the population (to determine if they were significantly different statistically) (Pallant, 2007), a Chi-Square Test for Goodness-of-fit was conducted. The test was conducted for categorical data, namely the different categories within the same type of business. In the case of wine businesses, the Chi-Square Test for Goodness-of-fit was not conducted because only one category (wine producers and bottlers) was chosen to be part of this research. The test results indicated that there were no significant differences in the proportion of the categories of tourism businesses identified in the current sample, as compared with proportion in the population ($\chi^2 = 5.005$; $n = 100$; $df = 3$; $p = 0.171$). These results mean that the way tourism businesses are distributed in the sample (in terms of their categories) is suitable for the proposed analyses.

3.1. CHARACTERISTICS OF THE BUSINESSES AND OF THE RESPONDENTS IN THE SAMPLE

The businesses that participated in the study are characterised in Table 2. Businesses were essentially micro businesses, as in total, 72% of the businesses had fewer than 10 employees, followed by small businesses (20.5% had more than 10 and less than 50 employees). On average, the businesses had 15 all year full time employees (overall mean value calculated using the original interval type scale). As indicated in the literature, the definition of SMEs adopted in this research was the definition based on the recommendation of European Commission based on the number of (full time) employees. Micro businesses have < 10, Small businesses have < 50 and Medium businesses have < 250, as presented in Table X. In addition, and as shown in Table 2, statistically significant differences were found ($p = 0.000$), with a small effect size (Cramer's V = 0.206) because tourism businesses were more likely than wine businesses to have less than 10 employees (micro). In turn, there were more wine businesses that would be classified as being small (10-40 employees) and medium (50-249 employees).

The Portuguese market was the main market (73% in total) for both wine and tourism businesses. Nevertheless, significant differences were found ($p = 0.002$) with a small effect size (Cramer's V = 0.250), because tourism businesses were more likely to sell their products/services to the Portuguese market, than wine businesses. In the case of wine businesses, only a few indicated other markets ($n = 17$). In this case, the other main markets were USA, Brazil, Canada and Angola. In the case of the tourism businesses, only 3 indicated another market (USA) where they sell their products/services.

TABLE 2. CHARACTERISTICS OF PARTICIPATING BUSINESSES IN THE STUDY (SAMPLE)

Size (all year full time employees)	Tourism		Wine		Total		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	
<10 (micro)	81	81	63	63	144	72	
10-49 (small)	15	15	26	26	41	20,5	
50-249 (medium)	4	4	11	11	15	7,5	
Total	100	100.0	100	100.0	200	100.0	
Chi-Square results	$\chi^2 = 8.468$		d.f. = 2		p = 0.014		Cramer's V = 0.206
Mean	7.99 (13.408)		21.9 (44.235)		14.95 (33.34)		

Markets/sources of turnover of wine and tourism businesses

Main markets (by turnover value)	Tourism		Wine		Total		
	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Portugal	82	82	64	64	146	73	
European Union	15	15	19	19	34	17	
Other	3	3	17	17	20	10	
Total	100	100.0	100	100.0	200	100.0	
Chi-Square results	$\chi^2 = 12.490$		d.f. = 2		p = 0.002		Cramer's V = 0.250

n – sample; χ^2 – Chi-square value; d.f. – degrees of freedom; p – probability value.

The profile of the respondents (position in the business, experience in working in the position, age, gender and educational background) is presented in Table 3. The results revealed that 59.5% of the respondents were owners and 40.5% managers, with statistically significant differences found. The difference is that the respondents from tourism businesses were more likely to have been the owner than the respondents from the wine businesses. Most of respondents had become either the owner or the manager in the last 20 years prior to the interview. On average, and based on the overall mean value (calculated based on the original interval types scale), the respondents of the wine and tourism businesses had been working in the position of owner/manager for 8 years. The results indicated that wine and tourism respondents differed significantly ($p = 0.028$) with a small effect size (Cramer's $V = 0.189$) in terms of their experience in working as own-

ers and/or as managers. This difference is that tourism respondents had less years of experience (44%) as owners and/or as managers than wine respondents (26%).

With regard to their age, the owners/managers of the tourism and wine businesses were likely to be relatively young, as 68% were less than 50 years old and the mean age for tourism business respondents was 45 and for wine business respondents 44. The overall mean age for the respondents of wine and tourism businesses was 48.

As is also shown in Table 3, the owners/managers of wine and tourism businesses were more likely to have been educated at a higher education level (65.5% in total). Nevertheless, there were more respondents from wine businesses having achieved a higher-level education (84%) than tourism respondents. These differences were statistically significant ($p = 0.000$) with a medium effect size (Cramer's $V = 0.389$).

TABLE 3. CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS (SAMPLE)

Position in the business	Tourism		Wine		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Owner	69	69	50	50	119	59.5
Manager	31	31	50	50	81	40.5
Total	100	100.0	100	100.0	200	100.0
Chi-Square results	$\chi^2 = 6.723$ d.f. = 1 p = 0.010 Phi = 0.194					
Age	Tourism		Wine		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
<= 30 years	13	13	12	12	25	12.5
31-49 years	52	52	59	59	111	55.5
+50 years	35	35	29	29	64	32.0
Total	100	100.0	100	100.0	200	100.0
Chi-Square results	$\chi^2 = 1.044$ d.f. = 2 p = 0.593					
Mean (standard deviation)	44.9 (13.596)		43.66 (12.51)		44.28 (13.05)	
Gender	n	%	n	%	n	%
Male	71	71	79	79	150	75
Female	29	29	21	21	50	25
Total	100	100.0	100	100.0	200	100.0
Chi-Square results	$\chi^2 = 1.307$ d.f. = 1 p = 0.253					
Educational background	n	%	n	%	n	%
Pre-Higher education	53	53.0	16	16.0	69	34.5
Higher education	47	47.0	84	84.0	131	65.5
Total	100	100.0	100	100.0	200	100.0
Chi-Square results	$\chi^2 = 28.676$ d.f. = 1 p = 0.000 Cramer's V = 0.389					

n – sample; χ^2 – Chi-square value; d.f. – degrees of freedom; p – probability value

3.2. THE GEOGRAPHIC CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

The geographic context of this study is the Douro Valley, corresponding to NUT III, the Nomenclature of Territorial Units for Statistics of Portugal, situated in the eastern north of Portugal (Figure 1).

This region is mainly a rural region, with relatively sparse population and relative remoteness from major urban areas. As such, some of its characteristics are similar to what is indicated in the literature with regard to remote rural areas (Anderson, 2000; Stathopoulou et al., 2004), such as a certain degree of depopulation, infra-

structure inadequacies with accessibility within and to the region needing improvement and high dependence on agriculture. Douro Valley has been affected over the years by a gradual process of depopulation and aging population and, when compared to regional and national data, educational levels are very low. These contribute to the socio-economic problems of the area and to the Douro Valley being one of the poorest regions in Portugal (Fazenda et al., 2010). The main socio-economic indicators of the Douro Region are presented in Table 4.

FIGURE 1. DOURO VALLEY IN THE CONTEXT OF PORTUGAL



Source: <http://pt.wikipedia.org/wiki/Ficheiro:LocalNUTS3Douro.svg> accessed 23 April 2014

TABLE 4. SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS OF THE DOURO VALLEY

Indicators (2012)	
Area (km ²) of national territory by geographic	4 108,02
Population's density (No./ km ²) by place of residence	49,3
Proportion of resident population in statistical cities with more than 10 000 inhabitants (%) by place of residence	13,47
Resident population < 15 years (No.)	25,954
Resident population > 15 years (No.)	176,457
GDP per capita constant prices (thousand euros)	10,932 (1,3% of Portuguese GDP)
Average compensation of employees (thousand euros)	18,1
Main economic activities (total employment – thousand persons)	42,8
Services	
Agriculture, livestock production, hunting, forestry and fishing	34,7

Source: Adapted from INE 2013.

The Douro Valley is known mainly as the place of origin of the Port wine and as the first demarcated and regulated wine producing region in the world (1756) (Andresen et al., 2004). It comprises an area of approximately 250.000 ha, of which about 40.000 ha are dedicated to vineyards (Andresen et al., 2004). The region is nowadays responsible for the highest wine production and business volume of wine in Portugal as a result of producing Port wine which is distributed to 106 international markets and accounts for about 1/3 of the total of Portuguese wine exports (Fazenda et al., 2010).

The Douro Valley's natural and patrimonial resources make it unique, with an enormous potential for tourism development (Fazenda et al., 2010). Acknowledging its unique characteristics, part of this region was classified by UNESCO as a World Heritage Site, namely the "Prehistoric Rock-Art Sites in the Côa Valley" (classified in 1998) and the Alto Douro Wine Region (classified in 2001) (Fazenda et al., 2010; Turismo do Douro, 2012).

Given its characteristics, the tourism offer of the Douro Valley has been mainly associated with landscapes (the terraced vineyard), gastronomy, wine (the relevance of Port wine) and wine-growing estates, manor houses and villages, natural/archaeological heritage, and cruises on the

Douro River. In addition, the wine theme has also been used in the promotion and hosting of events and festivals which have contributed to the raising of market awareness about Port wine, both red and white, as well as other regional wines (Hall and Mitchell, 2000). These wines also produced in the region are gaining international recognition due to the awards received such as Decanter World Wine Awards (Wines of Portugal, 2012).

The Douro Valley has been identified as a "new high quality destination" in the National Strategic Plan for Tourism (2007) and its importance and expectations of growth have also been recognised by private organisations as shown by the increased level of investment in hotel and river cruises. For example, there are several cruise companies providing tourism excursions along the Douro River (from Porto to points in the Upper Douro Valley) that are themselves attracting many visitors. It has been noted that year by year the number of passengers has been growing and that in 2008 approximately 180.000 passengers were registered (Fazenda et al., 2010). In addition, the significant number of private developments that are presently under construction (hotels, resorts and rural accommodations of superior quality) (Fazenda et al., 2010) also demonstrate the recognition of investor interest in

the Douro Valley. The target markets of the Douro region include the domestic market and some main European outbound markets such as the UK, France, Germany (Turismo de Portugal, 2007). As regards accommodation, the Douro has a small number of hotels. However, it assumes

a distinct reality in terms of the rural tourism accommodation (Table 5).

As far as tourist demand is concerned, the main indicators regarding the hotel activity indicators are presented in Table 6.

TABLE 5. ACCOMMODATION IN THE DOURO

Indicators (2012)	
Hotels establishments (hotels, guest houses, inns, lodging houses) (Total Numbers)	36
Lodging capacity (No.) in hotel establishments in 2012	2303
Rural tourism accommodation	82

Source: Adapted from INE 2013 and Turismo do Douro, 2014.

TABLE 6. DEMAND INDICATORS OF THE DOURO AS A TOURISM REGION

Indicators (2011)	
Guests in hotel establishments (hotels and guest houses)	125 414
Guests in hotel establishments (hotels only)	102 478
Average stay (No.) in hotel establishments (nights)	1,5
Nights in hotel establishments (hotels, guest houses, inns, lodging houses)	192 463
Proportion of foreign guests (%)	17,3

Source: Adapted from INE, 2013.

Although its characteristics would suggest that the Douro would be competitive both for wine and tourism industries, businesses operating in the region have to face some difficulties/challenges. The main difficulties small businesses operating in the Douro have to deal with are the increasing competition in the international markets and the challenge to increase businesses sales of their wine and tourism products, and diversify consumer markets. Also, it is difficult to retain visitors/tourists in the region, a situation reflected in the low average length of stay and in the gross bed occupation rate and lack of coordination and articulation between the various agents in the tourism industry and between these and other public organizations (Fazenda et al., 2010). Thus, the argument here is that cooperation has a great potential to bring in complementary strengths, to provide diverse experiences to visitors and thereby be more competitive.

4. PRESENTATION AND DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

This paper focuses on the occurrence, or not, of intersectoral and/or diagonal cooperation between businesses operating in wine and tourism industries and on the potential for cooperation between wine and tourism businesses in the provision of tourism experiences.

The results of the study show that most interviewed owners/managers (61.5%) had already cooperated with businesses from the other industry (wine/tourism), being motivated by business objectives, which is in accordance to

the literature. It is recognised that SMEs do not have all the necessary resources to fully achieve their objectives and to face the challenges of businesses environment (Ahuja, 2000). This fact implies some level of interdependency between businesses (Selin and Chávez, 1995) and drives businesses to engage in cooperation relationships/initiatives with others as a means by which they can gain access to partners' resources (European Commission, 2003) and to achieve their strategic goals (Hoffman and Schlosser, 2001).

The most relevant business-related objectives motivating what respondents considered to be the examples of successful cooperation initiatives are presented in Table 7. Overall, 'Enhancing promotion and image' was the most frequent answer (56.7%), and particularly relevant for wine businesses, whereas "Complementing and offering more and/or diversified products" assumes a particular importance in the context of tourism businesses ($\chi^2 = 24.241$ d.f. = 2 $p = 0.000$ Cramer's $V = 0.449$). For tourism businesses enhancing financial situation and complementing their offer are far more important than for wine businesses, which is in accordance with the literature (e.g. Scott et al., 2008) because of the recognition of the increased value of joint production of tourism services (Weidenfeld et al., 2011). The above business-related objectives are in line with the literature (Fyall and Spyriadis, 2003) and they can be classified into two broad groups, namely input-related objectives and expected outcomes-related. The first is associated to the access of resources (e.g. information, physical resources), which are important for 'Complementing and offering more

and/or diversified products/services'. In turn, the objectives related to the expected outcomes refer to risk and cost reduction, learning and improved performance, as it is the case of 'Enhancing promotion and image' and 'Enhancing financial situation'.

Although providing visitor experiences was not clearly indicated by businesses in the region as one of the main

reasons for participating in diagonal cooperation, providing more or diversified products is important, especially for tourism businesses, as indicated above. This suggests that tourism respondents recognise that visitors in the region value diversified products/services, otherwise they would not engage into cooperative arrangements with other businesses in order to provide such offer.

TABLE 7. REASONS FOR PARTICIPATING IN THE MOST SUCCESSFUL COOPERATION

	Tourism		Wine		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Enhancing promotion and image	21	35.0	47	78.3	68	56.7
Enhancing financial situation	22	36.7	10	16.7	32	26.7
Complementing and offering more and/or diversified products/services	17	28.3	3	5.0	20	16.7
Total	60	100.0	60	100.0	120	100.0
Chi-Square results	$\chi^2 = 24.241$ d.f. = 2 p = 0.000 Cramer's V = 0.449					

n – sample; χ^2 – Chi-square value; d.f. – degrees of freedom; p – probability value
Source: The authors.

In addition, the results of this study also reflect the owners/managers' awareness of current market and consumers' trends, especially as far as the Douro Valley is concerned. Market/consumers trends were perceived as being the most important factor of the external environment if they were to cooperate in the future with other businesses from wine/tourism industry, as it is shown in Table 8. These results are also in line with the literature, as it is acknowledged that external business environment can drive businesses from cooperation (Smallbone et al. 2002). External environment characteristics refer to factors that characterize the external business environment outside the business (in which businesses operate) (Capon, 2009). In the context of SMEs, the external business environment is often considered as a driver because its factors/characteristics 'push' decision

makers into cooperation in order to face challenges and explore opportunities to keep themselves in business (Elmuti and Kathawala, 2001; Fyall and Garrod, 2005). New market opportunities may be found, for example, in the new attitudes of consumers as they are much more demanding than a few decades ago. Consumers currently ask for personalised products and services and change very frequently from one product to another (European Commission, 2003). These opportunities are considered drivers to cooperation because businesses will be able to enhance adaptive capabilities to new market trends through cooperation with other businesses. Through cooperation, businesses will be able to increase awareness of the new trends and the ability to understand them and relate them to business opportunities (European Commission, 2003).

TABLE 8. THE EXTERNAL FACTOR OF THE BUSINESS ENVIRONMENT CONSIDERED BEING THE MOST IMPORTANT IF RESPONDENTS WERE TO COOPERATE IN THE FUTURE

	Tourism		Wine		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Competition	10	11.8	2	2.9	12	7.8
Market/demand trends	63	74.1	56	82.4	119	77.8
Overall economic situation	12	14.1	10	14.7	22	14.4
Total	85	100	68	100	153	100
Chi-Square results	$\chi^2 = 4.089$ d.f. = 2 p = 0.129					

n – sample; χ^2 – Chi-square value; d.f. – degrees of freedom; p – probability value.

Source: The authors.

For 77.8% of total respondents, market/demand trends were perceived to be the most important external factor because they wanted to meet/exceed customers' requests/expectations, particularly tourism respondents, namely

participating in wine-related activities, such as harvests. These results indicate that tourism businesses are more aware of the current market and consumers trends in the region and that they recognise the importance of offer-

ing wine-related products/services to meet the aspirations of customers and visitors when they visit the region. The fact that tourism businesses tend to initiate the cooperation also supports this finding (Table 9).

Given the results above, the study indicates that tourism owners/managers recognise more easily the advantage of cooperating with wine businesses, getting access to complementary activities and providing consumers wine-related products/services. Owners/managers of wine and tourism businesses, especially the latter, cooperate with others because they acknowledge the need of offering complemen-

tary products and current market trends. The perception that tourism businesses' performance is more often interdependent on other stakeholders is largely acknowledged in the literature, particularly given the fact that the tourism industry is composed by many and different players offering a variety of products/services (Fyall and Spyriadis, 2003; Fyall and Garrod, 2005; Buhalis and Peters, 2006). Thus, the results suggest that there is a great potential for cooperation being adopted by owners/managers of tourism to provide tourism experiences (being the result of the complementary activities provided through cooperation).

TABLE 9. WHO INITIATED COOPERATION

	Tourism		Wine		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
My Business	37	61.7	17	28.3	54	45.0
The other Business	12	20	21	35.0	33	27.5
Both/all businesses involved	11	18.3	22	36.70	33	27.5
Total	60	100.0	60	100.0	120	100.0
Chi-Square results	$\chi^2 = 13.529$ d.f. = 2 p = 0.001 Cramer's V = 0.336					

n – sample; χ^2 – Chi-square value; d.f. – degrees of freedom; p – probability value

Source: The authors.

Tourism businesses cooperate with “Quintas” (the wine businesses that produce, bottle and sell wine in the market). In turn, wine businesses cooperate more with restaurants (25%), and with rural accommodation (14%) and leisure/entertainment businesses (14%). Overall, 32% of the respondents indicated the resources and products that the other businesses have as the main reason to cooperate with them specifically. This reason has been more frequently indicated by wine businesses (40%). Although tourism respondents also indicated this reason (25%), which reinforces their recognition that they ‘need’ wine businesses to provide complementary activities and to increase/diversify their offer and therefore better respond to customers' needs and expectations, their most frequent reason was the fact of having ‘Prior knowledge and personal trust in the other business people’ (33%) ($\chi^2 = 8.363$; d.f. = 4 p = 0.070). Given the results, one can say that apart from the reasons referred above, personal relationships, prior knowledge and trust are also important reasons why owners/managers of tourism businesses cooperate with each other in the region. These results are in line with the literature review as in the importance of personal relationships has been to SMEs has already been noted (OPTOUR, 2003; Silva, 2012).

5. CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

The foremost contribution of this paper is to offer original data about inter-business cooperation in the Douro Valley in the context of wine and tourism industries. Given

that this data has not been collected before, this study is contributing to applied knowledge in this specific region of Portugal. In addition, this paper, based on the results of the study on diagonal cooperation conducted in the Douro Valley, Portugal can provide significant insights regarding the potential of cooperation in the provision of tourism experiences by owners/managers of micro and small businesses, especially wine and tourism.

Cooperation is already being adopted by many of the owners/managers of wine and tourism businesses in the region, being tourism owners/managers those that tend to initiate the cooperation initiatives/arrangements. This adoption is being motivated by perceptions about the external environment, more specifically current market trends, and by business objectives. Cooperation is being adopted to enhance business promotion and image, to improve financial situation and to complement and offer more and/or diversified products. When choosing partners to cooperate with personal relationships, more specifically, prior knowledge and trust are important. Although visitor experiences were not clearly indicated by businesses in the region as one of the main current trends in the tourism market, it is in a way implied, as respondents, especially tourism owners/managers acknowledged an increasing demand for complementary and diversified products/services and activities, such as participating in harvests, wine tasting. This suggests that even though the terminology regarding tourists' experiences was not referred, they are already cooperating to provide experiences-related activities. Thus, it seems that cooperation has a great potential in the provision of

tourism experiences in the Douro Valley, particularly by tourism businesses.

These results can have practical implications both for businesses and for trade and governmental organizations promoting the development of tourism experiences in the region. If trade and governmental organizations aim to increase the experiences-related offer in the region and knowing that these experiences are the result of interaction between businesses, particularly through cooperative initiatives, they need to know and/or understand how owners/managers of tourism and wine SMEs view cooperation and their ensuing behaviour, as it can provide insights into what needs are to be addressed when successful establishment of cooperation and tourism experiences are considered and intended.

The findings of this study can facilitate the formulation of appropriate and actionable incentives to cooperation (to those who do not cooperate yet) and also to support strategies that assist the development of SMEs and their industries with a focus on tourism experiences. Because owners/managers perceptions are highly influential in their decisions, it is suggested that professional education for cooperation and tourism experiences is required. Workshops should be put in place with a greater emphasis upon the role of cooperation and the importance of tourism experiences in the achievement of objectives and competitiveness of SMEs. Workshops can help to raise awareness about, and willingness towards, cooperation and the provision of tourism experiences, which is particularly relevant for SMEs under conditions of an increasing intense competition and economic and financial turbulence, and especially when located in rural areas. By integrating their offers, wine and tourism businesses in remote rural areas are in better conditions to face experiences-related competition and to be more competitive in the tourism market in general.

6. LIMITATIONS

This research has focused on measuring 'what is going on' in terms of the behaviour towards cooperation and in terms of the influencing factors. Hence, one can argue that a detailed study focusing specifically tourism experiences is needed in order to have a more comprehensive understanding of the studied phenomenon, by using qualitative and/or quantitative methodology, or both. Also, in this study only the perceptions of owners/managers were taken into consideration and further studies could explore customers' perspectives with regard to experiences resulting from the products/services and activities offered based on cooperation arrangements/relationships. Hence, future research could focus on the above limitations, strengthen and validate the findings with further studies and expand the knowledge with regard to the potential of cooperation in the provision of tourism experiences.

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NORMAS PARA OS ARTIGOS A SUBMETER À REVISTA PORTUGUESA DE ESTUDOS REGIONAIS

A. NORMAS RESPEITANTES À ACEITAÇÃO E AVALIAÇÃO DOS ARTIGOS

1. Embora a *Revista Portuguesa de Estudos Regionais* (RPER) não seja membro do Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), a sua direção editorial decidiu declarar a sua adesão aos princípios do Código de Conduta do COPE, com efeitos a partir de 1 de janeiro de 2012 (<http://publicationethics.org/files/Code%20of%20conduct%20for%20journal%20editors4.pdf>).
2. Só serão em princípio aceites para avaliação na RPER artigos que nunca tenham sido publicados em nenhum suporte (outra revista ou livro, incluindo livros de atas). Excetua-se a divulgação anterior em séries do tipo *working papers* (eletrónicas ou em papel). Outras exceções pontuais podem ser aceites pela direção editorial, se os direitos de reprodução estiverem salvaguardados.
3. Ao enviar uma proposta de artigo para a revista, os autores devem renunciar explicitamente a submetê-la para publicação a qualquer outra revista ou livro até à conclusão do processo de avaliação. Para o efeito deverão sempre enviar, juntamente com o artigo que submetem, uma declaração assinada neste sentido. No caso de recusa do artigo pela direção editorial, os autores ficarão livres para o publicar noutra parte.
4. Os artigos submetidos à direção editorial para publicação serão sempre avaliados (anonimamente) por dois especialistas na área, convidados para o efeito pela direção editorial. Os dois avaliadores farão os comentários que entenderem ao artigo e classificá-lo-ão de acordo com critérios definidos pela direção editorial. Os critérios de avaliação procurarão refletir a originalidade, a consistência, a legibilidade e a correção formal do artigo. No prazo máximo de 16 semanas após a submissão do artigo, os seus autores serão contactados pela direção editorial, sendo-lhes comunicado o resultado da avaliação feita.
O processo de avaliação tem três desenlaces possíveis:
(1) O artigo é admitido para publicação tal como está (ou com meras alterações de pormenor) e é inserido no plano editorial da revista. Neste caso, a data previsível de publicação será de imediato comunicada aos autores.
(2) O artigo é considerado aceitável mas sob condição de serem efetuadas alterações significativas na sua forma ou nos seus conteúdos. Neste caso, os autores disporão

de um máximo de seis semanas para, se quiserem, procederem aos ajustamentos propostos e para voltarem a submeter o artigo, iniciando-se, após a receção da versão corrigida, um novo processo de avaliação.

(3) O artigo é recusado.

5. A RPER poderá organizar números especiais de natureza temática, na sequência de conferências, *workshops* ou outros eventos relevantes na sua área de interesse. Embora nestes casos o processo de avaliação dos artigos possa ser simplificado, a RPER manterá ainda assim, escrupulosamente, o princípio de revisão pelos pares de todos os artigos.
6. Excecionalmente, a RPER poderá contudo publicar artigos “por convite”, ou seja não sujeitos ao crivo de revisores. A singularidade destes artigos será sempre assinalada, de forma transparente, na sua primeira página.
7. A RPER reconhece o direito dos membros da sua direção editorial (incluindo o seu diretor) a submeterem artigos para publicação. Sempre que um membro da direção editorial é autor ou coautor de um artigo, então é necessariamente excluído do processo de revisão, em todos os seus passos, incluindo a decisão final.
8. A RPER reconhece o direito de recurso de qualquer sua decisão relativa à aceitação de um artigo para publicação. Esse recurso é endereçado ao diretor que deverá informar toda a direção editorial. Os termos do recurso serão enviados aos revisores, que terão um prazo máximo de 30 dias para se pronunciarem em definitivo. No caso de não haver acordo entre os dois *referees*, a direção editorial tem obrigatoriamente de indicar um terceiro especialista. Não existe novo recurso, para uma segunda decisão que decorra deste processo.
9. A RPER encoraja a publicação de críticas relevantes, por outros autores, a artigos publicados nas suas páginas. Os autores criticados têm sempre a possibilidade de resposta.
10. Os *referees* estão sujeitos ao dever de confidencialidade, quer quanto ao conteúdo dos artigos que apreciam, quer quanto aos seus próprios comentários, devendo mais em geral garantir que todo o material que lhes é submetido é tratado em confiança. Será sempre enviada aos revisores a informação sobre os princípios do Código de Conduta referido em 1.
11. Uma vez o artigo aceite, e feito o trabalho de formatação gráfica prévio à sua publicação na revista, serão enviadas ao autor as respetivas provas tipográficas para revisão. As eventuais correções que este quiser fazer

terão de ser devolvidas à direção editorial no prazo máximo de 5 dias úteis a contar da data da sua receção. Só serão aceites correções de forma.

12. Ao autor e a cada um dos coautores de cada artigo aceite será oferecido um exemplar do número da revista em que o artigo foi publicado.
13. Os originais, depois de formatados de acordo com as presentes normas, não poderão exceder as 30 páginas, incluindo a página de título, a página de resumo, as notas, os quadros, gráficos e mapas e as referências bibliográficas.
14. As propostas de artigo deverão ser enviadas por *e-mail* para rper@apdr.pt, ou pelo correio, para o secretariado técnico da revista: APDR – Universidade dos Açores 9700-042 Angra do Heroísmo – PORTUGAL. Para informações ou para a comunicação posterior o contacto com o secretariado técnico far-se-á pelo *e-mail*: rper@apdr.pt.

B. NORMAS RESPEITANTES À ESTRUTURA DOS ARTIGOS

1. Os autores deverão enviar o artigo completo (conforme os pontos seguintes), por *e-mail* ou em *CD-rom*, para os contactos referidos no ponto 14 das Normas A.
2. Os textos deverão ser processados em Microsoft Word for Windows (versão 97 ou posterior). O texto deverá ser integralmente a preto e branco.
3. Na publicação os gráficos, mapas, diagramas, etc. serão designados por “figuras” e as tabelas por “quadros”.
4. As eventuais figuras e quadros deverão ser disponibilizados de duas formas distintas: por um lado devem ser colocados no texto, com o aspeto pretendido pelos autores. Para além disso, deverão ser disponibilizados em ficheiros separados: os quadros, tabelas e gráficos serão entregues em Microsoft Excel for Windows, versão 97 ou posterior (no caso dos gráficos deverá ser enviado tanto o gráfico final como toda a série de dados que lhe está na origem, de preferência no mesmo ficheiro e um por *worksheet*); para os mapas deverá usar-se um formato vetorial em Corel Draw (versão 9 ou posterior).
5. As expressões matemáticas deverão ser tão simples quanto possível. Serão apresentadas numa linha (entre duas marcas de parágrafo) e numeradas sequencialmente na margem direita com numeração entre parêntesis curvos. A aplicação para a construção das expressões deverá ser ou o Equation Editor (Microsoft) ou o MathType.
6. Salvo casos excecionais, que exigem justificação adequada a submeter à direção editorial, o número máximo de coautores das propostas de artigo é quatro. Só deverão ser considerados autores os que contribuíram direta e efetivamente para a pesquisa refletida no trabalho.
7. O texto deve ser processado em página A4, com utilização do tipo de letra Times New Roman 12, a um

espaço e meio, com um espaço após parágrafo de 6 pt. As margens superior, inferior, esquerda e direita devem ter 2,5 cm.

8. A primeira página conterá exclusivamente o título do artigo, em português e em inglês, bem como nome, morada, telefone, fax e *e-mail* do autor, com indicação das funções exercidas e da instituição a que pertence. No caso de vários autores deverá aí indicar-se qual o contacto para toda a correspondência da revista. Deve ser também incluída na primeira página uma nota sobre as instituições financiadoras da investigação que conduziu ao artigo. Este nota é obrigatória quando pertinente.
9. A segunda página conterá unicamente o título e dois resumos do artigo, um em português e outro inglês, com um máximo de 800 caracteres cada, seguidos de um parágrafo com indicação, em português e inglês, de palavras-chave até ao limite de cinco, e ainda dois a cinco códigos do *Journal of Economic Literature* (JEL) apropriados à temática do artigo, a três dígitos, como por exemplo R11. Os títulos, os resumos, as palavras-chave e os códigos JEL são obrigatórios.
10. Na terceira página começará o texto do artigo, sendo as suas eventuais secções ou capítulos numerados sequencialmente utilizando apenas algarismos (não deverão ser utilizadas nem letras nem numeração romana).
11. Cada uma das figuras e quadros deverá conter uma indicação clara da fonte e ser, tanto quanto possível, compreensível sem ser necessário recorrer ao texto. Todos deverão ter um título e, se aplicável, uma legenda descritiva.
12. A forma final das figuras e quadros será da responsabilidade da direção editorial que procederá, sempre que necessário, aos ajustamentos necessários.

C. NORMAS RESPEITANTES ÀS REFERÊNCIAS BIBLIOGRÁFICAS

1. A “Bibliografia” a apresentar no final de cada artigo deverá conter exclusivamente as citações e referências bibliográficas efetivamente feitas no texto.
2. Para garantir o anonimato dos artigos, o número máximo de citações de obras do autor do artigo (ou de cada um dos seus coautores) é três e não são permitidas expressões que possam denunciar a autoria tais como, por exemplo, “conforme afirmámos em trabalhos anteriores [cfr. Silva (1998: 3)]”.
3. O estrito cumprimento das normas à frente só é obrigatório na versão final dos artigos, após aceitação. Ainda assim, recomenda-se fortemente a sua adoção em todas as versões submetidas.
4. Os autores citados ao longo do texto serão indicados pelo apelido seguido, entre parêntesis curvos, do ano da publicação, de “,” e da(s) página(s) em que se encontra a citação. Por exemplo, ao citar-se “Silva (2003, 390-93)”, está-se a referir a obra escrita em 2003 pelo

autor “Silva”, nas páginas 390 a 393. Deverá usar-se “Silva (2003, 390-93)” e não “SILVA (2003, 390-93)”. No caso de uma mera referência do autor bastará indicar “Silva (2003)”.

5. No caso de o mesmo autor ter mais de um trabalho do mesmo ano citado no artigo, indicar-se-á a ordem da citação, por exemplo: Silva (2003a, 240) e Silva (2003b, 232).
6. As referências bibliográficas serão listadas por ordem alfabética dos apelidos dos respetivos autores no fim do manuscrito. O nome será seguido do ano da obra en-

tre parêntesis, e da descrição conforme com a seguinte regra geral: Monografias: Silva, Hermenegildo (2007a), *A Teoria dos Legumes*, Coimbra, Editora Agrícola; Colectâneas: Sousa, João (2002), “Herbicidas e estrumes” in Cunha, Maria (coord.), *Teoria e Prática Hortícola*, Lisboa, Quintal Editora, pp. 222-244; Artigos de Revista: Martins, Vicente (2009), “Leguminosas Gostosas”, *Revista Agrícola*, Vol. 32, n.º 3, pp. 234-275.

7. A forma final das referências bibliográficas será da responsabilidade da direção editorial que procederá, sempre que necessário, aos ajustamentos necessários.

NORMS FOR THE SUBMISSION OF PAPERS TO THE PORTUGUESE REVIEW OF REGIONAL STUDIES

A. NORMS CONCERNING PAPERS SUBMISSION AND EVALUATION

1. Although the *Portuguese Review of Regional Studies* (RPER) is not a member of the Committee on Publication Ethics (COPE), its Editorial Board decided to adhere to the principles of the COPE Code of Conduct, from January 1st 2012 onwards (<http://publicationethics.org/files/Code%20of%20conduct%20for%20journal%20editors4.pdf>).
2. In principle, only papers that have never been published (in another journal or book, including conference Proceedings) can be considered for publication in RPER. The previous publication in a series of “working papers” (electronic or paper format) is an exception to this rule. The Editorial Board may agree with other sporadic exceptions, when copyrights are secured.
3. When a paper is submitted to RPER, authors must explicitly state that it will not be submitted for publication in any other journal or book until the reviewing process is completed. For this purpose, a signed declaration must be sent along with the paper. If the paper is rejected by the Editorial Board, the authors are free to publish it anywhere else.
4. Papers submitted for publication will always be reviewed (anonymously) by two experts in the area, invited by the Editorial Board. Both referees will offer their comments and classify it in accordance with the criteria defined by the Editorial Board. The reviewing criteria include originality, consistency, readability and the paper’s formal correction. The authors will be informed by the Editorial Board of the results of the evaluation within 16 weeks of its receipt. The assessment has three possible outcomes:
 - (1) The paper is accepted for publication just as it is (or with minor changes) and it is included in the editorial plan. In this case, the authors are immediately informed of the expected publication date.
 - (2) The paper is considered acceptable provided that major changes are made to its form or contents. In this case, authors will have a maximum of six weeks to make such changes and to submit the paper again. Once the revised version is received, a new assessment process starts.
 - (3) The paper is refused.
5. RPER may organize special issues on specific themes, following conferences, workshops, or other events relevant in its area of interest. Although, in these cases, a simplifying shorter reviewing process may be adopted, the principle of peer-review selection will always be preserved.
6. Exceptionally, RPER may publish articles “by invitation”, meaning that they are not subject to the reviewing process. These outstanding articles, however, are always clearly signaled as such in their front page.
7. RPER acknowledges the right of the members of its Editorial Board (including its Director) to submit papers to the journal. When an author or co-author is also a member of the Editorial Board, he/she is excluded from the reviewing process in all its stages, including the final decision.
8. RPER acknowledges the authors’ right of appeal on any publishing decision of the Editorial Board. That appeal is made to the Director of RPER that will inform the Editorial Board. The new arguments will be sent to the reviewers, asking for a final judgment within a 30-day term. In case of disagreement between the two referees, the Editorial Board is compelled to appoint a third reviewer. There is no further appeal for a second decision ensuing this process.
9. RPER positively welcomes cogent criticism on the works it publishes. Authors of criticized material will have the opportunity to respond.
10. Reviewers are required to preserve the confidentiality on the contents of the papers and on their comments, and requested, more generally, to handle all the submitted material in confidence. Proper information on the principles of the Code of Conduct referred in 1. will always be provided to the reviewers.
11. Once the paper has been accepted and formatted for publishing, it will be sent to the author for graphics checking and revision. Any corrections the author might want to make must be sent to RPER within five days. Only formal corrections will be accepted.
12. Each author and co-author of accepted papers will be offered a number of the published issue
13. Articles cannot exceed 30 pages after being formatted according to the present norms, including the title page, the summary page, notes, tables, graphics, maps and references.
14. Papers must be sent, by e-mail to rper@apdr.pt or by normal mail, to the Executive Secretariat of RPER at APDR – APDR – Universidade dos Açores 9700-042 Angra do Heroísmo – PORTUGAL. For further information

or future contact please use the e-mail address: rper@apdr.pt.

B. NORMS CONCERNING PAPERS STRUCTURE

1. The authors must send a complete version of the paper by e-mail or on a CD-Rom by mail, in the original Microsoft Word file, to the contacts specified in point 14 of Norms (A).
2. Texts must be processed in Microsoft Word for Windows (97 or later version). All written text must be black.
3. Graphics, maps, diagrams, etc. shall be referred to as "Figures" and tables shall be referred to as "Tables".
4. Figures and Tables must be delivered in two different forms: inserted in the text, according to the author's choice, and in a separate file. Tables and graphics must be delivered in Microsoft Excel for Windows 97 or later. Graphics must be sent in both the final form and accompanied by the original data, preferably in the same file (each graphic in a different worksheet). Maps must be sent in a vector format, like Corel Draw or Windows Metafile Applications.
5. Mathematical expressions must be as simple as possible. They will be presented on one line (between two paragraph marks) and numbered sequentially at the right margin, with numeration inside round brackets. Equation Editor (Microsoft) or Math Type are the accepted Applications for original format files.
6. The paper must have no more than four co-authors. Exceptions may be accepted when a reasonable explanation is presented to the Editorial Board. Authorship must be limited to actual and direct contributors to the conducted research.
7. Text must be processed in A4 format, Times New Roman font, size 12, line space 1.5 and 6 pt space between paragraphs. The upper, lower, left and right margins must be set to 2.5 cm.
8. The first page shall contain only the paper's title, the author's name, address, phone and fax numbers and e-mail, and the author's affiliation. In the case of several authors, please indicate the contact person for correspondence. A remark on funding institutions of the research or related work leading to the article – that is compulsory when it applies – must be placed as well in this first page.
9. Second page shall contain the title and the abstract of the paper, in English and, if possible, in Portuguese as well, with no more than 800 characters, followed by two lines, one with the key-words to a limit of 5, and the other with the proper Journal of Economic Litera-

ture (JEL) codes describing the paper. JEL codes must be from 2 up to 5, with three digits, as for example R11. The title, the abstract, the key-words and the JEL codes area all compulsory, at least in English.

10. Text starts on the third page. Sections or chapters are numbered sequentially using Arabic numbers only (letters or Roman numeration must not be used).
11. Figures and Tables must contain a clear source reference. These shall be as clear as possible. Each must have a title and, if applicable, a legend.
12. The final format of Figures and Tables will be of the responsibility of the Editorial Board, who will allow some adjustments, whenever necessary.

C. NORMS CONCERNING BIBLIOGRAPHIC REFERENCES

1. The references listed at the end of each paper shall only contain citations and references actually mentioned in the text.
2. To ensure the anonymity of papers, each author's self references are limited to three and no expressions that might betray the authorship are allowed (for example, "as we affirmed in previous works (cfr. Silva (1998:3))").
3. Although their meeting in preliminary versions is recommendable, the bibliographic norms below are mandatory for the final (accepted) version only.
4. Authors cited in the text must be indicated by his/her surname followed, within round brackets, by year of publication, by ":" and by the relevant page number(s). For example, the citation "Silva (2003: 390-93)", refers to the work written in 2003 by the author Silva, on pages 390 to 393. If the author is merely mentioned, indication of "Silva (2003)" is sufficient.
5. In case an author has more than one work from the same year cited in the paper, citation must be ordered. For example: Silva (2003a: 240) and Silva (2003b: 232).
6. References must be listed alphabetically by authors' surnames, at the end of the manuscript. The name will be followed by year of publication inside round brackets and the description, thus:
Monographs: Silva, Hermenegildo (2007a), *The Vegetables Theory*, Cambridge, Agriculture Press
Collection: Sousa, João (2002), "Weed Killers and Manure" in Cunha, Maria (coord.), *Farming - Theories and Practices*, London, Grassland Publishing Company, pp. 222-244
Journal Papers: Martins, Vicente (2009), *Tasty Broccoli*, *Farmer Review*, Vol. 32, n.º 3, pp. 234-275.
7. The final format of the references will be the responsibility of the Editorial Board, who will allow adjustments whenever necessary.

PRÓXIMOS EVENTOS/COMING EVENTS

10th World Congress of the RSAI

SOCIOECONOMIC INTEGRATION AND TRANSFORMATION: RESHAPING LOCAL, REGIONAL, AND GLOBAL SPACES

Thailand, Ayutthaya, May 26-30, 2014

<http://www.2014worldcongress.regionalscience.org/>



II Congresso para a Ciência e Desenvolvimento dos Açores

NOVOS SONHOS PARA UMA REALIDADE PÓS-CRISE

Angra do Heroísmo, Terceira – Açores, de 27 a 29 de Junho de 2014

<http://congressoacda2014.weebly.com/>

Novos sonhos para uma realidade pós-crise

II Congresso para a Ciência e Desenvolvimento dos Açores

Universidade dos Açores, Angra do Heroísmo

27-29 JUNHO, 2014

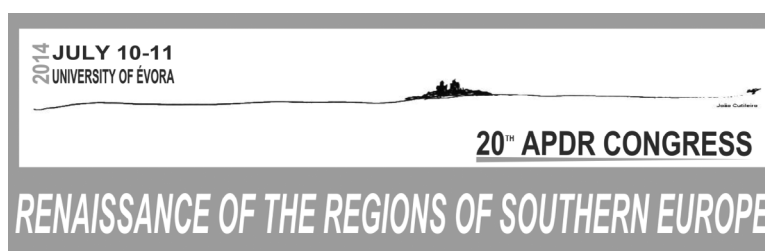
20.º Congresso da APDR

RENASCIMENTO DAS REGIÕES DO SUL DA EUROPA

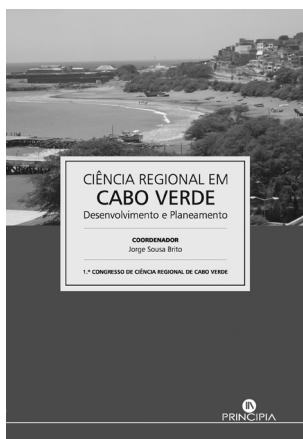
Universidade de Évora, Évora

10-11 de Julho de 2014

<http://www.apdr.pt/congresso/2014/>



LIVROS/BOOKS



Ciência Regional em Cabo Verde

Coordenador: Sousa Brito, Jorge

«O desenvolvimento das regiões depende do capital territorial nelas enraizado e das redes e dos fluxos que as vivificam. Este é um tema seminal da ciência regional que é sempre atual e importa retomar para reflexão e debate. Isto é ainda mais explícito num país como Cabo Verde, onde as facetas tangíveis e intangíveis, públicas e privadas do capital territorial estão intrinsecamente ligadas aos fluxos e redes de pessoas, de capitais, de conhecimento e de bens que a situação geográfica e a força cultural deste país possibilitam e potenciam.»

A presente compilação reúne as comunicações mais relevantes do I Congresso de Ciência Regional de Cabo Verde que a Universidade Jean Piaget de Cabo Verde em boa hora acolheu tendo especialmente em conta a particularidade que é a conjugação do carácter transdisciplinar da universidade com a natureza regional das vivências insulares cabo-verdianas. Uma conjugação que conduz a uma «dinâmica de desenvolvimento complexa, sob o confronto constante de realidades micro-regionais com realidades de dimensão macro-regional».

Jorge Sousa Brito

Data: Abril 2011; ISBN: 978-989-8131-83-6; N.º páginas: 224

Compêndio de Economia Regional – Volume I: teoria, temáticas e políticas

Coordenadores: Silva Costa, José; Nijkamp, Peter

O *Compêndio de Economia Regional* que agora se reedita em colaboração com a APDR (Associação Portuguesa para o Desenvolvimento Regional), essencialmente elaborado e escrito por investigadores portugueses ou por estrangeiros que lecionam em universidades nacionais, insere-se nos projetos de apoio ao ensino da APDR.

Trata-se de uma obra de carácter pedagógico, destinada ao público que se interessa pelas questões da economia do território e, em especial, aos estudantes universitários de Economia, Geografia, Engenharia, Planeamento e outras ciências que abordam questões do território – esperando-se que venha a ser um contributo significativo para o ensino e a investigação da economia regional no mundo que fala português.

Data: Janeiro 2010; ISBN: 978-989-8131-55-3; N.º páginas: 888



Compêndio de Economia Regional – Volume II: métodos e técnicas de análise regional

Coordenadores: Silva Costa, José; Nijkamp, Peter; Dentinho, Tomaz Ponce

A exemplo do que sucedeu com o primeiro volume deste *Compêndio de Economia Regional*, este segundo volume insere-se nos projetos de apoio ao ensino da Associação Portuguesa para o Desenvolvimento Regional (APDR) e procura dar resposta ao interesse de professores, estudantes, investigadores e do público em geral pelas questões da economia do território e contribuir de forma significativa para o ensino e a investigação da economia regional no mundo lusófono.

Tendo o primeiro volume sido dedicado, mais concretamente, às teorias, temáticas e políticas associadas à ciência regional, propõe-se agora este segundo explicitar e exemplificar a aplicação prática dos métodos e técnicas utilizados neste domínio científico. Os 23 capítulos do presente volume, escritos por diversos especialistas universitários portugueses e estrangeiros, são agrupados em cinco grandes áreas temáticas: i) Análises Espaciais; ii) Multidimensionalidade Espacial, iii) Econometria Espacial, iv) Modelos de Economia Regional, e v) Instrumentos de Apoio à Decisão.

Data: Janeiro 2011; ISBN: 978-989-8131-78-2; N.º páginas: 760



Desafios Emergentes para o Desenvolvimento Regional

Coordenadores: Dentinho, Tomaz Ponce; Viegas, José Manuel

Este livro corresponde ao primeiro de uma série de três obras e responde a uma proposta da Associação Portuguesa para o Desenvolvimento Regional junto dos seus associados para a realização de três estudos sobre temas importantes para o desenvolvimento regional em Portugal: um primeiro sobre os problemas emergentes para o desenvolvimento regional, outro sobre casos de desenvolvimento regional e um terceiro sobre modelos operacionais de desenvolvimento regional.

O objetivo desta primeira obra é responder a questões emergentes para a problemática do desenvolvimento regional em Portugal, nomeadamente as que se relacionam com os impactos territoriais que resultam de alterações profundas no movimento de pessoas, de capital, de energia e de mercadorias estimuladas por fenómenos globais. O resultado é um desafio estruturado e fundamentado à reinvenção das políticas tradicionais de desenvolvimento regional; pelo público, pelos políticos, pelos técnicos e pelos cientistas.

Data: Setembro 2010; ISBN: 978-989-8131-77-5; N.º páginas: 400

Modelos Operacionais de Economia Regional

Coordenadores: Ramos, Pedro; Haddal, Eduardo; Anselmo, Eduardo

Num mundo globalizado à escala mundial, é cada vez mais importante estudar o comportamento económico das diversas regiões. *Modelos Operacionais de Economia Regional*, cuja publicação surge no âmbito dos projetos de apoio ao ensino da Associação Portuguesa para o Desenvolvimento Regional, procura precisamente responder ao desafio de tornar acessíveis a professores, estudantes do ensino superior, profissionais do planeamento e da política regional, investigadores e público em geral os complexos modelos operacionais da área da economia regional.

A obra resulta da colaboração de diversos especialistas universitários portugueses e estrangeiros e desenvolve a abordagem fundamental de cinco grandes temas: modelos regionais de *input-output*, matrizes de contabilidade social e modelos de equilíbrio geral computável; modelos estatísticos e econométricos de crescimento e assimetrias regionais; métodos de econometria espacial e outras abordagens operacionais; e, finalmente, história e pistas para novos paradigmas em economia regional.

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Casos de Desenvolvimento Regional

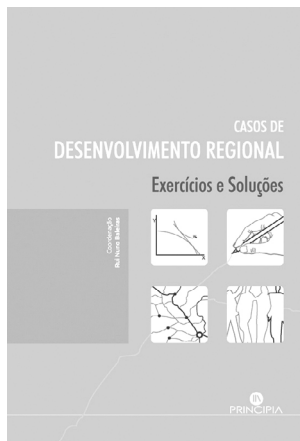
Coordenador: Baleiras, Rui Nuno

Num tempo em que, cada vez mais, se tornam claros os riscos de valorização excessiva do curto prazo, vale a pena dar atenção aos temas e aos processos que condicionam a melhoria sustentável da qualidade de vida. É disso que o desenvolvimento regional cuida.

Casos de Desenvolvimento Regional é um livro diferente. No conteúdo e na forma. Focado na economia e na política do desenvolvimento regional, estabelece uma ponte entre teoria e prática que visa preencher uma falha no mercado editorial. Foi escrito para satisfazer dois públicos-alvo: inúmeras disciplinas de ensino superior no espaço lusófono e ibérico que versam sobre questões de desenvolvimento económico e social e profissionais ligados à formulação de políticas e à dinamização de ações colectivas visando a competitividade e a coesão dos territórios.

Adota a metodologia de “casos de estudo”, com exercícios propostos no final de cada capítulo. Possui alguns textos em inglês para viabilizar a sua utilização com estudantes não fluentes em português. Os contributos foram escolhidos através de um processo competitivo para reunir experiências profissionais complementares, da academia à execução operacional, passando pela formulação e avaliação de políticas e pela dinamização de atores.

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Casos de Desenvolvimento Regional: Exercícios e Soluções

Coordenador: Baleiras, Rui Nuno

Boa economia e boa política do desenvolvimento regional requerem prática e maturação. Assim, a obra *Casos de Desenvolvimento Regional*, sobre aquele tema, dá agora origem a *Casos de Desenvolvimento Regional – Exercícios e Soluções*. Este livro complementa o anterior com uma ampla oferta de desafios aos leitores para ajudar a sedimentar o conhecimento. Trata-se de companhia indispensável a uma obra baseada na metodologia de «casos de estudo» que, pela sua natureza, deve suscitar interrogações e provocar discussão, dentro ou fora de uma sala de aula, de um gabinete de consultoria, de uma direção de serviços ou de uma sala de reuniões entre atores do desenvolvimento regional.

Os exercícios, totalmente resolvidos, correspondem às tarefas de auto-aprendizagem propostas no final de cada capítulo do livro principal. Embora tenham sido elaborados tendo os alunos do ensino superior como principal público-alvo, muitos exercícios também poderão ser úteis a profissionais que habitualmente utilizam aqueles espaços. As tarefas tanto podem servir para cada leitor autotestar a sua apreensão do caso como para aplicar, individual ou coletivamente, o conhecimento transmitido a novas situações.

A variedade de exercícios visa estimular várias capacidades transversais, como síntese, rigor analítico, redação técnica, entrevista, trabalho em equipa, exposição oral e negociação. Para o efeito, são propostos exercícios com perguntas de resposta breve, questões para desenvolver, ensaios, sínteses bibliográficas, aplicações de métodos quantitativos, trabalhos de campo (com recolha de informação e entrevistas no local) e jogos de simulação.

Os capítulos do livro de texto redigidos em língua inglesa têm neste manual prático exercícios na mesma língua, tendo em conta o número cada vez maior de estudantes estrangeiros que integram programas de intercâmbio internacional no Ensino Superior português.

Data: Maio 2012; ISBN: 978-989-71603-9-4; N.º páginas: 256

