

Índice

DOSSIER MONOGRÁFICO

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Tourism planning, promotion and environmental sustainability: the case of Spain	7
Planificación turística, promoción y sostenibilidad ambiental: el caso de España	
<i>Dr. Marta Plumed Lasarte, Dr. Diana Gómez Bruna y Dr. Clara Martín Duque</i>	
Eco-innovation in Mexican tourist accommodation companies	19
La eco-innovación en las empresas mexicanas de alojamiento turístico	
<i>Dr. Marta Magadán Díaz y Dr. Jesús Israel Rivas García</i>	
Lessons from Africa: Social-economic impacts of enclave tourism in Livingstone, Zambia.....	35
Lecciones desde África: Impacto socioeconómico del enclave turístico en Livingstone, Zambia	
<i>Percy Mabvuto Ngwira</i>	
Sustainable tourism and social entrepreneurship. The magic town of Tequila, Mexico.....	51
Turismo sostenible y emprendimiento social. El pueblo mágico de Tequila, México	
<i>Dr. José Manuel Saiz-Álvarez</i>	
Tourist Economic Solidarity Circuits a challenge of sustainability	67
Circuitos económicos solidarios turísticos	
un desafío de sostenibilidad	
<i>Dra. Jackeline Contreras Díaz, Diego Mancheno Ponce y Sebastián Cifuentes Vega</i>	
Creativity in the American and European tourism sector: The Croatian case	81
La creatividad en el sector turístico americano y europeo: Caso Croacia	
<i>Dra. Estela Núñez-Barriopedro, Josué Ruiz-López y Dr. Rafael Ravina Ripoll</i>	
Evaluation of cruise tourism economic sustainability. A methodological approach within the Spanish Mediterranean littoral	97
Evaluación de la sostenibilidad económica del turismo de cruceros. Una aproximación metodológica en el Litoral Mediterráneo español	
<i>Dr. Antonio Peláez Verde y Pilar Loscertales Sánchez</i>	
Planning and perception of sustainable tourism in ethnic group of Mexico	111
Percepción y planificación del turismo sostenible en comunidades indígenas de México	
<i>Kristian Liévano Torres, Dra. María Lyssette Mazó Quevedo y Fabiola Torres Méndez</i>	
Social networks as a means of tourist promotion in the ibero-american countries.....	127
Redes sociales como medio de promoción turística en los países iberoamericanos	
<i>Dr. Guillermo Antonio Gutiérrez Montoya, Dr. Miguel Ángel Sánchez Jiménez y Dra. Araceli Galiano</i>	

SECCIÓN MISCELÁNEA

Are concentrated companies more profitable? The case of the tanning sector of skins in Ecuador.....	143
¿Son rentables las empresas concentradas? El caso del sector de curtido de pieles en el Ecuador	
<i>Dra. Lilian Victoria Morales Carrasco, Ana Consuelo Córdova Pacheco, Luciano David Altamirano Espíndola y Eva Cristina Lema Tituaña</i>	

NORMAS EDITORIALES

Basic writing rules	159
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Dossier Monográfico



Tourism planning, promotion and environmental sustainability: the case of Spain

Planificación turística, promoción y sostenibilidad ambiental: el caso de España

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Abstract

In terms of tourist destination's sustainable development, planning plays a key role, and an important part is the tourist promotion. In the case of Spain, the boom of tourism in the 50s meant a high level of income and popularity but also serious damage in the environment when tourist sustainability didn't receive attention yet. For the tourist development of a destination to be sustainable, the establishment of appropriate strategic plans is needed. Thus, thanks to the study of a real case, this paper allows the analysis of the influence of tourist promotion in the evolution of a tourist destination towards the sustainability. The method used has been double: firstly, Spanish government's official documentation has been reviewed in order to confirm the evolution of Spanish tourist planning in relation to sustainability; secondly, tourist promotion images and campaigns has been analyzed to verify the evolution of the conveyed image and its influence in the sustainable development of Spanish tourism. This analysis confirms that tourist promotion has played a main role in the development and growth of Spain as a tourist destination, proving that its adaptation to market's needs and sustainability was fundamental. Therefore, it is verified that tourist promotion –within a general planning strategy– means a key aspect for an appropriate development of a tourist destination.

Resumen

En el desarrollo sostenible de un destino turístico, la planificación juega un papel fundamental, y parte importante recae en la promoción turística. En el caso de España, el *boom* turístico de los años 50 supuso un alto nivel de ingresos y popularidad, pero también serios perjuicios en el entorno cuando todavía no se prestaba atención a la sostenibilidad turística. Para que el desarrollo turístico de un destino sea sostenible es necesaria la implantación de planes estratégicos adecuados, y este trabajo permite, gracias al estudio de un caso real, analizar la influencia de la promoción turística en la evolución de un destino turístico hacia la sostenibilidad. La metodología empleada ha sido doble: en primer lugar se han revisado documentos oficiales del Gobierno español para comprobar la evolución de su planificación turística en torno a la sostenibilidad y, en segundo lugar, se han analizado imágenes y campañas de promoción turística para comparar la evolución de la imagen transmitida y su influencia en el desarrollo sostenible del turismo español. Este análisis demuestra que la promoción turística ha jugado un papel muy importante en el desarrollo y crecimiento de España como destino turístico, y que su adaptación a las necesidades del mercado y a la sostenibilidad resultó fundamental. Se confirma por tanto que la promoción turística, dentro de una estrategia general de planificación, es cuestión clave para un correcto desarrollo de un destino turístico.

Keywords | palabras clave

Sostenibility, tourism, promotion, planning.
Sostenibilidad, turismo, promoción, planificación.

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1. Introduction

In recent years, the concept of sustainability has been implemented in almost all areas of knowledge. In relation to tourism, numerous congresses, books and scientific studies have analyzed sustainable tourism and its importance for destinations (Fernández, 2015). Although sustainable tourism involves not only the protection of the environment but also long-term socio-economic viability, the first aspect is the one that normally receives the most attention, and it is the one that this work is mainly dedicated to. At times, in the tourism field, there is controversy regarding the damage that tourism can cause to the environment. However, this occurs when there is a lack of planning. Tourism development and sustainability can coexist as long as there is an adequate strategy to protect the environment (García and Díaz, 2014). In fact, tourism can even motivate the protection of natural resources, as is the case with the declaration of protected areas such as National Parks, for instance. Applying sustainability to tourism planning is essential, and in a leading tourist destination such as Spain this was already pointed out by the involved Ministries in 1999, when they indicated that destinations must protect their natural resources to be competitive in the long term (Ministry of Economy and Finance, and Ministry of the Environment, 1999), also taking into account respect for the local population and annexed territories.

In the same way that sustainable development should be one of the objectives of any policy and general action, the managers responsible for tourism development should understand that it is necessary to set limits to what can be achieved in the short and medium term (Bramwell *et al.*, 1996). Sustainable tourism encourages destinations and companies to pay attention to the impacts that tourism has on the environment, and demonstrates the importance of conserving natural resources.

In Spain, the tourist *boom* of the late 50s meant a high level of income and international popularity, but also a high impact on the environment. Spain's response to the high interest of European tourists in search of sun and beach was an oversized development along the Spanish coast, one of the clearest examples of the consequences of mass tourism (OMT and ETC, 2009). For Spain, being a popular sun and beach destination meant an unplanned construction of large buildings, residential areas and new facilities, without thinking about the environmental impact. To all this we must add that the population density of the Spanish coastal towns is five times higher than the national average and triples during the high season (Vogeler & Hernández, 2003), with population impact being one of the most important aspects to consider in sustainable development (Castrillón *et al.*, 2015).

It is often assumed that tourism planning undertaken by the public sector must play a greater role in the development of sustainable tourism, since implemented campaigns and marketing strategies will have an impact on the destinations (Swarbrooke, 1999). The promotion of Spain as a tourist destination has played a fundamental role in the evolution of the country's image, and on the type of tourist products that are being promoted on the side of the Government. During the 1980s, the Spanish government made the courageous decision to change its strategy, focusing its international campaigns on interior and cultural tourism (OMT & ETC, 2009), repositioning its image and creating a tourism brand with a logo that still lasts to this day. It is not difficult to realize the changes and evolution of the different promotion campaigns that have been implement-

ed, mainly after the creation of the aforementioned brand in 1984. The goal of this paper is to analyze the relationship between tourism promotion and sustainability through a qualitative approach of the case of Spain thanks to the methodology described below.

2. Methodology and Sources of Information

To exemplify how the promotion of a tourist destination can influence the sustainability of a territory, Spain has been taken as a reference point due to its long trajectory in the elaboration of marketing strategies and its outstanding «re-branding», which not only maintains its traditional sun and beach market, but has also introduced Spain to new markets (OMT & ETC, 2009) in a more sustainable way.

In the first place, in order to know the objectives of the different plans and their relationship with sustainability, a descriptive analysis has been carried out based on the information obtained from secondary sources about TURESPAÑA¹ and tourism planning in general, analyzing its evolution through official documents developed by the central government to improve the competitiveness of Spain as a tourist destination and its sustainability, such as:

- Competitiveness plans (1992, 1996): *Spanish Tourism Competitiveness Framework Plan 1992-1995 (FUTURES I)* and *Spanish Tourism Competitiveness Framework Plan 1996-1999 (FUTURES II)*.
- *Strategies and Actions Plan of the General Administration of the State in Tourist Matters* (1997).
- *Spanish Tourism Quality Integral Plan 2000-2006 (Plan Integral de Calidad del Turismo Español, PICTE)* (2000)
- *Spanish Horizon Tourism Plan 2020 - Plan 2008-2012* (2007, 2012)
- *National and Integral Tourism Plan 2012-2015 (Plan Nacional e Integral de Turismo, PNIT)* (2012)

In the second place, an attempt has been made to locate images not only of the official campaigns of TURESPAÑA since the creation of the brand in 1984, but also of government promotional actions developed previously, enabling the observation of their evolution from the tourist *boom* of the 50s until recent years. To accomplish this, a descriptive and comparative analysis of the different campaigns has been carried out, focusing on the messages transmitted in each of them and their objectives, in order to compare and observe the evolution of the image of Spain in detail, as well as its influence as a sustainable tourist destination.

3. Analysis and results

3.1. Tourism policy in Spain

The first regulations related to tourism in Spain date back to 1905, but it was in 1951 when the first Ministry of Tourism was created, called the «Ministry of Information and

¹ Public organization responsible for tourist promotion of Spain on an international scale.

Tourism» (Tena, 2006). At the time, Spain was already becoming a popular destination, which created the need to have an entity to organize the Spanish tourist phenomenon. However, the rapid and intense growth of tourism activity and its novelty in the country—with no legislative precedents—, gave rise to an unplanned industry that gained strength quickly and uncontrollably.

There is no specific mention to any concept related to sustainability in the political plans until *FUTURES I*, which makes some references to the conservation of the environment (Velasco, 2010). The evolution of considerations related to sustainability in tourism policy occurred chronologically as follows:

- *FUTURES I (1992-1995)*. Through this competitiveness plan, the Government established new strategies to consolidate tourism as an economic sector, paying attention to its impacts, especially at the environmental level. Among its objectives we can find one in particular that talks about the conservation of the natural and urban environment and its compatibility with tourist activity (General Secretariat of Tourism, 1992).
- *FUTURES II (1996-1999)*. This plan included a program of new products that considered the sustainability of the projects in relation to the environment. This second competitive plan does mention the concept of «sustainability» as a key point and considers the sustainability model in the development of tourist destinations (General Secretariat of Tourism, 1995a).
- *Plan of Strategies and Actions of the General Administration of the State in Tourist Matters (1997)*. One of the strategies of this plan deals with the development of the concept of environmental sustainability and includes among its objectives the promotion of «sustainable tourism plans» in tourist destinations, and the incorporation of environmental management in tourism companies (General Secretariat of Tourism, 1995b).
- *PICTE (2000)*. One of its main objectives was the environmental sustainability of tourism activities. Within its program on the quality of destinations, there is a specific point addressing sustainability and the need to pay attention to the limits of growth in some tourist areas, as well as cooperation between tourism and environmental agents with the aim of establishing long-term sustainable aspects (General Secretariat of Tourism, 2000).
- *Spanish Horizon Tourism Plan 2020 - Plan 2008-2012 (2007)*. In this plan, the concept of sustainability is a fundamental aspect and one of the basic elements of the central model. One of its objectives was to improve the sustainability of the Spanish tourism model, ensuring the quality of the natural environment and applying the concept of sustainability to all tourism decisions (General Secretariat of Tourism, 2007, 2012).
- *PNIT (National and Integral Tourism Plan) 2012-2015 (2012)*. With this last plan, the central government aimed to promote a new vision of Spain, including sustainability as a need for the country to become a competitive destination. Following this line, the plan included an evaluation of the Spanish tourist offer with the aim of ensuring its management and sustainable development (State Secretariat of Tourism, 2012).

As this demonstrates, the evolution of the importance of sustainability in tourism policy is positive in the planning of public policies in Spain. In the period of greatest tourist growth in the country, there was no mention of any concept related to sustainability. Therefore, the Spanish tourist development had no planning, leading to serious damage to the environment. However, when the Spanish Government understood the importance of the sustainable management of tourism, political plans began to shift their perception of tourism activity, and the influence of sustainability on the development of tourism gained an increasingly fundamental role. This positive evolution is reflected in the projection of the image of Spain as a tourist destination, since the plans and programs are involved in strategies of tourist promotion, which are analyzed below.

3.2. TURESPAÑA

The Institute of Tourism in Spain (TURESPAÑA), created in 1990, is a body dependent on the central government and responsible for promoting Spain abroad as a tourist destination. Sustainability is one of the aspects that the Government wants to promote. Therefore, among its main areas of action we find: “the development of plans and programs that promote innovation, quality, sustainability and competitiveness of tourism products” (BOE, 2009). In addition, it is important to mention that TURESPAÑA is the most important tool in Spanish tourism policy, since it is not limited solely to the promotion of tourism, but also pays attention to those areas that may have a negative effect on tourism sustainability (TURESPAÑA, web). To this end, it has a General Subdirectorate for Tourism Development and Sustainability, responsible for the creation of strategies focused on the development and improvement of the planning and sustainable management of tourist destinations (BOE, 2009).

Tourism policies developed by TURESPAÑA fundamentally try to preserve the potential of Spanish destinations, with the commitment to assess the importance of the environment and thus reduce the socio-economic and tourist imbalance of Spanish territories (TURESPAÑA, web). However, TURESPAÑA's main objective is the promotion of Spain at an international level. To this end, it develops consecutive campaigns with the aim of transmitting a positive image of Spain as a tourist destination. The following section analyzes not only the TURESPAÑA campaigns but also the promotional actions developed before their creation.

3.2.1. Evolution of Spanish tourism promotion

Ironically, before the popularity of Spain as a tourist destination began, the promotional campaigns developed by the Government emphasized not only sun and beach tourism, but also the cultural and historical aspects of the country (figure 1), since the objective was to attract cultural tourists of a high economic level.

Figure 1
 Examples of tourist posters from Spain in the 40s



Source: Tourism Blog - El País.

During the 50s, tourism in Spain began to grow rapidly and the Government created a first slogan that would become very popular; and that is still remembered to this day: «*Spain is different*» (figure 2). This new campaign, although it continued with cultural promotion, began to highlight sun and beach tourism, which was demanded from abroad at the time and, therefore, would turn into the only image that was projected for years to come.

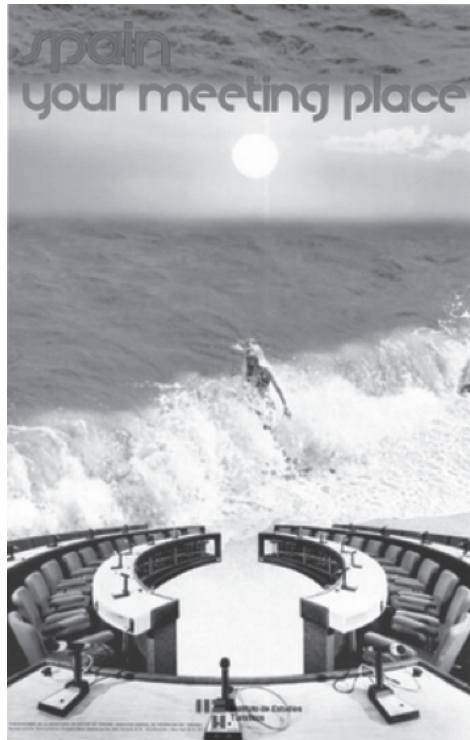
Figure 2
 Examples of the campaign «Spain is different»



Source: Tourism Blog - El País.

The slogan “*Spain is different*” was so successful that it transcended beyond tourism and became a popular definition of the Spanish character. The key to this success lies in the use of folklore as a characteristic aspect that takes advantage of stereotypes in a positive way, which made the message linger in the memory of the Spanish not only as a tourist slogan, but also as a characteristic aspect of that historical period (Plumed, 2012). However, despite the success reflected in the growth of tourism activity, the strategy was not well defined, and taking advantage of the popularity of a single tourism product proved unsustainable. Even when the government tried to promote new products such as business tourism, the campaigns used the image of sun and beach as a base element (figure 3).

Figure 3
 Example of the use of the sun and beach product
 in the promotion of business destinations



Source: Tourism Blog - El País.

During the 1980s, the government decided to invest more money and effort in tourism promotion, and it was in 1984 when the official logo (“El sol de Miró”) was created, which is still preserved today (figure 4). This fact gave way to a new stage in tourist promotion in Spain, since it marked the beginning of the use of a single brand

on an international level. This was a breakthrough in Spanish marketing campaigns, mainly because it began its journey in the 80s and is currently still used in leading positions of brand image. The Miró logo is present in all the communication elements developed by TURESPAÑA and has become a hallmark of Spanish tourism.

Figure 4
Logo of the Spanish tourist brand: The Sun of Miró.



Source: TURESPAÑA (web).

From that moment, official campaigns began to develop consecutively in the following way (according to information obtained from the TURESPAÑA website):

- 1984-1990: «*Spain. Everything under the sun*». This *claim* was created based on the privileged position of Spain as a tourist destination for sun and beach, but with the aim of promoting all the diversity of its tourist offer, trying to demonstrate that in Spain you could do any type of tourism, even though the *claim* itself included the concept of sun.
- 1991-1994: «*Passion for life*». This campaign was the result of a study conducted at that time to discover the image of Spain. This analysis showed that Spain should be «sold» as an active and living country, without mentioning the climate, and promoting all types of tourism with the aim of avoiding seasonality and taking advantage of the tourist trends of the moment. In this way, Spain tried to enter more sustainable markets, highlighting the Government's efforts to conserve natural resources.
- 1995-1997: «*Spain by...*». This brief campaign included photographs taken by popular professional photographers at that time, reflecting their different ways of seeing Spain. Again, the aim was not to focus on the sun and beach model.
- 1998-2001: «*Bravo Spain*». The goal of this campaign was to transmit a modern, creative and innovative image of a country with a tourist offer throughout the year. In this way, the Government continued to avoid the image of sun and beach, since its objective was not to increase the number of tourists, but the quality of them and their distribution throughout the Spanish geography, which is fundamental for the development of a sustainable tourism.

- 2002-2003: «*Spain marks*». This campaign also aimed to distance the image of Spain from the model of sun and beach as the only tourist offer. In this case, this was accomplished by conveying the idea that visiting Spain is a unique experience that changes the tourist. With this message, TURESPAÑA wanted to show a different tourist destination thanks to the high quality of its offer regarding culture, gastronomy, and nature.
- 2004-2009: «*Smile! You are in Spain*». In this case, the campaign was created with the aim of consolidating Spain's leadership as a holiday destination but also positioning it as a high-quality cultural destination to develop tourism based on product diversification and geographical redistribution. With this strategy, the Government was still trying to reach a balance between the different types of tourism, and to stop tourism activity from being centralized on the coast.
- 2008-2010: «*Spain. 25 years beyond the sun*». In this period, a special campaign was created to celebrate the 25th anniversary of the Miró logo and the official tourist brand of Spain. This campaign was again aimed at leaving the image of country of sun and beach to the side, which can be seen in the *claim* that literally states “beyond the sun”, giving the idea that Spain offers much more as a tourist destination.
- 2010-2017: «*I need Spain*». This *claim* continues to highlight values similar to previous campaigns, although this time using a warmer message to reach different types of tourists, showing various lifestyles and selling not only destinations but also the emotions they evoke.

Analyzing all the campaigns referred to *ut supra*, it is evident that the Government has tried to convey a different image of Spain over the years, away from the image of a sun and beach holiday destination. Although some promotional posters still show the beaches and some *claims* mention the sun, the message has been evolving, mainly since the Government introduced the concept of sustainability in the management of tourist destinations.

4. Conclusion

Sustainability has become a fundamental aspect of tourism management, and the governments of each tourist destination should take it into account in their tourism policy planning. We can know the consequences of unsustainable management of tourism from the case of Spain, where a rapid and unplanned growth of tourism activity caused serious damage to the environment, mainly on the Spanish coast. The other types of sustainability, related to social and economic aspects, and which have not been considered in this work, are equally relevant.

Some data show that Spanish tourism still depends on sun and beach products: the months with the highest number of tourists are still July and August —corresponding to summer— (INE, 2016a) and tourist expenditure on «sun and beach tourism» is the highest after the general indicator of «leisure, recreation and holidays» (INE, 2016b). This shows that the image of Spain as a tourist destination is still related to this type of offer; which explains why the Government continues to promote this type of products. However, the image of Spain as a cultural destination is growing: spending

in the category of «cultural tourism» grew by 6.5% in 2016 (INE, 2016b), which shows that the tourist offer of a positioned country can be diversified with the objective of improving the quality of its tourism industry, managing it in a more sustainable way.

It seems clear that no one doubts the impact of tourism on the environment in which it takes place, and this concern is what has led to concepts often used today such as sustainability, sustainable development or sustainable tourism. The need to find that balance between tourism activity and sustainability leads to attempts to achieve responsible management of the territory and resources, which in turn motivates the search, by the responsible agencies, for planning methods at different scales. A redefinition of the destinations towards segments of greater added value is required, since sustainability has a clear return on investment and, if we look at the conservation of resources, it is urgent to bring sustainability to each and every one of the processes of the industry tourism, and ensure better communication (Fernández, 2015).

By analyzing the evolution of tourism policy and promotion in Spain, we can see how sustainable management can influence the tourism industry and how the messages transmitted in different campaigns also influence the image of the destination. Being sustainable is being competitive, and having a positive image is the key to proper positioning. Thus, the existing relationship between sustainability and tourism promotion goes through an adequate tourism planning, with the Government being the main party responsible for considering sustainability as a fundamental aspect.

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Eco-innovation in Mexican tourist accommodation companies

La eco-innovación en las empresas mexicanas de alojamiento turístico

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Abstract

Eco-innovation is shown as one of the great challenges of the tourism industry given the growing connection between environmental quality and its good performance. Although the tourism literature has considered the topic of business sustainability in broader terms, the notion of eco-innovations represents a new field of research with studies that still investigate in depth the adoption of eco-innovations among tourism companies. This work addresses the conceptual evolution of eco-innovation to subsequently develop an analytical framework that tentatively explores this concept and its implementation in Mexican tourist accommodation companies through two basic internal characteristics of these organizations: their business performances and their respective sizes, measured in number of rooms. The methodology used has been the case method, making a set of case studies related to six hotel groups of purely Mexican capital through documentary evidence and structured interviews. The conclusions derived from the findings suggest, firstly, that eco-innovation is directly linked to the evolution of business results and the size of organizations and, secondly, that eco-innovation is perceived as a strategic bet generating comparative advantages for Mexican companies studied, independently of the signals issued by an ecologically aware demand and beyond the governmental regulatory actions.

Resumen

La eco-innovación se muestra como uno de los grandes desafíos de la industria turística dada la cada vez mayor conexión entre calidad medioambiental y la buena marcha del sector. Si bien la literatura turística ha considerado el tema de la sostenibilidad del negocio en términos más amplios, la noción de eco-innovaciones representa un nuevo campo de investigación con estudios que aún investigan a fondo la adopción de eco-innovaciones entre las empresas turísticas. En este trabajo se aborda la evolución conceptual de la eco-innovación para, posteriormente desarrollar un marco analítico que explore tentativamente dicho concepto y su implantación en las empresas mexicanas de alojamiento turístico a través de dos características internas básicas de dichas organizaciones: sus resultados empresariales y sus respectivos tamaños, medidos en número de cuartos. La vía metodológica empleada ha sido el método del caso, realizando un conjunto de estudios de casos relativos a seis grupos hoteleros de capital netamente mexicano a través de evidencias documentales y entrevistas estructuradas. Las conclusiones derivadas de los hallazgos obtenidos sugieren, en primer lugar, que la eco-innovación está vinculada directamente con la evolución de los resultados empresariales y con el tamaño de las organizaciones y, en segundo lugar, que la eco-innovación se percibe como una apuesta estratégica generadora de ventajas comparativas para empresas mexicanas estudiadas independientemente de las señales emitidas por una demanda concienciada ecológicamente y más allá de las acciones reguladoras gubernamentales.

Keywords | palabras clave

Sustainable tourism, environmental sustainability, business management, organizational change, enterprises, technological change.

Innovación, eco-innovación, sostenibilidad ambiental, gestión de empresas hoteleras, método de estudio de caso

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1. Introduction

A company's ability to compete is increasingly influenced by their relationship with sustainability and innovation, whether they are implemented separately (Hitchens *et al.*, 2005) or synergistically (Esty & Winston, 2009), generating new markets for environmentally benign products (Beise & Rennings, 2005) and a new field of academic study, eco-innovation (Fussler & James, 1996; Jänicke, 2008). The company-environment pairing is transforming processes, products, markets and business strategies by incorporating the principles of sustainability into strategic business planning (Bengochea *et al.*, 2006, Segarra *et al.*, 2011). On the other hand, new technologies and their impact on the changes in the behavior patterns and consumption patterns of today's tourists are not new to the tourism industry (Agarwal, 2002, Aguiló *et al.*, 2005). In short, eco-innovation—or environmental innovation—could play an increasingly revealing role in shaping a tourism model adapted to the principles of environmental sustainability (Hunter & Shaw, 2007).

Companies in the tourism sector are increasingly implementing innovative practices and policies, not only to sustain growth, but also as a response to the changing scale and nature of global environmental change (Bell & Ruhanen, 2016). For some companies, this has included the development and adoption of green innovations (Bell & Ruhanen, 2016). Although tourism literature has considered the topic of business sustainability in broader terms, the notion of eco-innovations represents a new field of research, with studies that still investigate the adoption of these strategies among tourism companies in depth (Tzschentke *et al.*, 2008).

Eco-innovation, as a concept used in academic literature, is relatively recent (Peiró *et al.*, 2014). It includes organizational procedures linked to the incorporation of environmental aspects in different points of the value chain, even in their very designs and organizational strategies (Klewitz & Hansen, 2014). Interest in this concept has grown significantly as a consequence—direct or indirect—of the new options and business possibilities that are opened with eco-innovation and that could arouse a special interest in small and medium-sized companies facing the task of improving their efficiency and competitiveness: i) with the implementation of new or improved processes and products, or ii) with a thorough reconsideration of their business models. Eco-innovation offers, as indicated above, a path of competitive efficiency capable of opening new markets (Ruiz *et al.*, 2013). Although eco-innovation is based on technical progress (Velázquez & Vargas, 2015), it can also be promoted simply through arguments that express a genuine concern for the environment or an evident economic need in the business organization, one aimed to see the gains in efficiency and competitiveness to which reference has already been made. In any case, the unique characteristic of an «eco-innovative process» in organizations is that it must promote and consubstantiate itself always with a clear benefit for the environment.

Eco-innovation appears as one of the great challenges of the tourism industry given the increasing connection between environmental quality and the good performance of the sector (Tzschentke *et al.*, 2008). In fact, numerous studies on the hotel industry have shown that the commitment to environmental practices improves the financial performance of hotels (Tarí *et al.*, 2010, Tzschentke *et al.*, 2008). Despite the

industry's progress to be sustainable, hotels are still struggling with the most effective way to promote their green status (Peiró *et al.*, 2014).

2. Literature Review

2.1. The concept of Eco-innovation

The term eco-innovation can be defined in many different ways (see table 1), but we can point out by their breadth and generality, at least two definitions that treat eco-innovation as: i) a new list of processes and products capable on the one hand, to increase the value for clients and companies and, on the other, to favor a significant reduction of negative externalities on the environment (Fussler & James, 1996, Mossalanejad, 2011); ii) the appearance of any novelty or improvement in products or processes, organizational redesign or new marketing possibilities that, jointly or in isolation, are capable of optimizing the use of natural resources while minimizing the negative impacts associated with such changes (Alonso *et al.*, 2016).

Ecological innovations are not exclusively related to the individual implementations of companies, but they occupy a very important place in ecological business models. This not only creates products that respect the environment, but also generates a more sustainable economy. Finally, eco-innovation can contribute to the establishment of business and social networks, increase in social capital, business cooperation and the creation of new relationships between the public and private sectors (Alonso *et al.*, 2016). For these reasons, all definitions of eco-innovation agree with the growing value of the environment and reflect two effects of eco-innovations: significant reduction of negative externalities and better use of the productive factors obtained from the environment (Hojnik & Ruzzier, 2016).

Table 1. Definitions of eco-innovation

Author	The concept of Eco-innovation
(Fussler & James, 1996)	New products and processes that offer value to the client and the business, but that significantly reduce environmental impacts.
(Klemmer <i>et al.</i> , 1999)	All actions undertaken by relevant social actors (companies, politicians, unions, associations, churches, private homes) that: i) develop new ideas, behaviors, products and processes, ii) apply or introduce them, and iii) contribute to the reduction of environmental burdens or achieving ecologically specified sustainability objectives.
(Andersen, 2002)	Any innovation capable of attracting green rents to the market.
(Little, 2005)	The creation of new market spaces, products, services or processes driven by social, environmental or sustainability problems.

(Charter & Clark, 2007)	Process in which sustainability considerations (environmental, social, financial) are integrated into the company's systems, from the generation of ideas to research and development (R&D) and commercialization. It applies to products, services and technologies, as well as new business and organizational models.
(Kemp & Arundel, 1998) (Rennings, 2000) (Rennings & Zwick, 2003) (Kemp, 2010)	The production, assimilation or exploitation of a product, a service, a production process, a commercial method or new management for the organization (that develops or adopts it) and that favors, throughout its life cycle, a reduction of environmental risk, pollution and other negative impacts derived from the use of resources (including the use of energy) in comparison with the relevant alternatives.
(Oltra & Saint Jean, 2009)	Processes, practices, systems and new or modified products that benefit the environment and contribute to environmental sustainability
(Freeman, 1996)	It is the same as other types of innovation, but with two important distinctions: i) it represents an innovation that results in a reduction of the environmental impact and ii) its scope can go beyond the conventional organizational limits of the innovative organization and involve pacts or broader social agreements that trigger changes in sociocultural norms and existing institutional structures.

From the different concepts of eco-innovation it is possible to observe that this would manifest itself as a three-dimensional process, feeding on Ecology, Economics and Technology (Hong & Shuai, 2008, van Berkel, 2007). Any organization would be located in that three-dimensional space looking to progress, taking into account the opportunity costs associated with advancements without environmental improvements that could have lead to better business results or, for example, having avoided consequences on the administrative (sanctioning scheme according to the *polluter pays principle*) and social level (shortage of resources and impoverishment of future generations), derived from advancements without considering the environment.

Therefore, eco-innovation seeks to balance commercial development and productivity with ecological concerns and respect for the environment, so that the tourism sector can conserve and efficiently use natural resources. As a result, eco-innovation directly influences economic and social growth through caring for the environment, maintaining and creating new jobs, and acquiring new skills, new products and new businesses, all of which positively influence the economy (Alonso *et al.*, 2016).

There is still no consensus on the definition of the concept of eco-innovation, which implies that we are in an initial stage of construction and development in this field of research, which is even more evident when the analysis focuses on the tourism sector, given the lack of studies related to this topic (García *et al.*, 2015). In fact, when approaching the few existing studies, it can be observed that the concept of eco-innovation predominant in the analysis of hotel accommodation is perceived as a pairing of

environmental management and innovation, oriented to the continuous improvement of the organization (Velázquez & Vargas, 2015).

2.2. Sectoral evolution of studies on eco-innovation

Previous research on sustainability in the tourism sector originated two decades ago as an analysis of the adoption of environmentally friendly practices among other works (Alonso *et al.*, 2015) and their economic impact (Perramon *et al.*, 2014). Sustainability affects the economy in three ways: i) it has a direct effect through energy saving; iii) it has an indirect effect because an image that respects the environment creates a competitive advantage; and iii) the business gains the advantage of positioning itself as an ecological company (Best & Thapa, 2013; Hsiao & Chuang, 2016). To a lesser extent, previous research has found that there is a social impact (Bagur *et al.*, 2013) and an impact on the acquisition of unique capabilities (Tesone, 2004).

However, eco-innovation research is more recent; therefore, it is in an initial or embryonic stage (Alonso *et al.*, 2016). As is the case in other fields of study, it began in the manufacturing sector (Segarra *et al.*, 2014). In particular, the creation and adoption of ecological innovations has been analyzed in this sector, and a series of triggers for their development have been identified (Alonso *et al.*, 2016): i) investment in Investigation, Development and Innovation (I+D+i) and the capacity of exporting an innovation (Horbach *et al.*, 2012), have little place in the services sector; ii) the possession or size of a critical mass of resources and capacities, the mastery of certain technological capabilities and the existence of specific organizational characteristics for each company (Biondi *et al.*, 2002), can belong to all types of sectors. In any case, it seems that there is a consensus that indicates that environmental regulation and market mechanisms are the main triggers for the creation, development and dissemination of eco-innovations (Horbach *et al.*, 2012); iii) It comes from the environment in which the company develops its activity more than from the company itself (del Río, 2005). Therefore, subsequent research indicated that internal factors could serve as greater boosts than external factors, because companies have little or no control over external factors (Bossle *et al.*, 2016).

We have also identified barriers to the implementation of eco-innovations in the services sector (Alonso *et al.*, 2016), including the lack of absorption capacity in processes, trained human resources, commercial maturity and technological capabilities.

Eco-innovation in the tourism sector has been scarcely documented in academic research or scientific articles (Alonso *et al.*, 2016). The tourism-environment link is evident, at least in three aspects: i) the environment is the basis for the development of many tourist attractions (nature tourism, active tourism, rural tourism, hunting tourism, etc.); ii) the environment is the source of extraction of the productive factors used in any organization; and iii) the environment is the landfill to which waste and polluting emissions go. The topics that have been studied in the academic literature include the role of eco-innovations in the choice of tourist establishments, such as restaurants (Teng & Chang, 2014), the types of eco-innovations adopted by restaurants (Daim *et al.*, 2013; Rodgers, 2007) and hotels (Bastič & Gojčič, 2012; Horng *et al.*, 2016), and the importance of using eco-innovations in the design of the physical environment of restaurants to generate an innovative atmosphere (Horng *et al.*, 2013).

It is important to highlight that eco-innovations include numerous activities that affect companies and tourist destinations in areas such as energy; recycling; water; development of new construction; interior design; engineering projects; responses to external environmental degradation; new products, processes and business models; adaptations of existing products and materials; new materials; the use of eco-biological products; the ordering of the territory; and the welfare industry, which, in some regions, may also include the development and transformation of organic products, ecotourism and therapeutic tourism (Alonso *et al.*, 2016). If we consider that each eco-innovation involves the combination of factors with numerous activities, we can conclude that the generation, development, adoption and diffusion of eco-innovations are different and much more complex than those of other innovations (Karakaya *et al.*, 2014) because each eco-innovation includes several innovations (Alonso *et al.*, 2016; Velázquez & Vargas, 2015).

2.3. Proposed Hypothesis

Initially, the driving factors of eco-innovation could be placed both on the demand side —market— and on the supply side —capacity of the organization—. Thus, driving factors include: i) the demands on the part of the clients, ii) the existing regulations in the market that promote or impose them, iii) the improvement of the reputation of the organization, iv) the reduction of costs or v) the social commitment of a business in terms of corporate social responsibility.

In this study an attempt will be made to correlate the relationship between eco-innovation and two hypotheses linked to the internal characteristics of accommodation companies: their business results (measured in terms of annual turnover) and size (measured in relation to its accommodation capacity).

There is a direct relationship between financial performance, business results and eco-innovation that has been manifested in various works (Doran & Ryan, 2012; Przychodzen & Przychodzen, 2015): a high financial strength is a necessary condition for the development of investments in eco-innovation and, at the same time, the generation of positive results over time, inclines accommodation companies to make a commitment to eco-innovation. In addition, this relationship tends to be biunivocal: successful accommodation companies favor eco-innovation and eco-innovative accommodation companies tend to obtain better results than non-eco-innovative ones. Based on the above, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H1: The greater the turnover of the accommodation company, the greater the incentive to eco-innovate

Hotel organizations do not evolve towards eco-innovation from similar positions. One factor that can be decisive is the size (De-Marchi & Grandinetti, 2012; Chen, 2008, Demirel & Kesidou, 2011), to achieve incentive and streamline eco-innovation processes. There are works that indicate the high correlation between size and eco-innovation, and they argue that larger organizations tend to be more inclined to bet on eco-innovation (Bowen, 2000, De Marchi & Grandinetti, 2012), which can be a consequence associated with the greater government pressures received and greater control over compliance with environmental regulations.

On the other hand, from the internal analysis of business organizations (Churchill & Levis, 1983, Greiner, 1997), the question is whether size positively or negatively conditions commitment to eco-innovation (Molero & Garcia, 2008, Lazaric & Dennis, 2005; Brunnermeier & Cohen, 2003). Based on the above, the second hypothesis is proposed:

H2: The greater the number of rooms of the accommodation company, the greater the incentive to eco-innovate

3. Methodology and Sample

The methodology for conducting the empirical study is case method, because it is considered to meet two basic conditions or dimensions (Yin, 2009): the type of questions that this research seeks to respond to and, finally, that the problem addressed is contemporary.

Creswell (2005) considers that in a case study there should be cross-checking of data sources. Through it, we ensure constructive validity, since the use of different data sources and methods of analysis will allow us to get a more accurate picture of the reality we are investigating (Johnston *et al.*, 1999).

This research has used different methods of collecting information: a) documentary evidence, which could be obtained through advertising, catalogs, reports and reports from companies, as well as financial data, among others and b) structured interviews via Skype and e-mail.

The selected accommodation companies (convenience sampling) are six hotel chains belonging to the main Mexican national hotel groups, which have been named A1, A2, A3, A4, A5 and A6. The profile of each of the organizations studied is shown in a summarized way below (see table 2).

4. Analysis of the results

The tourism sector, in general, and the hotel industry, in particular and like many other sectors, has not been oblivious to changes in political and social attitudes regarding the environment and its commitment to environmental sustainability. In this new context, accommodation companies have had to face the new challenges posed by those environmental innovations that, incorporated in their respective internal processes, are able to offer a way of compatibility between the business activity typical of hotels and the environment. However, these eco-innovations entail, in addition to an awareness of the need for protection and balanced (sustainable) use of the environment, a financial bet whose returns tend to be seen not so much in the short term as in the medium or long term. In many cases, this leads companies to rethink their organizational structure to obtain competitive advantages built on this subgroup of innovations of an ecological nature.

The first hypothesis is that the higher the turnover of the accommodation company, the greater the incentive to eco-innovate.

Table 2. Description of the case studies

DENOMI- NATION	AGE	LEGAL FORM	RANGE OF EMPLOYEES	BILLING RANK (millions MXN)	SECTOR OF ACTIVITY (SCIAN)	CORPORATE HEADQUARTERS	Nº OF HOTELS	Nº OF ROOMS	TYPOLGY OF THE HOTELS	CATEGORY
A1	50	SAB de CV	>10000	More than 5,000	812990	Mexico City	150	24,000	Urban or city hotels Beach hotels	Special Gran Turismo
A2	15	SAB de CV	5001-10000	2,001-2,500	721111	Mexico City	135	14,800	Urban or city hotels	4 stars 3 stars
A3	19	SAB de CV	1001-5000	1,001-1,500	721111	Mexico City	17	6,686	Urban or city hotels Beach hotels	Gran Turismo 5 stars 4 stars
A4	40	SA	1001-5000	1501-2000	721111	Mexico City	51	4,500	Nature hotels Monuments hotels	Gran Turismo 4 stars
A5	37	SA de CV	1001-5000	2001-2500	721111	Mexico City	22	5,600	Urban or city hotels Beach hotels	Gran Turismo 5 stars 4 stars
A6	33	SA de CV	1001-5000	2001-2500	721111	Quintana Roo	16	7,000	Beach hotels	Special Gran Turismo 5 stars

Using the information obtained through case studies, we find that organizations are becoming more environmentally aware. The representative of A1 recognizes that in the last years the organization began to take the relationship between its hotels and the environment seriously. They point out that they first began with an approach to the idea of sustainability from the people, to subsequently move towards the environment. His organization detected an increasing interest on the part of its clientele in carrying out a leisure that was respectful to people, cultures and the environment, to which was added the concern of the governmental administrations that was materializing in mandatory regulations. They admit to having reached that awareness and environmental sensitivity pushed by demand. The representatives interviewed from A4, A5 and A6 offer a similar argument: they act in terms of environmental sensitivity (certifications and environmental sustainability plans, energy efficient equipment, etc.) driven by demand and government requirements.

In all these cases, it is emphasized that the financial capacity of the respective organizations made it possible to introduce different environmental management procedures aimed at achieving certifications and stamps. Over time, this formalization and institutionalization of good environmental practices within each organization has resulted in better results, reaching a range of customers who are increasingly aware and respectful of the environment.

The representatives of A2 and A3 enthusiastically expose the achievements of their respective organizations in eco-innovation. For both, beyond being or representing a necessary adaptation to social changes specified in government regulations or a perception of the new concerns of their clientele, it was a matter of advancing and improving the organization itself. For these interlocutors, betting on eco-innovation is equal to having long-term vision: energy is saved and, therefore, costs are reduced but, in addition, the prestige of the organization itself is increased. In A2 and A3, they affirm that their commitment to environmental sustainability through the adoption of innovations results in positive economic feedback for the organization. For A2 and A3, eco-innovation can be defended in their organizations not only by the need to build an awareness of respect for the environment, but the same long-term economic rationale makes the adoption of environmental innovations an opportunity to distance income and costs to advance benefits.

There is a direct relationship between financial performance, business results and eco-innovation (Doran & Ryan, 2012; Przychodzen & Przychodzen, 2015): a good financial soundness is a necessary condition for the development of investments in eco-innovation and, at the same time, the generation of positive results over time, inclines accommodation companies to make a commitment to eco-innovation. We can derive the following result based on the observations made:

Result 1. Accommodation companies with the highest turnover have more incentives to eco-innovate because they perceive eco-innovations as investments whose returns in the medium and long term allow them to consolidate a competitive advantage derived from the positive assessment by a clientele increasingly sensitive to their relationship with the environment.

As a second hypothesis, we propose that the greater the number of rooms in the accommodation company, the greater the incentive to eco-innovate.

Using the information obtained through the case studies, we find that all those responsible for the groups analyzed recognize the need for better waste management, optimal use of energy and water in all the hotels of their respective organizations. Particularly in the cases of A1, A2 and A3, the direct relationship between this directive concern and the size of the hotel is underlined, especially by the control of variable indirect costs associated with the processes of consumption and operations within the accommodation units. A2 and A3 refuse to transfer the burden of conscience to the client because encouraging them, for example, to use water responsibly is a wake-up call to their conscience, but it is not a suitable business solution to the challenges that arise in the accommodation relationship between tourist and environment.

Therefore, the size of accommodation companies, measured in the number of rooms, can stimulate and speed up eco-innovation processes (De Marchi & Grandinetti, 2012, Chen, 2008, Demirel & Kesidou, 2011). Large companies are more prone to eco-innovation (Bowen, 2000, De Marchi & Grandinetti, 2012). This is due to the fact that they are under greater governmental pressures and are more closely monitored by the government Administration.

On the other hand, when analyzing the internal structure of the company, and keeping in mind that this will be related to its evolution (Nelson, 1982, Churchill & Levis, 1983, Greiner, 1997), as well as its size, the research question proposed asks whether this variable can suppose a speeding down on eco-innovation (Molero & García, 2008, Lazaric & Dennis, 2005, Brunnermeier & Cohen, 2003). We can derive the following result based on the observations made:

Result 2. The greater the number of rooms in hotel establishments, the greater their incentive to eco-innovate in order to efficiently manage the available resources and thus obtain significant reductions in indirect variable costs.

5. Conclusion and discussion

Based on the results obtained, it has been confirmed that in the Mexican hotel companies analyzed: i) the greater the turnover of the accommodation company, the greater the incentive it has to eco-innovate, and ii) the greater the number of rooms, the greater the incentive to eco-innovate. However, the argumentation used allows us to classify these organizations into two groups: i) reactive eco-innovators (their annual reports include progress in environmental matters, progressively certifying their hotels in environmental quality and underlining the change in market trend that is becoming more and more oriented to sustainable products and services) and ii) pro-active or anticipatory eco-innovators (develops annual sustainability reports with the actions carried out in this field trying to go ahead of the standards in this matter and trying to make use of eco-innovations in their accommodations).

In the first group (A1, A4, A5 and A6) the “push factor” was twofold: firstly, government regulations to be met and, secondly, the customers’ greater sensitivity and concern for the environment. From there, these organizations become aware that eco-innovation is not a costly obligation but a long-term strategy to reduce costs and improve the position of the different companies of their respective organizations. In

the second group (A2 and A3), there is a certain anticipation and vision “beyond” the demands of the market that makes them take control of internal processes and operations of the accommodation units of their respective groups, orienting them toward eco-innovation from the conviction that this is the right strategy to make a quality and profitable hotel.

Business organizations seek to adapt to the conditions derived from a new socio-economic and ecological framework and their leaders are beginning to accept the value of an organizational culture capable of transforming and guiding companies towards sustainable development. The first conclusion is to see eco-innovation as a source of competitive advantages (Buhl *et al.*, 2016; Kemp & Horbach, 2007; Rosen, 2001) in the medium and long term associated with: i) a significant reduction in costs, ii) an improvement in business reputation, iii) access to segments of the market (*targets*) that are ‘environmentally aware’ and want to enjoy their leisure in a way that is sustainable (respectful) to the environment.

The second conclusion is to highlight the driving role of government policies to guide hotel companies towards good environmental practices. In fact, eco-innovations and their business implementation in the accommodation sector should be supported by the different instruments or mechanisms (incentives, subsidies and tax advantages, mainly) and available government policies (policies for information dissemination, technology transfer and of creating associations and clusters of mixed public-private nature) in order to minimize the possible barriers to knowledge (Doran & Ryan, 2012; Hojnik & Ruzzier, 2016). In some cases, this orientation will have a reactive nature: the regulations act by defining the limits of what is environmentally acceptable (Horbach *et al.*, 2012; Rennings, 2000). In others, a dialogue and a social pedagogy can be opened that, beyond the government-accommodation company relationship, promotes an ecological conscience among citizens, and whose decisions in the market are modeled by it.

This work presents important limitations regarding sample selection that will, in the future, require a broader and more detailed study to see the evolution of eco-tourism innovation in a country as rich and as diverse in tourist terms. The profile of the groups considered is very marked by its urban character, but it would be desirable to evaluate housing units with different orientations to detect if there are significant differences in the incorporation of environmental innovations depending on the market to which the companies are directed.

In summary, this study tries to offer a modest attempt to approach a topic of capital importance for the strategic management of hotel companies in general, which is progressing in Europe in an outstanding way, and which is expected to follow an analogous rhythm in the context of Mexican business, considered to be one of the most important in Latin America.

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Lessons from Africa: Social-economic impacts of enclave tourism in Livingstone, Zambia

Lecciones desde África: Impacto socioeconómico del enclave turístico en Livingstone, Zambia

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Abstract

This paper employs dependency paradigm to illustrate the social-economic impacts of enclave tourism on developing countries using Livingstone town in Zambia, Africa as a case study. Utilising both primary and secondary data sources, the study finds that, foreign investors and international tourists primarily dominate the tourism industry in Livingstone. The domination of the sector by foreign investors has resulted in dependency paradigm tourism development and failure by tourism to significantly contribute to social-economic development Livingstone town. Despite being credited as a significant sector that contributes to the social-economic development and poverty alleviation, dependency paradigm approach to tourism development in Livingstone has led to weaker linkages with domestic economy resulting in minimal impact on the overall economic growth of the town. Additionally, tourism in Livingstone has been rendered uncompetitive from a business perspective due to dominance by foreign ownership of key tourism enterprises who have created cartels in the business, thereby creating barriers for local businesses to compete effectively. Because of its nature, the tourism sector in Livingstone cannot be pronounced as sustainable. To, address problems of enclave tourism and promote more inclusive and beneficial tourism development in Livingstone and other tourism destinations in developing countries, there is need to adopt policies and strategies that ensure full involvement of local communities and the return of significant earnings from tourism. The strategies must also ensure that tourism development has strong linkages with the rest of the local social-economic activities.

Resumen

El presente artículo emplea el paradigma de dependencia para ilustrar los impactos socioeconómicos del turismo de enclave en países en desarrollo utilizando la ciudad de Livingstone en Zambia (África) como caso de estudio. Utilizando fuentes primarias y secundarias, este estudio revela que los inversionistas extranjeros y los turistas internacionales dominan principalmente la industria del turismo en Livingstone. El dominio del sector por parte de inversionistas extranjeros ha resultado en el desarrollo de un paradigma de dependencia de la actividad turística para contribuir significativamente al desarrollo socioeconómico de la ciudad de Livingstone. A pesar de ser acreditado como un sector importante que contribuye al desarrollo socioeconómico y al alivio de la pobreza, el enfoque del paradigma de dependencia del desarrollo turístico en Livingstone ha conducido a vínculos más débiles con la economía doméstica, lo que ha tenido un impacto mínimo en el crecimiento económico general de la ciudad. Además, el turismo en Livingstone se ha vuelto poco competitivo desde una perspectiva comercial debido al dominio de la propiedad extranjera de las principales empresas turísticas que han creado carteles y oligopolios en el negocio, creando así barreras para que las empresas locales compitan efectivamente. Debido a su naturaleza, el sector turístico en Livingstone no se puede declarar como sostenible. Para abordar los problemas del turismo de enclave y promover un desarrollo turístico más inclusivo y beneficioso en Livingstone y en otros destinos turísticos de países en desarrollo, es necesario adoptar políticas y estrategias que garanticen la plena participación de las comunidades locales y un retorno doméstico de las significativas ganancias del turismo. Las estrategias también deben garantizar que el desarrollo turístico tenga fuertes vínculos con el resto de actividades socioeconómicas locales.

Keywords | palabras clave

Enclave tourism, sustainable tourism development, developing countries, Livingstone, Zambia.
Turismo de enclave, desarrollo de turismo sostenible, países en desarrollo, Livingstone, Zambia.

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1. Introduction

This paper draws on the dependency paradigm to illustrate the social-economic impacts of enclave tourism on developing countries using the town of Livingstone in Zambia, Africa as a case study (figure 1).

Figure 1. Map of Zambia showing the location of Livingstone City



Source: map-states.bid

Arguably, tourism has become one of the 21st-century world's largest and fastest growing industry. Tribe John, and Colin Michael Hall in their book *Tourism and Public Policy* published in 1995, acknowledge and predicted the continued growth of the tourism industry by stating that "Tourism is the world's largest industry and is expected to continue to grow and maintain that status well into the twenty-first century," (Tribe and Hall, 1995:1). Two decades after Hall and Tribe made this prediction the world has indeed witnessed the growth of the tourism industry, arguably to unprecedented levels.

According to World Tourism and Travel Council (WTTC, 2017), the travel and tourism industry has become a critical sector for economic development and job creation throughout the world. The industry's direct contribution to the world economy and job creation in 2016 alone accounted for US\$2.3 trillion and 109 million jobs worldwide. The sector contributed US\$7.6 trillion to the global economy and supported 292 million jobs in 2016, taking into account its broader indirect and induced impacts. The contribution was equal to 10.2% of the world's GDP, and approximately 1 in 10 of all jobs (WTTC, 2017).

Accordingly, the World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) notes that; international tourism and travel has grown spectacularly since the 1970s. This is despite wars, political turmoil, natural disasters, medical scares, terrorist attacks, economic and energy crises in various parts of the world (UNWTO, 2013a).

Additionally, the UNWTO reports and records indicate that global tourism has continued to experience growth and extended diversification over the decades to become one of the fastest growing industry in the world (UNWTO, 2015). Modern tourism growth has been diligently linked to development and includes an increasing number of new destinations. These dynamics have turned tourism into a key driver for social-economic progress. Notwithstanding, random shocks, international tourist arrivals have shown virtually constant growth from 25 million in 1950 to 278 million in 1980, 528 million in 1995, and 1,035 billion in 2012.

In terms of the long-term outlook, UNWTO has focused that international tourist arrivals worldwide will increase by 3.3% a year from 2010 to 2030 to reach 1.8 billion by 2030. Between 2010 and 2030, arrivals in emerging destinations (+4.4% a year) are expected to increase at double the pace of that in advanced economies (+2.2% a year) (UNWTO Highlights, 2013b).

Li and Guo (2017) note that, in developing countries, regions, towns and cities, tourism is considered as a catalyst for development. Therefore, governments in developing countries view tourism as a fast track to development and principal contributor to national social-economic development. This is because of the sector's ability to bring in the much needed foreign income, create employment opportunities, provide balance of payments advantages and essentially contribute to infrastructure developments that benefit both locals and visitors (Akama and Kieti, 2007).

In Zambia, tourism was almost non-existent at the time the country was gaining independence from Britain in 1964. Scholars such as Teye (1986) state that, tourism was not recognised as a sector worthy of development in Zambia until 1965 after the southern African country gained her independence. Arthur (1968), affirms that in 1965 Zambia developed the first National Development Plan; in that plan it projected 155,000 foreign visitors and US\$6 million receipts by 1970, basing its estimation on tourist arrivals and revenue during the early 1960s. Ngwira and Musinguzi, (2011a), document that "since independence, up until 1996, Zambia's tourism industry was just classified as a social sector". However, in 1996 the Zambian government reclassified the tourism sector from a social one to an economic one. This was done in recognition of the sector's potential to contribute to economic development in terms of, inter alia, foreign exchange earnings, employment and income generation, contribution to Government revenues, promotion of rural development and as well as perform the role of a sustain-

able development catalyst. By the year 2016, Zambia's tourism industry debatably had grown to be the second largest economic sector in the country contributing 4% to the country's Gross Domestic Product (Ministry of Tourism and Arts 2015; 2016).

The considerable share of international tourists who come to Zambia visit Livingstone because of the Victoria Falls / Mosi-oa-Tunya one of the seven natural wonders of the world and a United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) inscribed world heritage site. The Victoria Falls is a shared tourism product between Zambia and Zimbabwe which was inscribed as a UNESCO world heritage site in 1989. The other tourist pull factors to Livingstone are the many adrenaline activities that the destination offers, the rich cultural, historical heritage complemented with wildlife habitat in the Mosi-ao-tunya national park.

Zambia Tourism Agency the government tourism marketing wing intimates that in the past decade Livingstone has received more than a quarter of a million tourists, almost double the number of the previous decade. On average, almost half of the total tourists to Zambia visit Livingstone. The growth of tourism in Livingstone has stirred up the development of a diversity of associated infrastructure and facilities, such as hotels, lodges, safari camps and guest houses, the only airport in Livingstone has been upgraded and the runway extended to be able land bigger aircrafts.

Though Livingstone town has received its fair share of tourism and infrastructure development in the past decade and attracted many foreign tourism investors, arguably; the whole business in Livingstone is largely in the hands of the foreigners. Scholars such as Mbaiwa (2002) refers to such developments as developments that lead a booming tourist economy built around what is perceived internationally as a "new" and "exotic" destination. Ahn, Lee, and Shafer (2002) state that tourism facilities and programs are developed to create changes such as increased personal income or tax revenues to a host region. However, tourism as with any development can also produce changes that remove opportunity or threaten the quality of life, which is the case of Livingstone town in Zambia.

Previous studies on tourism development in Zambia and Livingstone in particular (Teye, 1988; Husbands, 1989; Rakner, 2003; and Muuka et al 2006) focused on positive economic impacts of tourism such as, foreign exchange earnings, employment creation and infrastructure development without necessarily extending their research into issues of poverty alleviation and the social-economic implications of tourism on the destination or investigating the equitable sharing and distribution of tourism benefits by stakeholders. The current growth and development of tourism in Livingstone, therefore, raises questions of sustainability in relation to social-economic benefits.

Wall (1997) explains that sustainable development provides for tourism to be economically viable, culturally appropriate and ecologically sensitive. The dependency paradigm approach to social-economic development in Livingstone presents an interesting matter of debate among economists and tourism scholars. Ngwira and Musinguzi, (2011b) contend that despite attracting so many foreign investors in the tourism sector, Livingstone remains among many towns with high poverty levels in Zambia.

The dependency paradigm is one of the frameworks that has been used to describe tourism in developing countries (Meyer, 2013). The dependency paradigm concept is based on the belief that resources flow from a «periphery» of poor and

underdeveloped states to a «core» of wealthy states, enriching the latter at the expense of the former. In the context of tourism the framework is grounded on the understanding that tourism in developing countries primarily relies on demand from, and is organised from developed countries. This scenario creates a type of tourism known as enclave tourism (Mbaiwa 2003, Mbaiwa, 2005). Consequently, the resolve of this paper is to use the dependency paradigm in explaining the social-economic impact of enclave tourism development in developing countries using destination Livingstone in Zambia as a case in point. The paper also uses the concept of sustainable development to assess the sustainability of tourism in Livingstone.

2. Sustainable Tourism Development

The concept of sustainable development result from a worldview which sees the survival, progress, and continued maintenance of the human community as dependent on the continued health and viability of the earth's life support systems (Keiner, 2005). Sustainable development implies processes of fundamental change in our social system institutions and individual actions. The drive of this change relates to addressing the challenges embedded in the 21st - century global awareness that the earth is finite, and all of the planet's life support systems including social and economic systems are globally interconnected and interdependent.

The publication of the 1987 Brundtland report, widely criticised in some circles as lacking specifics, «Our Common Future» marked a breakpoint in thinking on environment, development, and governance. The UN-sponsored World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED), led by Gro Harlem Brundtland, issued a bold call to recalibrate institutional mechanisms at global, national and local levels to promote economic development that would guarantee the security, well-being, and very survival of the planet (WCED, 1987: 23). Sneddon et al., (2006) emphasizes that the call for sustainable development was a redirection of the enlightenment project, a pragmatic response to the problems of the times.

The Brundtland report also provided the widely accepted definition of sustainable development which is that "Sustainable development is a development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs." The World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO, 1998) documents that, the United Nations Conference on Environment and Development, popularly known as the Earth Summit held in 1992 in Brazil Rio de Janeiro further stimulated the need for sustainable tourism development and was expressed in agenda 21 that was adopted by the conference.

After the Rio conference, many nations' organisations and governments began adopting sustainability as a fundamental development policy. The UNWTO was one of the first international organisations that adopted the sustainable approach to tourism development and preaches sustainable principles in all of its tourism planning and development guidelines. Hunt (1992: 2) suggested that the concept of sustainable tourism development is "one of the healthiest insights of tourism". However, the concept is not easily understood and - as policy - certainly not easily implemented (Haider and Johnston, 1992, Burr and Walsh, 1994). Butler (1993) suggested that a working defini-

tion of sustainable development in the context of tourism could be taken as tourism which remains viable over an indefinite period and does not degrade or alter the environment (human and physical) in which it exists to such a degree that it prohibits the successful development and well-being of other activities and processes. In line with Butler's suggestion, UNWTO has defined «sustainable tourism» as “tourism development that meets the needs of present tourists and host regions while protecting and enhancing opportunities for the future.” It is envisaged as leading to management of all resources in such a way that economic, social and aesthetic needs can be fulfilled while maintaining cultural integrity, essential ecological processes, biological diversity, and life support systems (World Tourism Organisation 1998).

3. Methodology

This paper utilised qualitative research design, basing results on data collected through interviews by the author between January 2017 and July 2017. While the scholarship relied on information obtained from both primary and secondary sources, the study mainly focused and relied on secondary data. Secondary data collection centred on the use of information obtained through the literatures collected from government policy documents, reports and in any other published and unpublished documents on tourism in Livingstone and Zambia. Primary data collection involved the administration of structured, semi-structured interviews with a complement of questionnaires to 35 tourism stakeholders in Livingstone. Structured and semi-structured interviews were administered to both foreign and local tourism investors, local residents and to domestic employees working in diverse tourism enterprises.

Furthermore primary data collection was supplemented with formal discussions held with the central and local government officials in Livingstone. These officials were randomly selected from such institutions as Ministry of Tourism and Arts Regional Office based, Livingstone Livingstone City Council, Ministry of Labour District Labour Office, Office of the District Commissioner, Zambia Tourism Agency office in Livingstone and Livingstone Tourism Association, a membership association for tourism operators based in Livingstone.

Interviews with tourism operators and local residents centred on issues of ownership of tourism facilities, employment opportunities, salary benefits and the impacts of tourism on their social life. While formal interviews and questionnaires administered to central and local government officials in Livingstone focused on matters of policies, labour laws, investment laws, equal sharing of benefits derived from tourism, the involvement of local community in tourism planning and development in Livingstone.

4. Results

The Socio-economic impacts of enclave tourism in Livingstone is not a unique case from other tourist destination in many developing countries around the world (Shaw and Shaw; 1999, Mbaiwa, 2005, Anderson, 2011; Naidoo and Sharpley; 2016). Once the capital city of Zambia, Livingstone city has grown from a small settler at Old Drift in 1905 (Arrington, 2010) to a bustling modern African city with a population of 139, 509 inhabitants and a population density of 201 persons per square kilometre

(CSO, 2010). Regarding social-economic development, the city of Livingstone has arguably undergone a vacillating transformation from a once-thriving industrial city combined with booming tourism industry to become one of the most economically disadvantaged towns in the country with high unemployment rates.

Historically, Livingstone was once upon a time a thriving town in Zambia, all the rich and famous people lived in Livingstone and apart from being the capital city of Zambia and a the core tourist destination, Livingstone was once an industrial town with one of the best motor assemblies in the country (Rogerson, 2005). However, the town started losing its economic power after the capital was moved to Lusaka augmented with the national economic collapse in the 1980s seemed to have put the last nail on the once economically thriving town in Zambia.

Since Zambia's 1980s economic downturn, Livingstone town has struggled to recover and overall the city's economy, like the national economy, has depended much on the informal sector for economic development. Shah, (2012a) observes "one of Zambia's main economic challenges is an ever-growing informal sector." Gerxhani, (2004) points out that, this sector is typically characterised by its ease of entry (anybody can start a business whenever they feel like) low levels of skills, labour intensive technology, and small-sized firms. However, the real value contribution to the economy is very low.

The informal sector in Zambia employs 90% of the labour force and has proliferated in recent years reaching approximately more than a million informal businesses, which mostly are rural based; involving agricultural activities done by farmers with low skills and generating low revenues (Shah, 2012b). As rightly observed by Shah, small-scale businesses and the informal economy are the prime economic activities in Livingstone. Much of the informal economy in Livingstone involves; cross-border trading, stone quarrying, selling of curios and handicrafts, small shops, street hawkers or vending. While other Livingstone residents are engaged in small-scale farming producing and selling various farm products ranging from vegetables to rearing cattle, chickens and goats.

Accordingly, the Livingstone Chamber of Commerce, asserts that this high percentage of businesses operate outside the scope of government / council levies and cost recovery systems. Therefore, not contributing to government revenue generation systems.

In terms of tourism development, contently Livingstone has witnessed steady growth in tourism development in the last two decades. However, this level of development has arguably been at a snail's pace compared to other tourist towns in the same region such as South Africa, Botswana and even the border town of Victoria falls across the Zambezi river in Zimbabwe. As advocated by McLachlan and Binns, (2014) "Livingstone, Zambia's tourism capital has experienced rapid growth both economically and socially, becoming a tourism hotspot within the southern African block. According to the records from the Patents and Companies Registration Agency (PACRA) a semi-autonomous executive agency of the Zambian Ministry of Commerce, Trade and Industry for the first quarter of 2014 only, more than 157 tourism business had been registered in Livingstone alone.

The government claims that the significant tourism development in Livingstone over the past two decades is arguably unquestionable (Ministry of Tourism and Arts, Department of Tourism, 2016). The town received massive government support in

infrastructure development towards the run-up to co-host the 2013 UNWTO General Assembly. Funds were made available for upgrades of the township roads, expansion of the runway on Livingstone international airport capable of landing such big planes as Boeing 777 and Airbus A380. Furthermore; the airport received funds for a brand new international terminal (Lusaka Times, 2011). The Livingstone Central Business District market was upgraded, and a new bus terminus constructed. Such unprecedented range of infrastructural development within the city has seen tourism become a focus not only for Livingstone but at the national level for economic and social development (Ministry of Tourism and Arts Department of Tourism, 2015).

Livingstone has also witnessed unparalleled development in the area of tourist's accommodation many players both local and foreign have come on board to set up quality accommodation facility in the city. Arguably the coming of Sun International Resort Hotel signified the start of modern tourism development in Livingstone.

The Zambian government view all these development in Livingstone as an opportunity for local people to be directly involved in the tourism businesses, giving the sector the potential to become an industry that is both socially and economically sustainable.

Tourism in Zambia is possibly all about Livingstone, and for quite some time now Livingstone has remained a must visit destination in the country for both local and international tourists. Table (1) below shows the international tourist arrivals by origin into Livingstone town for a period between 2012 to 2016. Tourism in Livingstone and Zambia as a whole is mainly dependant on foreign tourists. Domestic tourism in the country is still in its infancy.

Table 1. Tourist arrivals into Livingstone by origin 2012-2016

ORIGIN	YEAR				
	2012	2013	2014	2015	2016
South Africa	54,701	60,192	79,120	66,021	88,933
East Africa	40,644	42,937	45,735	48,533	51,331
North Africa	568	606	652	598	844
West Africa	1,028	1,508	1,608	705	1,608
Central Africa	34,251	45,428	51,271	58,913	65,500
Europe	65,087	70,595	69,757	55,919	134,081
America	20,682	26,638	29,250	21,413	43,801
Asia & Ocean	27,956	30,097	32,710	35,323	57,936
Total	244,917	278,001	310,103	287,425	444,034

Source: Ministry of Tourism and Arts (2016)

In terms of receipts, Livingstone is also considered to be the main contributor to revenue earned from the tourism sector. Between 2012 and 2016 the city of Livingstone total yearly direct revenue earned from various tourism enterprises ranged between

148,841,075 to 188,000,000 respectively. Table (2) shows a five-year period increase in revenue generation from tourism subsectors for the years 2012 to 2016.

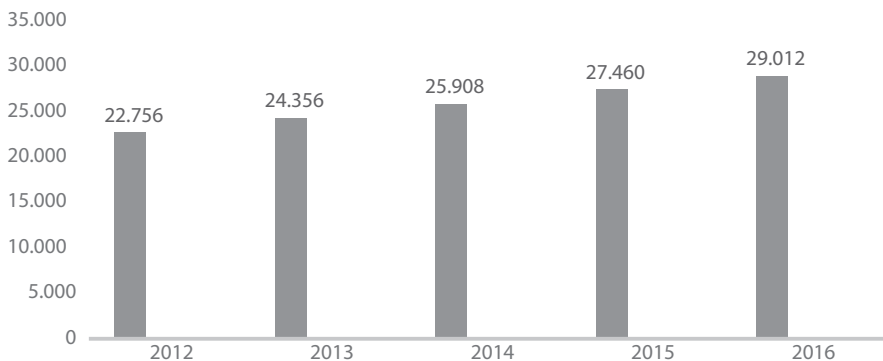
Table 2. Livingstone tourism receipts 2012-2016

SUB-SECTOR	YEAR AND AMOUNTS IN USD				
	2012 USD	2013 USD	2014 USD	2015 USD	2016 USD
Accommodation	561,321,00	60,571,624	62,150,653	66,638,473	70,900,017
Travel	44,174,611	47,668,409	48,911,068	52,442,874	55,796,606
Tours	25,953,158	28,005,810	28,735,888	30,810,870	32,781,231
Car Hire	14,726,759	15,891,508	16,305,781	17,483,201	18,601,255
Other	7,854,445	8,475,658	8,696,608	9,324,579	9,920,888
Total	148,841,075	160,613,011	164,800,000	176,700,000	188,000,000

Source: Ministry of Tourism and Arts (2016)

In relation to employment, the city of Livingstone has the highest workforce employed in the tourism sector in Zambia. One in three employees that you will meet in Livingstone work for the tourism enterprise or tourism-related business. Figure (2) below shows a five-year period 2012 to 2016 of the number of jobs or employment created by the tourism sector in Livingstone.

Figure 2. Tourism employment status in Livingstone 2012-2016



Source: Ministry of Tourism and Arts (2016)

The mainstay of tourism in Livingstone is debatably the Musi-ao-tunya / Victoria Falls, a world heritage tourism product shared with Zimbabwe. Situated about 10km from the city of Livingstone the Victoria Falls is one of the most visited tourism product in Zambia; it is one of the must must-see tourist attraction in Africa. Table (3) below

shows both local and foreign tourist visitor numbers to Victoria Falls World Heritage site for the period 2005 to 2010.

Table 3. Local and Foreign visitors to Victoria Falls 2005-2010

YEAR	LOCAL VISITORS	FOREIGN VISITORS	TOTAL
2010	79,162	41,038	120,200
2011	68,734	40,690	109,424
2012	82,224	44,267	126,491
2013	178,580	68,234	246,814
2014	110,790	71,980	182,770
2015	158,778	88,986	147,764
Total	678,268	355,195	1,033,463

Source: NHCC (2016)

Although local tourists surpass international tourists' numbers visiting the Victoria falls, in terms of revenue, more income is generated from foreign tourists as many local tourists to Victoria Falls are school going children who visit the world heritage site on complementary, nonetheless, are captured under domestic tourists statistics.

An assessment of tourism's contribution to social-economic development requires an investigation into the backward and forward linkages between tourism and other sectors, an understanding of the spatial location of tourism activities, and identification of the beneficiaries of its economic and other impacts (Briedenhann and Eugenia 2004). Therefore, the primary concern of any tourism destination in developing country is its ability to have strong linkages with the domestic social-economic sectors such as agriculture, manufacturing, construction, wholesale and retail trade, accommodation facilities and restaurants, transport, banking and insurance services, water and electricity, and social and personal services.

5. Discussions

Results from this study as illustrated by primary data from field interviews conducted by the author in Livingstone and backed by secondary data, indicates that; due to the nature of the Zambian (Livingstone) tourism industry (external control and management of tourism enterprises, weaker government labour and investment laws, limited involvement of the local community, high leakage rates and weaker linkages with the domestic economy), the tourism sector has not played a useful role in contributing to local socio-economic development.

Furthermore, collected and analysed data reveals that Zambia's tourism contribution to Gross Domestic Product (GDP) is still minimal, primarily because of the weaker forward and backward linkages and heavy reliance on foreign feeds. For example, the Ministry of Tourism and Arts, Department of Tourism (2016) produced a report demonstrating the impact of tourism on Zambia's economy; the report indicates that

tourism contributed 3.4% to GDP in 2015. Meanwhile, the 7th National Development plan has only captured some selected sectors from the whole tourism industry and records 1.4% (Hotel and Restaurants) as a contribution to National Gross Domestic Product. Despite the unreliable data on the real contribution of tourism to Zambia's GDP, interviews with officials from the Ministry of Tourism confirms that Zambia's tourism industry is not performing and contribute to government revenue as expected, citing its weaker linkages with the rest of the domestic economy coupled with some weaker regulations.

On who benefits more from tourism investment and tourism businesses in Livingstone it was found that the community felt left out as they accused foreign investors and the state of being the principal beneficiaries of the proceeds from the tourism industry. They wished they could benefit more at the household level.

Regarding investment, findings indicate that Zambia had very ambitious investment policies. However, it had some shortcomings; for instance, the Zambia Development Agency Act provides for all foreign investors to bring in at least five top management to work in their business, this kind of policy does not favour the local professional. The investment policies also lacked clear direction on the foreign tourism investors contribution to the development of the local economy in areas where they invest; this has just been left at the discretion of the investors. Furthermore, it was found that foreign tourism investors had been given too many incentives which have led to misconceptions among the local people.

Additionally; data available from the company registration authority PACRA shows that in Livingstone 80% of the tourism enterprise are foreign owned, citizens own 18% and 2% is jointly owned by citizens and non-citizens. This suggests that foreign companies and investors have an influence of about 80% of the tourism business in Livingstone. Earlier and similar studies were done by Rogerson (2011) confirm that foreign companies and investors mostly dominate the tourism industry in Livingstone and Zambia. This situation has a created negative social-economic impact on the host destination. This state of affairs is not in line with the principles of sustainable development which emphasises equal access and participation in by local people in the use of tourism resources. Therefore, a sustainable tourism industry should be sensitive to the needs and aspirations of the host population and provide them with the opportunity to participate in business ventures (Liu, 2003).

With regards to labour laws, findings indicate that in Zambia labour laws are somehow weak especially when it comes to protecting local professionals. This study found that one role foreign tourism investors can play in Livingstone is by contributing to poverty alleviation through offering job opportunities to local people. However, foreign tourism investors were criticised for offering low paying jobs such as gardeners, room attendants, waiters, drivers, receptionists as well as porters and cooks to the majority of local employees while management jobs are given to foreigners. It was argued that these jobs given to local's people do not have a high monetary value that would contribute to poverty alleviation and sustainable economic development in Livingstone. For example, Zambia's minimum wage for the tourism industry workers was found to be too way below the average living standard of the local people.

Apart from tourism contributing to national Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and offering employment opportunities to the local people, the other tourism value factor related to the social-economic impact of tourism in developing countries is ownership of tourism enterprises. This study found that in Livingstone, most tourist enterprises are owned by foreign investors, a situation that seems to have perpetuated «enclave tourism» or «captured tourism». Captured tourism in the sense that, these foreign-owned companies have created business cartels (Connor, and Lande, 2012) that have resulted in the few local investors from fully participating or efficiently competing with their fellow foreign investors.

Furthermore, this study found that because of the type of tourism development in Livingstone the sector had negative impacts on revenue generation as much of the revenue generated from tourism in Livingstone is repatriated outside the country, and many foreign-owned tourism businesses operate through packaged tours which allow their clients to pay for their services in the origin country thereby reducing the trick-down effect.

The study also found that domination of foreign tourists or visitors in Livingstone has brought about negativity in the social behaviour of local people especially the young people. Primary data from interviews indicate that many local people in Livingstone were involved in negative social behaviour such as abuse of alcohol and engaging in sexual activities that had resulted in increased sexually transmitted diseases like HIV/AIDS.

6. Conclusion

This paper has looked at issues surrounding sustainable tourism as a tool for local socio-economic development in developing countries, using the case study of Livingstone, a town in Zambia. Demonstrated by primary data from field interviews conducted in Livingstone, and supported by secondary data. The present scholarship found that due to the nature of the tourism industry in Livingstone which is characterised by external control and management of tourism enterprises, weaker government labour and investment laws, limited involvement of the local community, high leakage rates and weaker linkages with the domestic economy. The present study concludes that the tourism industry has not played an effective role in local socio-economic development in Livingstone.

Although there are the more negative social-economic impacts of enclave tourism on Livingstone, it, however, has some advantages as well, though quite difficult to validate. The growth of tourism in the last two decades in Livingstone has stimulated the development of a varied allied infrastructure and facilities. Including building of shopping malls, tarring and upgrading of the township roads and communication facilities, expansion of the runway at Livingstone international airport building of a brand new international terminal, upgrade of Livingstone Central Business District market, construction of new bus terminus. Livingstone has also witnessed the development of more accommodation facilities of different ranges. Through its backward linkages, wholesale and retail businesses have also been established to offer various goods and services to the tourism industry. Tourism in Zambia has become the third most important sector in the country after mining and agriculture. Despite the posi-

tive socio-economic impacts of enclave tourism in Livingstone, the industry has been unable to promote sustainable economic development and poverty alleviation in most parts of the city.

Since tourism in Livingstone is mostly dependent on both foreign investors and tourists, domestic tourism and citizen participation in tourism are very low. The industry is also characterised by the repatriation of revenue from out of the country and weak linkages with the domestic economy. Because negative impacts outweigh positives, one's tourism in Livingstone could be described as 'captured tourism' or enclave tourism which is largely controlled by foreign business and tourists.

To address problems of enclave tourism and promote more inclusive and beneficial tourism development in Livingstone and other developing countries, there is need to adopt policies and strategies that ensure full involvement of local communities and the return of substantial earnings from tourism. The strategies must also ensure that tourism development has strong linkages with the rest of the economic activities.

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Sustainable tourism and social entrepreneurship. The magic town of Tequila, Mexico

Turismo sostenible y emprendimiento social. El pueblo mágico de Tequila, México

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Abstract

The UNESCO World Heritage Site and the "Magic Towns" program in Mexico, both granted to Tequila, aim to guarantee the tourist sustainability of the territory to fight poverty, preserve the rich and unique existing cultural and historical heritage, and promote the inclusion of the indigenous population. However, 57,1% of the population lives in poverty in Tequila (IIEG Jalisco, 2017). The objective of this paper is to analyze whether the appointment of Tequila as a UNESCO World Heritage Site and as "Magic Town" has contributed to reducing poverty. A qualitative-quantitative methodology based on the technique of observation and content analysis is used to answer this question, close with a SWOT analysis to have a holistic review of the topic. The main conclusions are: 1. There are high levels of poverty in Tequila, although they are lower than in non-Agave locations; 2. Excessive tequila protection prevents the development of other distilled beverages within the region; 3. The production and marketing of tequila contributes to the sustainability of gastronomic tourism and nature in the tequila region; and 4. Tequila is a crucial piece in the Tourism Policy of Mexico by 2040, which guarantees its continuity and prevents the strengthening of tequila substitute beverages.

Resumen

Tanto la concesión a la villa de Tequila como Patrimonio de la Humanidad de la UNESCO como el programa "Pueblos Mágicos" en México tienen como objetivo garantizar la sostenibilidad turística del territorio para combatir la pobreza, preservar el rico y único patrimonio cultural e histórico existente y promover la inclusión de la población indígena. Sin embargo, un 57,1% de la población vive en pobreza en Tequila (IIEG Jalisco, 2017). El objetivo de este trabajo es analizar si el doble nombramiento de Tequila como Patrimonio Cultural de la UNESCO y como "pueblo mágico" ha contribuido a reducir la pobreza. Para responder a este interrogante se utiliza una metodología cuali-cuantitativa basada en la técnica de la observación y el análisis de contenido y se realiza un análisis DAFO para tener así un análisis holístico del tema a analizar. Las principales conclusiones son: 1. Existen altos niveles de pobreza en Tequila, aunque son menores que en pueblos no agaveros; 2. La excesiva protección del tequila evita el desarrollo de otras bebidas destiladas dentro de la región; 3. La producción y la comercialización del tequila contribuye a la sostenibilidad del turismo gastronómico y de naturaleza en la región tequilera; y 4. El tequila constituye una pieza clave dentro de la política turística de México al 2040, lo que garantiza su continuidad y evita el fortalecimiento de bebidas sustitutivas al tequila.

Keywords | palabras clave

Tourist industry, ecotourism, sustainable development, entrepreneurship, regional development, poverty alleviation. Industria del turismo, ecoturismo, desarrollo sostenible, emprendimiento, desarrollo regional, lucha contra la pobreza.

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1. Introduction

Since 2003 the town and city (since 1873) of Tequila was named «Magical Town» of Mexico and since July 12, 2006 both the agave landscape and the old Tequila industrial facilities were listed as UNESCO World Heritage Sites, within the category of Cultural Landscapes. Developed from 2001 by the Tourism Secretariat of Mexico (SECTUR) with the publication of Agenda 21 for Mexican Tourism, the «Magical Towns» program has the following objectives (Velarde, Maldonado & Maldonado, 2009, García & Guerrero, 2014, p.1). 1. To structure a complementary and diversified tourist offer towards the interior of the country, and whose singular sites have great historical-cultural attributes; 2. Generate and promote the crafts, festivities, traditions and cuisine of the place; 3. Generate tourism products such as adventure, extreme sports, ecotourism, sport fishing, and 4. Revalue, consolidate and reinforce the tourist attractions of this group of populations of the country, which represent different alternatives to meet the demand of national and foreign visitors.

Both the development of tourism and the success of tequila production have attracted labor from other towns near Tequila, which has made the town grow. According to data from 2010 collected by the National Institute for Federalism and Municipal Development of Mexico, the municipality of Tequila had 157 localities that occupy a total area of 1 692.99 square kilometers and 40 697 inhabitants (20 148 men and 20 549 women), the population of Tequila being the lead with 29 203 inhabitants (14 340 men and 14 863 women). However, multidimensional poverty, whose characteristics will be analyzed in this work, reaches 57.1% of the population in Tequila (20 751 people).

The goal of this work is to analyze if the combination between the tequila production, the magic town characterization and the attraction of a tourism that is friendly towards the environment has contributed to diminish the poverty in the municipality of Tequila. To this end, we will begin by analyzing the pillars that have led to the development of sustainable tourism in Tequila, then analyze whether the degree of poverty is lower in the municipality, as well as the description of the public-private measures of social entrepreneurship carried out in the municipality. All this will lay the foundations for a SWOT analysis with some suggestions for improvement, leading up to concluding remarks.

2. Sustainable tourism in the magical town of Tequila

At present, there are 113 magical towns distributed in 31 Mexican states, of which seven are located in the State of Jalisco (table 1). Sustainable tourism at the magical town of Tequila is a result of a privileged natural environment formed by the volcanic lands of the Tequila hill, as well as by the abundance of rivers (Bolaños, Chico and Grande de Santiago), streams (Arroyo Hondo, Balcones, Barranco, Carrizal, El Maguey, Joyas de las Tablas, Las Higueras, Mirador, Picacho de Balcones, Piedras Grandes, San Bartolo, Tejón and Tequesquite), springs (Los Azules, Aguacatillo, La Fundación, La Gloria and La Toma) and the dam of Santa Rosa, inaugurated on September 2, 1964 and located on the Rio Grande de Santiago with a capacity of 403 hm³ and an installed capacity of 70 MW.

Table 1. The magic towns of the State of Jalisco

Populations	Inhabitants (n°)	Area (km2)
Lagos de Moreno	153 817**	2 648
Mascota	104 045***	1 591
Mazamitla	11 671****	177.2
San Sebastián del Oeste	5 626*	1 400
Talpa de Allende	13 612*	2 685
Tapalpa	19 506****	442.2
Tequila	40 697**	356.1

Notes: * In 2005 ** In 2010 *** In 2013 **** In 2015

Source: Secretariat of Tourism (2017)

This tourist sustainability rests on three fundamental pillars: two public and one private. The first public pillar is inserted within the framework of the National Tourism Policy of Mexico (2013-2018), through which the Tourism Secretariat signed, in 2015, a collaboration agreement with the National Commission for the Development of Indigenous Peoples and the National Tourism Promotion Fund to promote the development and competitiveness of indigenous peoples through the development of sustainable projects linked to alternative tourism, ecotourism and rural tourism. This National Tourism Policy of Mexico is based on four principles:

Principle 1 The ordering and sectoral transformation of the territory, with the creation of a Tourism Cabinet to optimize efforts in tourism.

Principle 2 Innovation and competitiveness in the republic, with the launch of new tourism offers in Mexico and the consolidation of existing destinations.

Principle 3 The promotion and support of tourist destinations by the State, as well as the creation of conditions to generate private investment in the tourism sector.

Principle 4 The achievement of sustainability and social benefit through the creation of instruments for tourism to care for and preserve the great natural, historical and cultural heritage of Mexico.

The second public pillar is given by the support of the five states that have the Tequila Denomination of Origin (DOT) and the localities producing tequila, especially the municipality of Tequila, state of Jalisco. This strong support, in the case of the magical town of Tequila, is reflected in the 2015-2018 Municipal Development Plan, according to which municipal growth is structured into six axes of development: (1) *Environment and Sustainable Life*, where the aquifers and hydrological reserves existing in the municipality are protected by respecting biodiversity, in order to guarantee irrigation to the agave plantations and the supply of drinking water to the population; (2) *Prosperous and Inclusive Economy*, through a sustainable, competitive and quality tourism development that leads to the creation of stable employment, rural development and economic growth; (3) *Equity of Opportunities*, guaranteeing access to health, housing and education, especially to the population at risk of poverty; (4) *Community and Quality of Life*, with a cultural and creative development that benefits the population and strives for community cohesion;

(5) *Guarantee of Rights and Freedom*, with an adequate plan for citizen security and civil protection, introducing measures to prevent (or at least alleviate) intrafamily violence, and (6) *Reliable and Effective Institutions* characterized by their transparency policy.

The private pillar is defined by the private entrepreneurship ecosystem, formed by tequila companies and research centers that promote the efficiency and productivity of the Tequila manufacturing industry (CIATEJ, 2004). In fact, this industry in Tequila (table 2) represents 97% of the production value of tequila companies (Municipal Development Plan 2015-2018, page 75), added to small microenterprises and cooperatives that offer the market products derived from tequila, such as agave honey, and crafts made with tequila motifs (wooden barrels for storing tequila, pyrography in wood and tequila glasses (“caballitos”) made by fifty families of the municipality integrated in the two cooperatives of existing artisans in Tequila. All this means that there is a strong diversification in the reasons for a tourist visit to the village of Tequila, as shown in table 3.

Table 2. Tequila companies in the Municipality of Tequila

Tradename	Legal name
Antes Viuda de Romero	Auténtica Tequilera, S.A. de C.V.
Tequila Cuervo	Casa Cuervo, S.A. de C.V.
Ex Hacienda el Martineño	Casa Reyes Barajas, S.A. de C.V.
El Llano	Destiladora Azteca de Jalisco, S.A. de C.V.
Casa Maestri	Destiladora del Valle de Tequila, S.A. de C.V.
Rubio	Destiladora Rubio, S.A. de C.V.
Leyros	Destilería Leyros, S.A. de C.V.
La Estación	Fábrica de Tequilas Finos, S.A. de C.V.
La Cofradía	La Cofradía, S.A. de C.V.
El Llano	Tequila Arette de Jalisco, S.A. de C.V.
La Villa Sauza	Tequila Los Abuelos, S.A. de C.V.
La Orendain	Tequila Orendain de Jalisco, S.A. de C.V.
Sauza	Tequila Sauza, S.A. de C.V.
Xalisco	Tequileña, S.A. de C.V.
Don Roberto	Tequilera Don Roberto, S.A. de C.V.
Antes La Arenita	Tequilera La Primavera, S.A. de C.V.
El Mendineño	Tierra de Agaves, S.A. de C.V.
El Castillo de los Luna	El Castillo de los Luna, S.A. de C.V.
La Guarreña	Jorge Salles Cuervo y Sucesores, S.A. de C.V.
La Alborada	Unión de Productores de Agave, S.A. de C.V.
San Pedro de los Landeros	Destiladora Génesis, S.A. de C.V.
La Curva a la Toma	Grupo Tequilero Weber, S.A. de C.V.
Las Norias	Tequila Hacienda Las Norias, S.A. de C.V.

Source: Social Communication Department, Tequila City Council, Jalisco

Table 3. Reasons for tourist visits to the magical town of Tequila (2016)

Tequila houses	20.16%	Natural heritage	6.60%
Town	18.32%	Traditions	2.90%
Historical Center	15.03%	Cultural activities	1.19%
Agave landscape	12.44%	Gastronomy	1.09%
Cultural heritage	8.83%	Recreational activities	1.04%
Walks and tours	8.17%	Others	4.23%

Source: Yearbook 2016, Secretariat of Tourism, Government of the State of Jalisco, Mexico.

The strong tourist growth has been due to an intense public-private collaboration in which the Public Administrations have raised tourism as a tool to combat poverty, promote social inclusion and generate economic development, which is why González-Terrero (2010) distinguishes four stages in the development of the tourist activity of Tequila: Spontaneous Tourism (before 1997), Informal Tourism (1997-2002), Institutionalized Tourism (2003-2006) and Tourist Euphoria (Since 2007). However, this raises the question of whether this tourist euphoria has reduced the levels of poverty in the population. This is what we will see in the following section.

3. Multidimensional poverty in Tequila and magical towns

According to the «Evaluation of Social Development Policy 2016» Report by CONEVAL (National Council for the Evaluation of Social Development Policy), the state of Jalisco has managed to lift almost half a million people out of poverty, and according to data from SEDESOL (Department of Social Development) for 2017, the degree of social backwardness is considered low in the Magic Towns of the state of Jalisco, as education has improved, as well as access to health services and housing. These improvements are observed due to a lower lack of access to health services (33.8% in 2010, 18% in 2015), a greater willingness to have piped water in the home (6.8% in 2010, 1.8 % in 2015) and a lower lack of electricity in housing (0.9% in 2010, 0.3% in 2015) (SEDESOL, 2017). Despite these achievements, the high levels of measured poverty still existing in Tequila are worrisome, according to the Statistics and Geographic Information Institute (IIEG) of Jalisco, due to:

- Population in multidimensional poverty: Individuals with an income below the value of the welfare line and who suffer from at least one social deprivation.
- Vulnerable population due to social deprivation: Population that presents one or more social deficiencies, but whose income is higher than the welfare line.
- Vulnerable population by income: not presenting social deficiencies but income is less than or equal to the welfare line.
- Population without multidimensional poverty or vulnerability: has no social deprivation and income is above the welfare line.

As can be seen in Table 4, high levels of multidimensional poverty exist in magical towns, ranging from 38.1% in San Sebastián del Oeste to 73.6% in Talpa de Allende, with Tequila at 57.1%, leading to the conclusion that the expected results after the implementation of the state anti-poverty plans have not been too positive. This situation also occurs in terms of extreme poverty, which ranges in these municipalities between 14.4% in Talpa de Allende and 4.7% in San Sebastián del Oeste, and which is related to a low (and even non-existent) educational level and the performance of informal jobs with very low salaries and without any type of coverage and health protection.

Table 4. Multidimensional poverty in the magical towns of the State of Jalisco

	Multidimensional poverty (In % and population)			Vulnerability (In % and population)		
	Total	Moderate	Extreme	VSD	VI	NV
Lagos de Moreno	43.4% 70 720	37.3% 60 872	6.0% 9 849	32.4% 52 847	7.1% 11 660	17.1% 27 908
Mascota	56.7% 7 665	51.5% 6 962	5.2% 703	28.1% 3 799	4.8% 649	10.4% 1 406
Mazamitla	56.5% 7 141	48.4% 6 114	8.1% 1 027	32.9% 4 158	2.6% 329	8% 1 011
San Sebastián del Oeste	38.1% 2 755	33.4% 2 416	4.7% 339	56.2% 4 059	0.5% 36	5.2% 372
Talpa de Allende	73.6% 10 915	59.2% 8 781	14.4% 2 135	18.9% 2 803	3.3% 489	4.1% 608
Tapalpa	65.1% 12 049	53.4% 9 889	11.7% 2 160	28.2% 5 219	2.5% 463	4.2% 777
Tequila	57.1% 20 751	47.4% 17 243	9.6% 3 508	22.7% 8 249	7.7% 2 798	12.6% 4 579

Note: VSD (Vulnerable by Social Deprivation), VI (Vulnerable by Income) and NV (Not Vulnerable).

Source: IIEG (2017a, b) and CONEVAL-SEDESOL (2010) for all municipalities.

This failure in the fight against multidimensional poverty is also observed in the existence of high levels of vulnerability, especially in terms of social deprivation, in aspects such as poor nutrition, low levels of health care and not belonging to health systems, reduced levels of schooling and disposition of housing with structural deficiencies and lack of means (Table 5).

Table 5. Social deprivation in the magical towns of Jalisco

Lagos de Moreno						
	RE	AHS	ASS	HQS	BHS	AF
In %	26.7	36.6	54.7	5.8	17.2	36.1
Population	43 619	59 707	89 305	9 426	28 100	58 821
Mascota						
	RE	AHS	ASS	HQS	BHS	AF
In %	26	18.6	74	4.5	8.7	13.6
Population	3 514	2 511	10 002	613	1 178	1 836
Mazamitla						
	RE	AHS	ASS	HQS	BHS	AF
In %	26.1	34.7	78.6	7.9	25.8	20.1
Population	3 292	4 378	9 927	1 003	3 256	2 535
San Sebastián del Oeste						
	RE	AHS	ASS	HQS	BHS	AF
In %	28.6	23.9	84.5	8.4	23	16.4
Population	2 066	1 726	6 107	604	1 663	1 182
Talpa de Allende						
	RE	AHS	ASS	HQS	BHS	AF
In %	27.1	17.8	83.8	13.4	34.6	27.3
Population	4 011	2 636	12 413	1 991	5 121	4 051
Tapalpa						
	RE	AHS	ASS	HQS	BHS	AF
In %	28.3	23.7	85.5	10	21.7	27.3
Population	5 231	4 378	15 834	1 853	4 013	5 056
Tequila						
	RE	AHS	ASS	HQS	BHS	AF
In %	19	36.4	68.6	10.7	23.6	31.8
Population	6 925	13 223	24 947	3 893	8 582	11 577

Note: EL (Educational Lag), AHS (Access to Health Services), ASS (Access to Social Security), HQS (Housing Quality and Spaces), BHS (Basic Housing Services), AF (Access to Food).

Source: IIEG (2017a, b) and CONEVAL-SEDESOL (2010) for all municipalities.

Educational lag, which ranges from 19% in Tequila to 28.6% in San Sebastián del Oeste, it is defined by the non-completion of basic studies due, mainly, to the need to work (usually illegally) at an early age, a situation that also occurs in Mexico because, according to data from the Secretariat of Public Education (SEP) for the academic year 2016-2017, the net enrollment rate for Pre-school Education (from 3 to 5 years of age)

was 62.3%, for Primary Education (from 6 to 11 years of age) of 97.5%, for Secondary Education (from 12 to 14 years of age) it reached 86.2% and in Higher Secondary Education (from 15 to 17 years of age) it reached 57.2% and only 29.8% for Higher Education (from 18 to 22 years of age) (SEP, 2017). The fact that barely more than half of the Mexican population is schooled from 15 to 17 years of age harms the economic development of the Aztec nation in the medium and long term and tends to aggravate social inequalities within Mexico. Therefore, the improvement in educational quality leads to a generation of employment that acts as a necessary but not sufficient condition to achieve important changes in the distribution of income and achieve greater permeability among the different social strata existing in Mexico (Peticara, 2012).

A second aspect to be improved within the social deprivations of the Magic Towns of the state of Jalisco is given by the development of a greater advancement of basic primary health care in the localities, as well as with the need for an increase in the number of hospitals with doctors specializing in surgery, as only five hospitals exist among all the Magical Towns: the Elena Margarita Hospital in Tequila, the Regional Hospital of Mascota and three hospitals in Lagos de Moreno: Regional Hospital, Rafael Larios Hospital and San Hermión Hospital. Since the rest of the municipalities are covered mainly by health centers and not by hospitals, this explains the great divergence that exists in the Magic Towns between access to health services whose degree of deficiency reaches 27.38% on average, and access to hospitals managed by Social Security whose degree of deficiency reaches 75.67% on average.

With regard to housing, and although the magical town of Mascota is an exception with 8.7% of homes lacking basic needs, it is necessary to make a greater effort, both by the owners of the houses and the State of Jalisco, so that there is an improvement in the habitability conditions since, on average, almost a quarter of the houses located in the Magical Towns present some type of lack in their construction.

Finally, the high levels of food deprivation existing in Magic Towns, which oscillate between 36.1% in Lagos de Moreno and 13.6% in Mascota, are noteworthy. This high food deficiency is due to the low incomes received by those who work in these Magical Towns, largely in informal street stalls (tianguis) with artisanal products that are not very diversified and are aimed at tourists. This small diversification and the massification in predetermined places tend to lower prices, which reduces the profits of sellers. That is why the establishment of a single price or the willingness to agree on a range of prices (minimum and maximum) to prevent sellers from cannibalizing each other is desirable.

These social deficiencies in terms of health, education and housing encourage the population to migrate to other municipalities, regions and countries, which increases the degree of migratory intensity (DMI) in these localities. It should be noted that the only magical town with a low DMI rating is Tequila, and together with Tapalpa it exceeds the 1,000th position in the Mexican municipalities with the lowest DMI (table 6).

Although the DMI at Tequila is considered low with a migratory intensity index (MII) of 2.25, this situation contrasts with the DMIs classified as high observable in San Sebastián del Oeste (MII = 5.06), Mascota (MII = 4.93) and Lagos de Moreno (MII = 4.62). These high rates suggest that the income generated by tourism is insufficient in these municipalities, despite the tourist attractions in them, mainly, among others, the silver mines in San Sebastian del Oeste, the Regional Museum of Archeology in Mascota and the Historic Center of Lagos de Moreno, designated as a World Heritage site by UNESCO.

Table 6. Degree of migratory intensity in the magical towns of Jalisco

Lagos de Moreno				
%HR	MII	DMI	Position in Jalisco	Position in Mexico
10.23	4.62	High	65	469
Mascota				
%HR	MII	DMI	Position in Jalisco	Position in Mexico
19.29	4.93	High	55	412
Mazamitla				
%HR	MII	DMI	Position in Jalisco	Position in Mexico
10.67	3.94	Medium	75	629
San Sebastián del Oeste				
%HR	MII	DMI	Position in Jalisco	Position in Mexico
16.51	5.06	High	50	390
Talpa de Allende				
%HR	MII	DMI	Position in Jalisco	Position in Mexico
5.45	2.92	Medium	95	893
Tapalpa				
%HR	MII	DMI	Position in Jalisco	Position in Mexico
4.96	2.39	Medium	104	1084
Tequila				
%HR	MII	DMI	Position in Jalisco	Position in Mexico
4.31	2.25	Low	108	1141

Note: % HR (Percentage of households that receive remittances), MII (Migration Intensity Index), DMI (Degree of Migratory Intensity)

Source: Government of Mexico (2010) and CONEVAL-SEDESOL (2010a,b,c,d,e,f,g,h)

In the state of Tequila, both the Metropolitan Area of Guadalajara, formed by the municipalities of El Salto, Guadalajara, Tlajomulco de Zúñiga, Tlaquepaque, Tonalá, Zapopan, Juanacatlán and Ixtlahuacán de los Membrillos, and the coastal municipalities of Puerto Vallarta, Cihuatlán and Cabo Corrientes and Ocotlán, considered the capital of furniture in Mexico, have lower emigration rates than the magical town of Tequila. The opposite is true in Ajijic and Chapala, where the largest natural lake in Mexico is located, and which are characterized by having a growing population of people of retirement age (over 65 years), mainly American and Canadian.

Table 7. Wealth in Tequila vs. rural municipalities of Jalisco

Tequila		12.6%	
Nearby municipalities		Other municipalities	
Amatitan	14.7%	Mezquitic	0.7%
El Arenal	12.2%	Encarnación de Díaz	4.3%
Tapexco	12.6%	Santiago Ixcuintla	8.0%
San Juanito de Escobedo	10.0%	Tomatlán	5.8%
Magdalena	10.6%	Cuquío	1.3%

Source: IIEG Jalisco (2017) for each of the municipalities

There have been attempts to alleviate the persistence of these levels of poverty with public-private activities based on social entrepreneurship, as well as ad hoc measures taken at both the state and federal levels to combat this serious social inequality. This is what we will see in the following section.

4. Social entrepreneurship in the magical town of Tequila

Following Merino (2013), cited by Rodríguez and Ojeda (2013), social entrepreneurship is characterized by the identification of a social problem that can be resolved by creating social value (Mair & Marti, 2006) through the realization of strategic policies to achieve a social transformation and improvement that benefits the whole society.

Optimally, the design of these strategic policies must come from the combination of public and private initiative to create positive externalities for the entire population and thus relaunch economic growth. The magical town of Tequila is an example of public-private collaboration to achieve sustainable economic growth with environmental and tourism preservation, as well as to fight against poverty.

In fact, there is a high level of social entrepreneurship activities carried out by the municipality of Tequila, with the ultimate goal of supporting the most economically disadvantaged populations and achieving a harmonious development of the entire territory that benefits tourism, whether through the creation of cooperatives that produce and sell products complementary to tequila (for example, agave honey) or substitutes to it (for example, typical sweets and different types of fruit preserves) that are purchased by tourists (table 8).

Given the structural transformation of the magical town of Tequila in little more than twenty years, we could say that social entrepreneurs within the municipality are characterized by being visionaries and, in Schumpeterian terminology, have become social engineers (Rodríguez & Ojeda, 2013). However, given the still existing poverty data, there is still work to be done. Some of these measures are integrated in the SWOT analysis in the following section.

Table 8. Social Entrepreneurship in Tequila (4th Quarter 2017)

Start		Activity	Organizers
		December 2017	
Pb		Support for elderly people	City Council Jalisco Institute for the Elderly
Pb		Basic Rehabilitation Unit of the Tequila DIF System	City Council
Pb	Pr	Agricultural Expo 2017	City Council Secretariat of Rural Development (SEDER)
		November 2017	
Pb	Pr	Dispute Resolution Workshop	City Council Institute of Alternative Justice (IJA)
Pb		Fight against dengue, zika and chikunguya	Jalisco Secretariat of Health
		October 2017	
Pb	Pr	Help from the City Council for two women’s cooperatives (traditional sweets and fruit preserves)	City Council Cooperatives
Pb		SEDESOL Pension Program for the Elderly	City Council Secretariat of Social Development (SEDESOL)
Pb	Pr	Opening of a road to Cerro de Tequila to benefit 100 shareholders of the Tequila Agrarian Community	City Council and shareholders (cover cost of diesel)

Note: Init (Initiative), Pb (Public), Pr (Private)

Source: City Council of Tequila (2017)

5. SWOT analysis

Weaknesses

1. Strong dispersion of crops (5,700 farmers who grow 269 million agave plants in 90,000 hectares) (Abaco, 2014) which increases transport and tequila manufacturing costs.
2. Excessive dependence on the cultivation and production of tequila, which prevents the development of other varieties and products.
3. Existence of a quasi-oligopolistic tequila production (23 companies, part of which are in foreign hands) on which the entire population of the municipality depends economically.

4. In some tequila companies that are not excessively technified, and are generally smaller, the production process of tequila is not optimized, so there are losses of sugars by not using the entire fruit during the hydrolysis and extraction of the sugars from the fiber. This weakness can be overcome, among other ways, with the installation of production processes based on *kaizen* and installation and commissioning of systems of TQM, *Total Quality Management* and control both for the process and the final product, through Six Sigma, Lean Management and TPM, *Total Productivity Management*, as has been done in tequila companies in foreign hands.

Threats

1. Climate change is slowing the development of agave. The climate of the municipality is semi-dry, with a dry winter and spring, and semi-warm without a defined winter season. The average annual temperature is 23.2° C and the average annual precipitation is of 1 073.1 millimeters of rain in the months of June to October. The prevailing winds blow in a northeast and southeast direction. The average number of days with frost per year is 0.4. Given the relative dryness of the land, an increase in temperature could endanger the production of agave.
2. The sale of production plants to foreign multinationals leads to the loss of control in the medium and long term to local companies in the production and distribution of tequila in the world.
3. The growing international competition in the production of distilled beverages, especially with the growth of vodka and whiskey, can threaten the tequila market in the medium term.
4. The entry into the Mexican market of distilled tequila substitutes, with a similar alcoholic strength (becherovka, bourbon, brandy, cachaça, cognac, fermet, gin, grappa, mezcal, white marc, rum, vodka, and whiskey, among others).
5. The generalization of the four diseases of tequila agave (wilt, bud rot, gray spot and red ring) although, according to data from the Tequila Regulatory Council (2010), they hardly have an impact on production.

Strengths

1. As the orographic and climatic characteristics of the region are unique, it is difficult to grow agave tequilana in other regions and countries, which gives unique competitive advantages to the producers that have the Tequila Denomination of Origin (TDO).
2. The implementation of a TDO since 1974 by the National Chamber of the Tequila Industry (CNIT) and its declaration as Cultural Patrimony of UNESCO in 2006 have led to protection in the production and distribution of tequila to 181 municipalities of Guanajuato, Jalisco, Nayarit, Michoacán and Tamaulipas, of which 125 are in Jalisco (table 9).
3. The integration of tourism policies through the combination of municipal activities and those of the Magic Towns program, the Tequila Train that connects the Metropolitan Area of Guadalajara with Tequila through the agave landscape, museums of tequila factories and the renovation and maintenance of the historical

downtown area, have attracted tourists to the magical town of Tequila to a total of 256,047 tourists, of which 223,400 (87.25%) are Mexican and the rest (12.75%) foreigners (SECTURJAL, 2017).

Table 9. Quantity of blue agave plants

State	Number of plants	%
Jalisco	430 056 509	85%
Nayarit	34 209 235	6.79%
Michoacán	15 638 408	3.10%
Tamaulipas	12 110 083	2.40%
Guanajuato	11 823 084	2.35%
Total	503 837 319	100%

Source: González-Terrero (2010)

4. The proximity to the Metropolitan Area of Guadalajara, formed by the populations of El Salto, Guadalajara, Ixtlahuacán de los Membrillos, Juanacatlán, San Pedro Tlaquepaque, Tlajomulco de Zúñiga, Tonalá and Zapopan, forming an urban agglomeration of more than 4.4 million inhabitants, facilitates the arrival of tourism, both national and international, mainly on weekends.
5. As 'tequila' is the third word most strongly associated with Mexico after the words 'mariachi' and 'charro' (Murià, 2015), it is a well-known product both in Mexico and abroad, which makes it easier to market.

Opportunities

1. It would be possible to organize visits to some of the mines, mainly gold and silver, but also lead, copper, opal, kaolin and bentonite that exist in the region.

Table 10. Tequila production in Mexico

	Production ¹	Export	Consumption of agave ²
2010	257.5	152.5	1 015.1
2011	261.1	163.9	998.4
2012	253.2	166.7	880.6
2013	226.5	172.0	756.9
2014	242.4	172.5	788.2
2015	228.5	182.9	788.9
2016	273.3	197.9	941.8
2017 ³	209.2	158.4	721.4

Note: 1 In millions of liters expressed at 40% Alc.

2 In thousands of tons

3 Until October included

Source: Website of the Tequila Regulatory Council

2. The 28,430 hectares of forest are underutilized for tourism, so you could make trekking routes based on ecotourism to admire the forests of pine, oak, strawberry tree, oak, huizache and mesquite, mainly, as well as trees and fruit or edible plants (avocado, plum, guamúchil, lemon, mango, mezcal, nopal, pitahayo and banana) and flora.
3. The existing rich fauna (squirrel, armadillo, rabbit, coyote, lizard, raccoon, badger, deer, fox, skunk and some reptiles and birds) could lead to an Observatory of animal life in strategic points of the territory.
4. There is strong federal and state support for the cultivation and improvement of agave that is observed by the approval in 2014 of the Strategic Project for the Arrangement of the Agave-Tequila Chain that consists of five axes: 1. Phytosanitary management to prevent pests and diseases; 2. Research and Technology Transfer to improve productivity and maximize growth; 3. Technical assistance and training; 4. Legal Framework and Standardization, to have a single Internal Regulation for the Agave Producer; and 5. Access and promotion, to increase sales in the 90 countries to which it is exported and find new markets. Therefore, guided tours of the interior of the agave fields, as done by the company La Cofradía, could be of interest for tourism.

6. Conclusions

Given its economic importance, the production and distribution of tequila has become a strategic industry in the 181 municipalities that produce and distill tequila in Mexico. For this reason, it is very important to continue with the granting of badges and the tracking of product traceability, both by the Tequila Regulatory Board and by the National Chamber of the Tequila Industry. In this way the quality of the product is guaranteed to avoid the proliferation of adulterated beverages and pseudo-tequila that directly affect the prestige of the product. That is why tequila is protected by the Denomination of Origin, the distinctive T of the Regulatory Council of Tequila, the TT distinctive of the Tequila Route, by the International Tequila Registry before the World Protection Organization, and by ad hoc regulations in international agreements.

This tequila protection also seeks to guarantee tourist sustainability of the region. This is backed up by social responsibility policies carried out in the municipalities following a double public-private perspective, such as the design and implementation of the Tequila Route (www.rutadeltequila.org.mx), formed the populations of Ahualulco de Mercado, Amatitán, El Arenal, Etzatlán, Magdalena, San Juanito de Escobedo, Tequila and Teuchitlán. Tourism sustainability of the tequila zone is framed within the so-called Tourism Policy of Mexico by 2040 in which the Secretariat of Tourism (SECTUR) participates in coordination with the Tourism Commission of the National Conference of Governors (Conago), public institutions and private organizations. The strategic value of tourism is very large since it is equivalent to 8.5% of Mexican GDP (INEGI, 2017a).

Despite this protection, the level of poverty in Tequila has barely been reduced due to:

- The sale of a large part of the main tequila companies to foreign multinationals, which prevents the benefits from reverting to the community, as would be the case if cooperative models were followed, as in other countries.
- The non-creation of quadruple helix models between Tequila companies, universities of the Metropolitan Area of Guadalajara, non-governmental organizations and the State.
- The low levels of formality in the labor market, especially in street vending and informal tequila companies.
- The underdevelopment of alternative industries to the tequila industry, which results in reduced job opportunities in this environment.
- The concentration of wealth in a few tequila families, which means that this wealth does not permeate the rest of the population.
- The high levels of insecurity in Mexico. According to the INEGI (National Institute of Statistics and Geography), the social perception of public insecurity at the national level reached 72.9% in March 2017 (INEGI, 2017b), reducing the number of tourists wishing to travel through the interior of the country.

Although it is true that the level of multidimensional poverty existing in non-Agave municipalities is much higher than in Tequila, the results in the fight against poverty in the magical town of Tequila have been insufficient. Hence, the tourism industry has a great challenge ahead to support its reduction, along with public and private administrations in the region.

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Tourist Economic Solidarity Circuits a challenge of sustainability

Circuitos económicos solidarios turísticos un desafío de sostenibilidad

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Abstract

Tourism has been identified as one of the activities with important advantages to achieve regional development. Nevertheless, one of its limitations has to do with sustainability. This article highlights the importance of considering socio-economic sustainability of this activity through the tourist Economic Solidarity Circuit's assembling under the principles of the popular and solidary economy. This challenge raises the necessity to realize on-site evaluation of how actors constructed their imaginaries about the possibility and the advantage of working in networks articulated through Economic Solidarity Circuits; and, how the national and local state institutions favored or obstructed this purpose. It's has been consulted about the favorable elements that the can be found in the constitution of these circuits in the tourist sector by observation-participation, surveys and interviews with actors-partners of these organizations. Among the main results that were found for the socioeconomic sustainability were that social networks and strong relationships between actors are of vital importance and also that the public stimulus should be oriented to both develop and take advantage of the endogenous knowledge related to these particular socio-economic interrelations.

Resumen

A pesar de que el turismo se ha identificado como una de las actividades con mayores ventajas para promover el desarrollo territorial; se advierte también que, una de las potenciales limitaciones para su consolidación es su sostenibilidad. El artículo resalta la importancia de la constitución de circuitos económicos solidarios bajo los principios de la economía popular y solidaria para lograr esta sostenibilidad socio económica; tanto de la propia actividad turística como de aquellas relacionadas directa e indirectamente. Se realiza, por tanto, una evaluación *in situ*, para conocer cómo los actores vinculados a la actividad turística configuran sus imaginarios en torno a las ventajas o desventajas de trabajar en redes articuladas; que podrían transformarse o bien leerse como circuitos económicos solidarios; y, si la institucionalidad estatal nacional y local, en términos de las organizaciones y de las políticas, ha favorecido o facilitado este propósito. En base a la observación-participativa y a una serie de encuestas y entrevistas a los actores-socios vinculados a esta actividad se les consultó sobre los elementos favorables y posibles limitantes para la constitución de estos circuitos económicos solidarios. Entre los principales resultados se encontró que la densidad del tejido social es un elemento central para generar mayor sostenibilidad socioeconómica de la actividad turística; y, que el aprovechamiento de la generación de conocimiento endógeno por parte de los circuitos económicos turísticos requiere de la intervención y promoción de la autoridad pública para su consolidación y desarrollo.

Keywords | palabras clave

Popular and Solidarity Economy, entrepreneurship-tourist associations, Economic Solidarity Circuits, socioeconomic sustainability, local development, Ecuador.

Economía Popular y Solidaria, emprendimientos-asociaciones turísticas, circuitos económicos solidarios, sostenibilidad socioeconómica, desarrollo local, Ecuador.

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1. Introduction

Tourism activity has been proposed as an alternative for territorial or regional development due to various factors; some related to the activity itself and others that could be considered as positive externalities, insofar as the actions performed by people benefit others that were not considered when they made the decision (Castejón, Méndez, Martínez & Pérez, 2014). Among these, the most relevant include: the creation of employment opportunities; the development and maintenance of infrastructure; the dissemination and sustainability of natural and cultural heritage attractions; and even its validity to promote gender equity (Villareal & Van der Host, 2008). It has also been suggested that this economic activity can contribute to the development of communities, associations and other organizations of the Popular and Solidarity Economy if it is consolidated as a territorial development strategy, due not only to the economic but mainly the cultural and social elements that it encapsulates. They can potentially intervene in the structuring of an integral proposal both from its planning and in its execution and even in the monitoring and evaluation. It has also been mentioned that tourism has to be developed in the long term, for it to contemplate ecological sustainability, economic viability and social and ethical equity (UNESCO Regional Bureau for Science and Culture in Europe, 2009).

Tourism makes up or integrates a series of activities that are configured and developed in response to the multiple needs and expectations of tourists —the tourism demand— that allow and require the articulation of several external activities, such as food, transportation, financial services, crafts, cultural history, social organization, etc. (Ventura, 2010, p.1); it is safe to assume that this activity can have highly beneficial results for the eradication of poverty and the fight against inequality (Croes & Rivera, 2015). Even in the macroeconomic field, the advantages of tourism development include its capacity to become an important source of foreign revenue, as well as its capacity to become a relevant activity in the recessive phase of the economic cycle (Ruiz & Solís, 2007, p.1, Casas, Soler, & Pastor, 2012); precisely because of the internal and external linkages that occur and reproduce in its environment.

However, there are also vulnerabilities. One of these has to do with its sustainability. In this sense, Oyarvide, Nazareno, Roldán & Ferrales (2016, p.79) point out that sustainable tourism development connects economic, ecosystem and societal aspects with the growing awareness of tourists in these aspects and the greater empowerment of host societies. Puertas (2007), warns that sustainability should be measured not only in terms of growth of the activity *per se*, in terms of the generation of employment and income; measurements must include negative externalities that occur on the ecosystem, and, therefore, activities related to the control, mitigation and remediation these negative impacts imply.

In the same direction, Orgaz (2013) proposes that mechanisms should be created for the distribution of the benefits of tourism among the participating population, regulations for the protection of local businesses of possible unfair competition by national or international companies, and instruments that ensure that tourists pay a price (2013, page 6) to cover the costs associated with their negative externalities. Consequently, this requires constituting a local and national institutional framework and a social fabric that allows the very actors related to these activities to be the ones

that have the bargaining power, which guarantees spaces of participation and decision that grow and improve.

The duty of the territorial and national authority is, consequently, the creation, promotion and development of local capacities for continuous social learning, based on their own practices and reflections, which adds new knowledge, new forms of organization and participation in the services offered locally. This creates the necessary incentives to maintain and strengthen collective action for the benefit of the common good.

Zeilzer (2006, pp. 30-35), states that the best way to guarantee sustainability in the economic, social and cultural fields is the activity that is based on networks of trust, solidarity and reciprocity, which constitute comprehensive economic circuits in which links of various characteristics are built and developed, based on a new economic rationality and the formation of social capital (Lopera & Mora, 2009, p.84).

It is in this context that the concept of Lopera & Mora (2009) of a «Economic Solidarity Circuit» (ESC) is recovered. For these authors, a ESC is the integrated system—we could say systemic— of socio-economic units within a predefined territory, which build their social relations of production based on criteria of social and solidarity economy, cooperation, solidarity and recognition of the community, with community practices based on mutual trust, collective work through *mingas*, under the principle of social equity and with ample room for communication and participation (2009, p.84). The Economic Solidarity Circuits promote what Alpert (1986, p.217) describes as social cohesion, which refers to the nature of the social bonds that allow individuals to experience a sense of social belonging—at different scales— of horizontal confidence, attributes that consolidate the legitimacy of a society and its objectives, and trust in its institutions.

The concept of Economic Solidarity Circuit is enriched with the developments made from the Popular and Solidarity Economy (PSE), because as Corragio states (2011, pp. 50-51) it produces social bonds and not only economic profits, it generates values of use to satisfy needs of the very producers or of their communities based generally on territorial, ethnicity or culture, and is not oriented by profit and the accumulation of capital without limits. These aspects are highlighted by the Movement of Social and Solidarity Economies (MESSE), when it points out as one of the characteristics of Social Production Enterprises (SPE) its capacity to link social, cultural and political processes in the same territory (MESSE, 2016). On his part, Chiriboga (2009, p.8) emphasizes that, in order to be strengthened, the circuits in the territorial area need to have adequate infrastructure, human capital development, learning environments and self-management that favors the competitiveness and complementarity of the actors.

That is to say that when we talk about sustainability in the field of Economic Solidarity Circuits we are not only talking about economic sustainability or the sustainability of tourism activity, but about the sustainability of the whole ecosystem that is built and articulated around it. A criterion of sustainability that includes not only the economic costs, the environmental ones; but it contains, fundamentally, those aspects that allow the community to reproduce and recreate. These elements were constituted in premise, in motivation so that they could be included in the Ecuadorian Constitution (2008) as a new economic system for Popular, Social, and Solidary Economics. It is within this framework that tourism has been highlighted as one of the development strategies. After ten years of this recognition, this research proposes an *on-site* evaluation in order to observe if the actors have already constructed and identified, in their

imaginaries, the possibility and advantage of working in networks articulated through Economic Solidarity Circuits, and whether the national and local state institutions created have favored or facilitated this purpose.

2. Material and methods

The provinces of Manabí and Esmeraldas are selected in Ecuador, as they are the provinces with the highest domestic tourism, especially in domestic holidays. In these provinces, an analysis was made of the information from the 2010 economic census to identify the small-scale economic units that offer tourism activities, as well as those complementary activities such as the supply of prepared food and transportation. With this information, the size of the representative sample was defined for the application of specific surveys in the two territories with 90% confidence (Munch & Ángeles, 2005).

In addition, those responsible for carrying out and constituting the different associative processes within the selected territories were identified, and structured interviews conducted with the purpose of knowing if they have incorporated in their imaginaries the advantages of Economic Solidarity Circuits, and the expectations they would have in relation to its tourist activities. In the province of Esmeraldas, a total of twelve surveys were applied to two associations located in Atacames. It is noteworthy that only one survey was applied to a woman. The leaders of the relevant associations were consulted on this matter and the response was that the women oversaw other activities of the organization but not organizational or administrative activities. Meanwhile, in Manabí thirty surveys were applied in the Manta, Portoviejo and Sucre cantons, and at least 43% of the total surveys were answered by women, which showed that in these organizations women have a more prominent role, and they are even owners of working capital and assets that make up the tangible assets (resources) of the companies.

All the associations consulted belong to the non-financial sector and their main economic activity is tourism in its different branches. The survey was designed to consult both partners and leaders of the associations on the favorable and unfavorable aspects for the constitution of economic circuits under the principles of the SEP. The questions were organized into sections. The first and second aimed to identify the particular characteristics and the constitutive elements of the tourist activity and the popular and solidary entrepreneurship in the space; the third, to inquire about the interrelations and perspectives of the partners of the economic units of the tourist sector in the territory; and the last one, to consult on the factors and perspectives that have effects on an adequate development of the solidarity tourism entrepreneurial projects.

It is important to highlight that within the researched sector there is a high degree of informality, that is, popular and solidary enterprises without legal constitution. It is worth mentioning that in the process of analyzing the databases, several inconsistencies emerged, some explained by the temporary distance —almost seven years after the Economic Census had been carried out—, some institutions had disappeared and others had been created, while others had changed activity and/or location, even more so when these activities take place in an essentially informal context. The attempt was to solve this by identifying suitable substitutes and taking care to maintain representativeness.

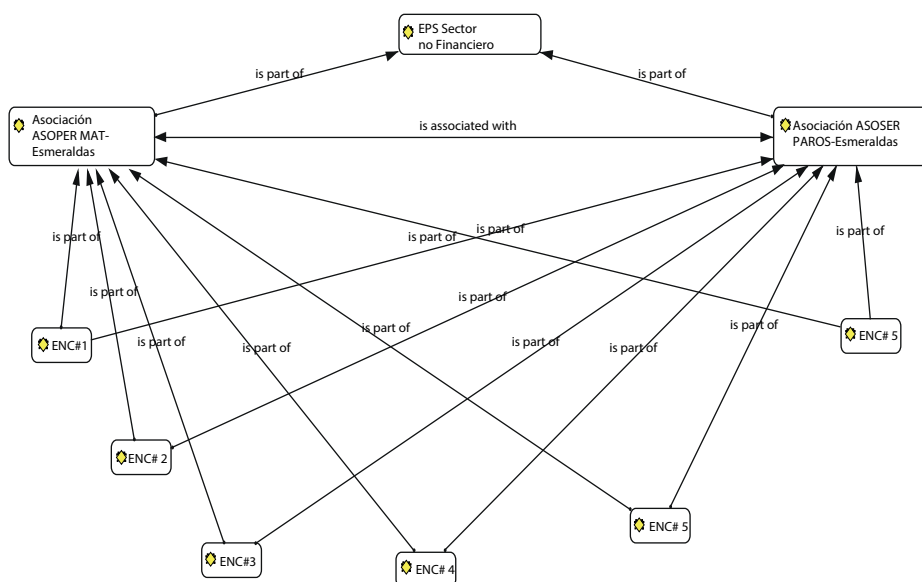
The systematization of the results of the collected information was done using the Atlas-ti® software, a tool that enables the organization of qualitative data obtained

around the objectives proposed in each section of the survey through figures connected in a network and related to nodes, which in this case are the relevant concerns of the survey. This type of figure allows a visual representation of the problems associated between the concepts established as a result of a text analysis (surveys) previously carried out.

3. Analysis and results

The first step is to establish whether the associations surveyed are related to each other through activities linked to tourism services and whether there are limitations and observations in relation to the elements, interrelationships and perspectives for an adequate development of the solidarity projects. As can be seen in Figure 1, the six surveys conducted in each of the associations reveal relationships between them, highlighting the fact that the questions encompassed a large part of the problems of these two organizations. Hence the interest of their members in answering them. In this first instance, the result obtained by applying this survey model to two organizations in the same region, with a similar economic and social context, showed that there is a great interest on the part of the local population to generate tourism economic development under principles of solidarity and reciprocity.

Figure 1. Relationship tree of the Esmeraldas Associations-Semantic Network

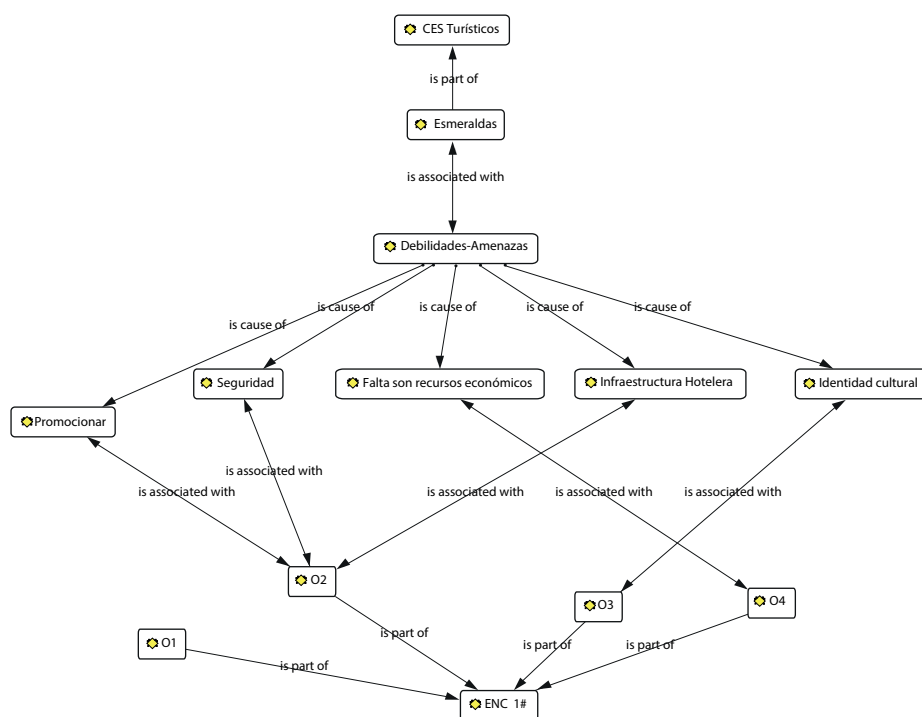


In a second stage, the results are plotted according to the objectives of each section, which are presented in figures 2 and 3. The first objective, corresponding to the first section, aims to identify the characteristics of tourism activity and popular and solidary entrepreneurship in the territory; the second objective, corresponding to

the second section, ascertains the constituent elements integrated to the development of the tourist activity. For its part, the third objective identifies the interrelations and perspectives of the partners of the Territorial Economic Units of the tourism sector in the territory and, finally, the fourth objective presents the perspectives and factors that affect the proper development of solidarity tourism ventures.

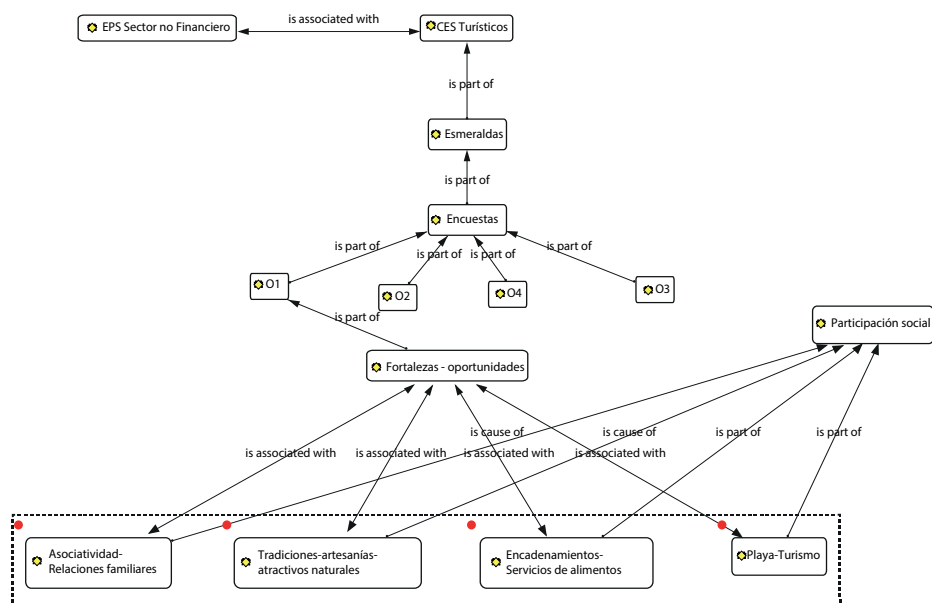
Figure 2 classifies the problems that affect the development of the Economic Solidarity Circuits (ESC) in the territories; while figure 3 orders the strengths and potentialities identified by the actors. It is noted that the main problems for the development of the ESCs in the territory include: the lack of security, the lack of promotion of tourism activities by local actors and the weakness of the infrastructure to offer quality and environmentally sustainable services. On the other hand, identified strengths include: the associations among the actors that make up the organizations, the collection of environmental resources (flora and fauna) and the perception of the actors involved about the potential of tourism activity. This can be an indicator of a positive evolution of the actors related to tourism economic activities in the community. Great importance is also given to the links that tourism activity has in food services, food suppliers, hotel enterprises, etc., which benefit other residents and strengthen the social fabric of the community.

Figure 2. Esmeraldas: Problems that affect the development of territorial ESC



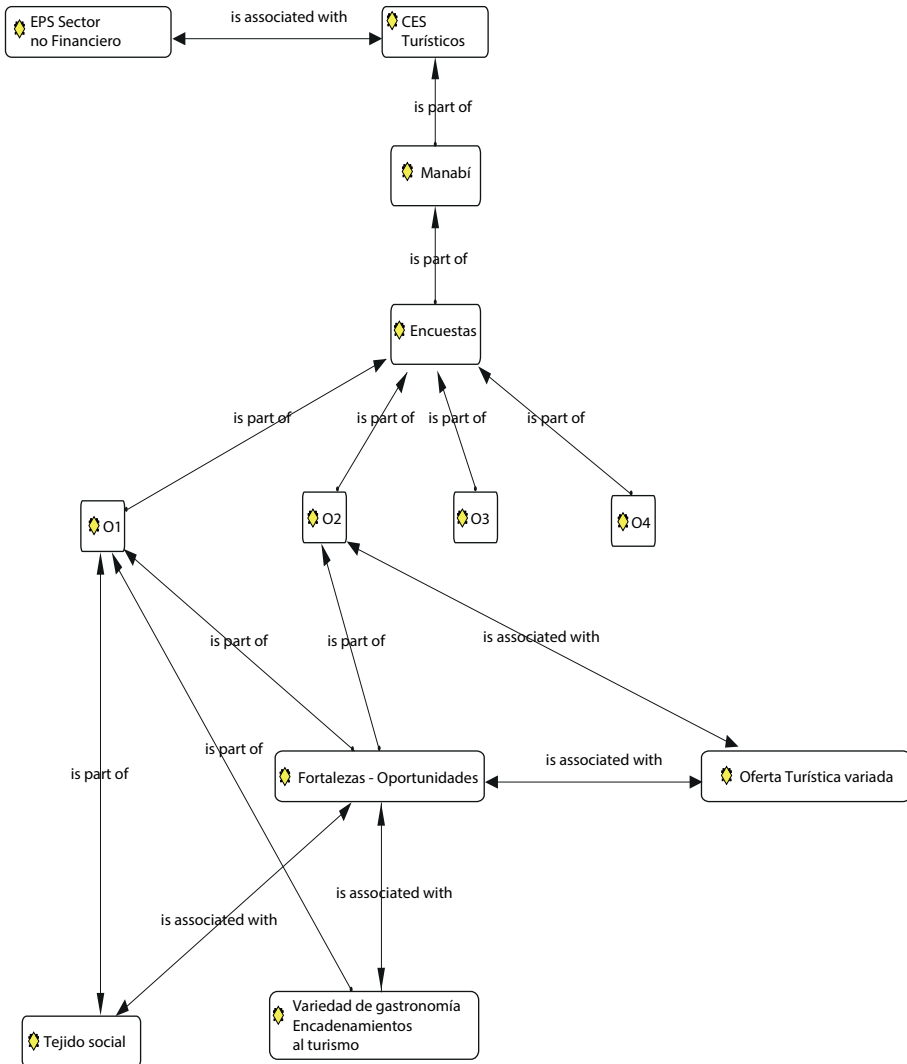
Likewise, figure 2 essentially explains that within objectives 2, 3 and 4, with their respective questions, the surveyed actors showed structural limitations —mainly economic mainly— for the development of Solidarity Circuits, while in Figure 3 it is explained that only the Objective 1 and its corresponding questions yielded positive results or opportunities for the generation of this type of territorial linkages.

Figure 3. Esmeraldas: Strengths and positive aspects in the development of territorial ESCs



In Manabí, the results obtained were different from those of Esmeraldas; surely because of its ethnic, social and cultural diversity. The cooperative members surveyed identified as disadvantages for the creation of an economic solidarity circuit the lack of knowledge of foreign languages, the low level of local participation in the associative component, and the lack of territorial promotion to increase the possibilities of growth in tourism demand. These aspects have a direct relationship with the negative responses presented by the partners, and as can be identified in the network (Figure 4) are cause of weaknesses and threats to the development of tourism ESC in the region of Manabí. Likewise, aspects such as the lack of hotel infrastructure and the lack of financing that limits the development of popular and solidarity projects are pointed out. The other figure (5) presents, on the contrary, the strengths and opportunities identified in the thirty surveys carried out to the associations in the province. As can be observed between the connecting node (objective one) and the node of the strengths and opportunities, a direct relationship occurs, since it arises from the analysis of the different positive perceptions identified by the surveyed partners in relation to the environment of the tourist sector within the EPS and in particular of its undertakings.

Figure 4. Manabí: Strengths and positive aspects in the development of territorial ESCs

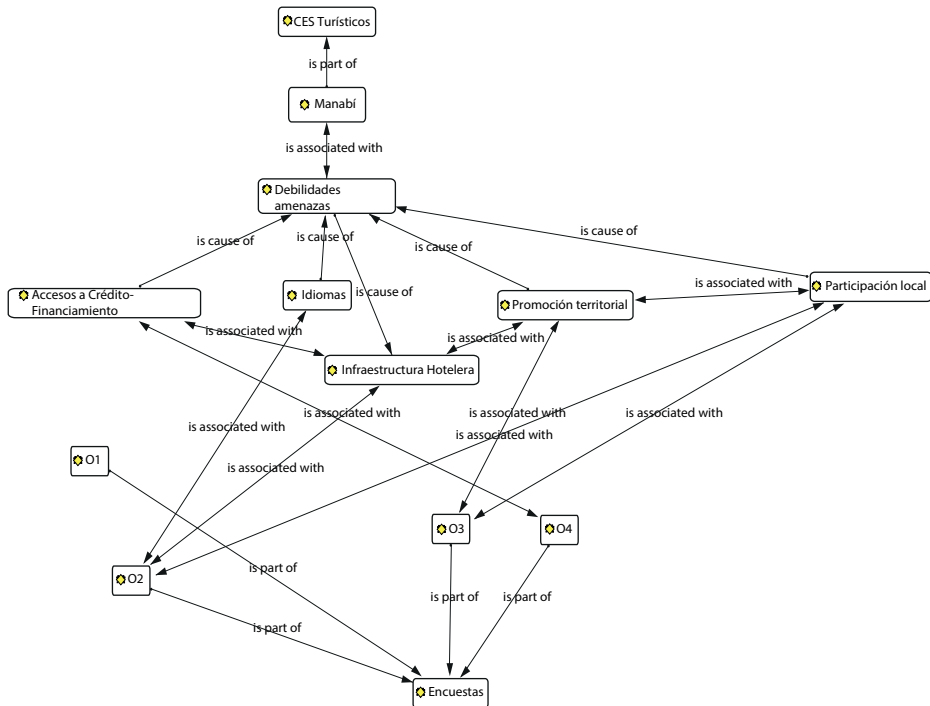


Within the first objective, factors such as an adequate social fabric between the actors at the community level (partners) and the linkages of tourism as gastronomic services are a tangible reality that the members of the EPS are making individual as well as collective efforts so that this type of ventures have opportunities for success in the tourism sector. The analysis of these strengths derives from adequate social partici-

pation, at least in the actions of local actors (partners). The positive aspects are also denoted in the second objective, which highlights that there is a varied tourist offer available. All the positive factors identified above have two types of relationships: i) they are «associated with» the strengths and opportunities and on the other hand ii) they are «cause» of an adequate participation of the community in popular and solidarity activities. In both territories, the members of the organizations consulted show that there are several legal, economic and social constraints for an adequate development of territorial tourist ESC, despite having the favorable framework of principles that is stated in the Constitution of the Republic.

However, the actors of the Manabí organizations, showed in their different answers that within the evaluated points, the objectives 1 and 2 —aspects characteristic and constitutive of the tourist activities in the territory—, there are strengths or potential opportunities for a possible generation of ESC in the territory, unlike the organizations of Esmeraldas that showed strengths only within the concerns raised in objective 1. It is also emphasized that despite finding elements generating territorial ESC in the tourism activity, the actors of the Manabí organizations reflect their weaknesses in the objectives 2 —partially, because strengths were also identified— and in objectives 3 and 4.

Figure 5. Manabí: Problems that affect the development of territorial ESC



4. Discussion and Conclusions

The organizational capacity of the actors involved who must sustain the tourism process in the territory focuses on the strengths of all social forms of production (within the EPS). This is determined by their ability to function, in greater or lesser scale, in integrated economic networks or circuits, whose sustainability is the result of both the degree of social-productive organization and the capacity to take advantage of the present and future historical potentialities of the locality. Without a doubt, these aspects must also be related to the capacity to generate or attract the necessary demand so that the tourist services offered reach the minimum economic-financial balance.

However, the incidence of exogenous factors (natural events, government action, social exclusion, collective action, among others) can negatively or positively affect the operation of the circuit. In this instance, public intervention at a national, but mainly at the local level, becomes transcendental; its role should be focused on helping to overcome the external obstacles and unleash synergic processes in the development of the tourist social fabric so that the productive and commercial issues are the concomitant; and, the multidimensional enrichment of a territory is achieved, as Coraggio points out (2011b, pp. 50-53).

For example; in the tourism sector it is clear that in the field of EPS, the actors are linked to circuits or constitute them in a situation of relative disadvantage, in relation to the capitalist companies since, although the capacity of organization can be important for associations, management capacity often suffers from several limitations; either by the levels of training of the direct actors, by their socio-economic conditions, by the ideological constructions that can privilege non-cooperative actions. Therefore, the strengthening of the social fabric in all its dimensions is an essential task to achieve an optimal and operational solidarity tourism circuits. That is to say, the strategies of linking the circuits must be based on the social and economic nature of the territories themselves, which means that the circuits are built on the basis of the informal and customary agreements that are maintained even for generations. This is consistent with what was pointed out by Lopera & Mora (2009, p.84) mentioned in the introduction of this work, which states that communication and participation of the actors within the economic circuits are especially important in responding immediately to the demand of services. Hence, one of the objectives of the actors involved will be to identify, rescue and consolidate such communication practices and information exchanges that allow for the emergence and consolidation of solidarity agreements; and the connection to the economic, social, cultural and political processes of the territory itself.

It is also worth noting that tourist circuits operate under a strict relationship of interdependence and integration with backward and forward linkages in the territories themselves. It is impossible to conceive that tourists visit places where food services, hotel infrastructure, transport, etc., are lacking. Moreover, the complementarity that involves the environment of the tourism sector allows for the improvement of procedures in terms of efficiency and effectiveness, reducing costs and improving the quality of the service. This underscores what Chiriboga (2009) proposes regarding the competitiveness and complementarity of the actors in the territory and the need to identify those elements that allow for the strengthening and enhancing of the circuits in the territory.

One of the most controversial aspects, at the moment of supporting and encouraging the tourist CES, is the scope or the political institutionalism, which undoubtedly influences its configuration and development process. From the surveys carried out, it can be deduced that both the design and implementation of the central government policy and the competences assigned to local governments at their different levels of management affect in one way or another not only the quality of life of their inhabitants but also the relationships or forms of relationship that are configured in the territories. The experiences acquired through the visits and information gathering show that the organizations based in the provinces of Manabí and Esmeraldas have a great distrust regarding the political institutionalism and the policies implemented; as expressed by many respondents (partners of EPS organizations).

The decentralization model of Ecuador requires opening a new form of citizen participation in the definition of the policy applied in relation to the EPS and with the tourism ESCs. The strengthening of the EPS is in favor of the constitution of the ESCs; and, at the same time, the consolidation of the ESCs helps to strengthen the EPS; public policy must have this double duty, which can begin with the identification of those elements that, present in the territory, allow to strengthen the CES-EPS interrelation; and not seek to do it independently or, even worse, under different organizational principles, which can be the result of other experiences or theoretical constructions stemming from normative thinking. In this context, opening or deepening the participation spaces of the actors (associations) is fundamental to achieve this objective of identification, training and creation of the necessary incentives so that the ESCs become articulating axes not only of the activity of tourism, but of the configuration and strengthening of the social relations and the productive fabric in the territories.

Therefore, the negotiation component is one of the most controversial in the training process to create or strengthen the institutional framework and consolidate the ESCs. The experiences collected from members belonging to the EPS, reveal that the actions of citizens when participating in state organizations are oriented or fall into clear conflicts of interest, which may lead to perverse and unsustainable actions in terms of the development of an adequate integral dynamic, with emphasis on tourist economic circuits as mechanisms of territorial development. The social fabric is the main component that links the identification of individuals as part of a group, culture and establishes the guidelines for such interaction to be carried out in the best way (Undersecretariat of Prevention and Citizen Participation, 2011, pp. 3-4).

In a territory it is necessary to investigate and explore the elements that contribute to understanding social cohesion, which is vital for the sociocultural sustainability of a community in accordance with what Alpert (1986, p.217) points out as social cohesion. The social relationships that shape the social fabric are forms of superior organization that articulate grassroots or first grade organizations in a common perspective. Community values and principles that involve experiences of social relations, under the characteristics of social cohesion are Minka (collective work), Rimanakuy (practice of dialogue), and Yuyarinakuy (agreements). In this work these values have also been presented around the agreements that the groups involved have exposed in relation to the tourism activity, which should contemplate a community and ecological

perspective in full accordance with the worldview of several inhabitants of the Manabí and Esmeraldas provinces.

Likewise, the interviewees mentioned agreements to take advantage of the benefits of nature: beaches, rivers, waterfalls, mountains, flora, fauna, forests (natural attractions present in the region) to consolidate tourism. The interviewees agreed that it is necessary to give local meaning to these attractions, relating them to cultural elements that must be recovered and revitalized, such as music, handicrafts, food, rites, coexistence, work and ways of doing things in localities. All this means strengthening the social and cultural fabric of the communities. Finally, the empirical work has also revealed that the groups involved have clearly identified that the elements proposed are strengths that will generate income from an adequate link to the market, based on the principles of the EPS in Ecuador, and the values that the support (solidarity, reciprocity, cooperativism).

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Creativity in the American and European tourism sector: The Croatian case

La creatividad en el sector turístico americano y europeo: Caso Croacia

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Abstract

Film tourism has been studied for decades as a phenomenon that may become profitable when a destination is chosen as a film shooting location. The main objective of this paper is to demonstrate that thanks to the fact that in the city of Dubrovnik, in Croatia, scenes from the film of Games of Thrones have been filmed, both in the city and in the country have significantly increased the visits of international tourists, as well as the factors of tourist satisfaction. In this article two different types of data have been used. On the one hand, secondary data provided by the Croatian Institute for Tourism and Dubrovnik Tourism Board, in the form of aggregate figures of tourism arrivals and overnights in whole Croatia and in Dubrovnik specifically, for the period between 2007 and 2016, prior and post the release of Game of Thrones in 2011. On the other hand, primary data obtained from a questionnaire deployed by the Dubrovnik Tourism Board in the summer of 2013 to 264 tourists in the city of Dubrovnik. Finally, as attraction factors of Dubrovnik highlight nature, being a territory of cultural interest and sun and beach destination. Furthermore, two dimensions of satisfaction are differentiated, one focused on «cultural enrichment and self-realization» and another one on «material and earthly life».

Resumen

El turismo cinematográfico se ha estudiado durante décadas como un fenómeno que puede resultar beneficioso para un destino turístico cuando es elegido como localización para el rodaje de una película. El principal objetivo de este trabajo es, demostrar que gracias a que en la ciudad de Dubrovnik, en Croacia, se han filmado escenas de la película de Juegos de Tronos, tanto en la ciudad como en el país han aumentado significativamente la visitas de turistas internacionales. Además de conocer los factores de satisfacción turística. En el presente estudio se han utilizado dos tipos de datos. Por un lado, datos secundarios proporcionados por el Instituto Croata para el Turismo y el Patronato de Turismo de Dubrovnik en forma de cifras globales de llegadas de turistas y pernoctaciones en toda Croacia y Dubrovnik específicamente, para el período comprendido entre 2007 y 2016, previo y post el lanzamiento de «Juego de Tronos» en 2011. Por otro lado, se han analizado datos primarios mediante encuesta implementado por el Patronato de Turismo de Dubrovnik en el verano de 2015 a 264 turistas en la ciudad de Dubrovnik. Finalmente, como factores de atracción de Dubrovnik destacan la naturaleza, ser territorio de interés cultural, y destino de sol y playa. Asimismo, se diferencian dos dimensiones de satisfacción, una orientada al «enriquecimiento cultural y la autorrealización» y otra en la «vida material y terrenal».

Keywords | palabras clave

Creativity, marketing, television, demand, tourism, satisfaction.
Creatividad, marketing, televisión, demanda, turismo, satisfacción.

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1. Introduction

Croatia has emerged as one of the top tourist destinations in Europe over the last two decades and its tourism sector continues to grow as inbound arrivals increased at a 9,3% rate in 2015 and 8,7% in 2016 (Croatian Institute for Tourism, 2016).

After the Croatian War of Independence (1991-1995), one of the multiple Yugoslav Wars that led to the fragmentation of the former Yugoslavian Republic, the country needed a solid economy to overcome all the wartime damage that was dealt during that period. Tourism turned out to be crucial in the recovery of the country, especially for some of the cities by the sea, such as Dubrovnik. Despite of suffering from countless attacks with missiles and bombs, the city was amazingly rebuilt in a few years thanks to Croatian government efforts and UNESCO's World Heritage program (Richter & Richter, 2000).

One of Dubrovnik's last achievements was to be chosen as the main location for Game of Throne's fictional city of King's Landing. This show has got an important audience thanks to the creativity reflected in its plot and characters. Creativity is, thus, a key to success and a strong competitive tool in audiovisual communication (Núñez & González-del-Valle, 2015; Núñez & González-del-Valle, 2016; Núñez, 2017; Núñez & Ravina, 2017).

This study analyses the impact in tourism derived by such milestone, as well as other aspects of Dubrovnik's tourism.

1.1. Literature review

Image has become a key concept in tourism marketing and the image formation process has been frequently studied (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Fakeye & Crompton, 1991). One of the earliest scholars to analyze it, Gunn (1972), differentiated two types of images: Organic and induced images. The former come from sources not related to tourism interests, such as newspapers and movies; and the latter were the result of marketers' efforts to promote their destinations. The concept of organic image relates then to the concept of «autonomous image formation agents» defended by Kim and Richardson (2003) based on the continuum developed by Gartner (1993). These agents include news and popular culture, such as films or books, whose power in the image formation process of potential tourists is expected to be higher, since people are more likely to identify these sources of information as relatively more unbiased than traditional advertising (Kim & Richardson, 2003; Schofield, 1996).

For centuries, postcards were a very profitable marketing tool for tourist destinations, since they were directly distributed by the target market after purchasing them, which had, thus, no cost for the destination (Tooke & Baker, 1996). Nowadays, as Butler already noticed in 1990, one powerful tool to influence people is the audiovisual media, as they read less and rely more on what is shown on TV (Butler, 1990). Film has been considered a tourism promotion tool for decades, especially when Destination Marketing Organizations (hereafter, DMOs) realized, together with other sectors' marketers, that consumers were being exposed to such amount of traditional advertising that it triggered saturation and aversion rather than attention and interest towards the product.

It has been proved the power of films to create destination awareness, image and perception (Riley & van Doren, 1992; Tooke & Baker, 1996; Stewart, 1997; Riley,

Baker & van Doren, 1998). However, all films have it, but only creativity and successful films can do so (Croy & Heitmann, 2011; Rittichainuwat & Rattaphinanchai, 2015).

On the other hand, TV series have an extra element on top that make them even more interesting as tourism marketing tools. The episodes are normally released weekly and viewers wait with high expectation. Consequently, there is a recurrent reinforcement of the destination appeal (Kima *et al*, 2007). Although television series have existed for a longtime, in the past 7 years the sector has grown remarkably and a real trend has been established especially among young people on their twenties. Loads of original scripted shows have appeared, some of them of truly good quality, which has led to a social phenomenon that had never occurred before, the so called «golden age of television». As a matter of fact, the landscape of series has doubled from 216 in 2010 to 419 in 2015 (McAlone, 2016). Nowadays, these kind of culture products are very deeply embedded in people's everyday life, leading to a high market penetration (Kim & Richardson, 2003).

One drawback of traditional promotional communications in the tourism sector is that tourists may feel the need to go and check if the destination is as shown or described in the advertisement, which can cause anxiety due to the anticipated risk that comes with limited information, lack of experience and high costs. On the contrary, films and TV series are entitled with a longer exposure to the destination and its attractions, which may help lowering that anxiety, since the viewers can gather more information about the location in form of vicarious knowledge (Riley & van Doren, 1992). This effect is more significant in the case of TV series, since, unlike films, they are made of several episodes per season, each of them aired, normally, on a weekly basis. This recurrence helps the viewer in their acquisition of the aforementioned vicarious knowledge about the location that is being depicted, all along their decision-making process of traveling there.

Some scholars differentiate between film-induced tourism, which actually motivates visitation to locations depicted in films, and film tourism, defined as an incidental experience of tourists to film-shooting locations (Croy & Heitmann, 2011). And several researchers deny that film tourism can be the unique, nor main, motivation within the tourist's decision making process, unless for most of them (Croy, 2011; Croy & Heitmann, 2011; Young & Young, 2008). This relates to Macionis' categorization of tourists into serendipitous, general film tourists and specific film tourists (Macionis, 2004; Macionis & Sparks, 2009). The first ones are those who happen to be at a film-shooting location but not on purpose and, therefore, will not participate in any film-related activity during their stay. For general film tourists, the fact that a movie or a TV series has been filmed in that specific location is not very relevant and does not draw them to the location. However, they may participate in some activity related to the film once they are there. Finally, specific film tourists are the ones that seek on purpose the places where a film has been shot and are more likely to participate in tours, buy souvenirs etc., since they are really committed to the film environment. Some other authors baptize this specific film tourists as «film pilgrims», a qualifier that sums up the characteristics and motivations of this group.

General and serendipitous film tourists are the most common ones, as Croy and Buchman (2009) showed by stating that one-third of the tourists that joined a Lord of the Rings tour had never watched the saga; but found the tour interesting as

it included visits to nice New Zealand's landscapes and have been sometimes advised by friends to book that tour. This premise was also supported by Rittichainuwat & Rattanaphinanchai (2015) when they affirmed that "*the number of specific film tourists is marginal*", based on their quantitative findings of Thai tourists visiting Korea. They also proved that some tourists have joined the all-inclusive film tour package because it was worth the cost compared to traveling to Korea by themselves.

So, for most tourists coming to a destination, the fact that a film or TV series has been shot there may not be enough to prepare a trip to that location. However, it is important to take it into consideration because general (film) tourists may be more attracted to this particular destination if this element adds up a list of other important factors such as beautiful landscapes or cultural heritage. In order to deeper analyze the idiosyncrasy of the tourism sector in Dubrovnik, beyond the film tourism phenomenon, this study considers other variables including other sources of motivation and also satisfaction with the tourist offer.

2. The case of Dubrovnik

2.1. Context

On 11th April 2011, the North American broadcaster HBO released the first episode of «Game of Thrones», a television series based on the novels written by George R. R. Martin under the common title *A Song of Ice and Fire*.

Following the plot of the books and the TV series, «King's Landing» is the capital and largest city of the Seven Kingdoms, the territory in which the action takes place. For Game of Thrones first season the producers decided to shoot the exteriors of King's Landing in Malta, more specifically in Mdina and in Fort Ricasoli (Fernandez, 2014). The first scene of King's Landing shot in Dubrovnik took place in the second season, released in the US in April 2012. Ever since, the shooting location for King's Landing has not changed. Therefore, this Croatian city, also known as the «Pearl of the Adriatic», is well-known by the viewers for having lent its walls to King's Landing.

Several websites have been created to compile every corner of the city where a scene of Game of Thrones has been filmed. Moreover, dozens of Game of Thrones guided tours have flourished, offering tourists a unique experience by walking around the streets of the Old Town explaining in detail which scenes were shot there. There are also boat trips on the ship in which one of the characters, Daenerys Targaryen, sailed in the series, as well as visits to some other places out of the Old Town, such as Trsteno Arboretum, a park located in a small settlement 25 kilometers away of Dubrovnik in which several scenes were shot, evoking the gardens of King's Landing's Red Keep.

Not only the episodes itself, but also the "behind the scenes" videos, the interviews to the cast asking about how it looks like to film in Dubrovnik, etc. Those comments coming from these beloved actors and actress work as unpayable endorsements.

After a Game of Thrones episode, Dubrovnik has been exposed to 25 million viewers worldwide, which was the average audience per episode in the sixth season (2016). The show has become the most awarded series in the Emmy Awards history, with a total of 38 wins out of 106 nominations (Emmy Awards, 2016).

2.2. Findings

According to the literature, such a successful TV series must have influenced tourism flows to Croatia and to Dubrovnik, in particular. Bearing in mind that the shooting did not start in Dubrovnik until the second season of the series, the increase is expected to happen from 2012 on, the year when this season was released. However, looking at the figures of arrivals to Croatia in 2012, there is only a 3,3% increase over the preceding year, 2011, in which the arrivals had grown an 8%. Neither in 2013, when Croatia joined the European Union, nor in 2014 arrivals experienced a remarkable increase. In 2015 and 2016 the arrivals grew by 9% to over 15 million.

Table 1. Arrivals and overnights in Croatia from 2006 to 2016

Year	Arrivals	% change over preceding year	Overnights	% change over preceding year
2006	9.659.924		51.796.583	
2007	10.351.442	7,2%	54.627.053	5,5%
2008	10.453.601	1,0%	55.668.893	1,9%
2009	10.270.490	-1,8%	54.988.432	-1,2%
2010	10.604.116	3,2%	56.416.379	2,6%
2011	11.455.677	8,0%	60.354.275	7,0%
2012	11.835.160	3,3%	62.743.463	4,0%
2013	12.441.476	5,1%	64.827.814	3,3%
2014	13.128.416	5,5%	66.483.948	2,6%
2015	14.343.323	9,3%	71.605.315	7,7%
2016	15.594.157	8,7%	78.049.852	9,0%

Source: Croatian Institute for Tourism, 2016.

Taking a closer look onto Dubrovnik numbers, in 2012, 697.637 tourists arrived to the city, a 10,5% more than the preceding year and overnights increased also by a 12,5%.

Table 2. Arrivals and overnights in Dubrovnik from 2007 to 2016

Year	Arrivals	% change over preceding year	Overnights	% change over preceding year
2007	507.120		1.798.369	
2008	512.464	1,1%	1.782.813	-0,9%
2009	522.435	1,9%	1.921.063	7,8%
2010	588.563	12,7%	2.193.111	14,2%
2011	631.509	7,3%	2.344.417	6,9%
2012	697.637	10,5%	2.636.468	12,5%
2013	768.463	10,2%	2.864.651	8,7%
2014	863.906	12,4%	3.121.805	9,0%
2015	932.621	8,0%	3.301.763	5,8%
2016	1.013.030	8,6%	3.481.513	5,4%

Source: Dubrovnik Tourism Board, 2016.

Differentiating between domestic and foreign arrivals, it is interesting to point out that the tendency among domestic arrivals was to go down during the period between 2007 and 2013, while foreign arrivals continued growing.

Table 3. Domestic and foreign arrivals to Dubrovnik from 2007 to 2013

Year	Domestic Arrivals	% change over preceding year	Foreign Arrivals	% change over preceding year
2007	59.725		447.395	
2008	52.036	-12,9%	460.428	2,9%
2009	50.647	-2,7%	471.882	2,5%
2010	45.530	-10,1%	543.033	15,1%
2011	51.514	13,1%	579.995	6,8%
2012	47.938	-6,9%	649.699	12,0%
2013	50.192	4,7%	718.271	10,6%

Source: Dubrovnik Tourism Board, 2016.

Although the general figures of tourists coming to Croatia or Dubrovnik do not allow to conclude that there is an obvious impact of Game of Thrones in the tourist flows, things change when it comes to arrivals and overnights by country of origin.

As said before, Game of Thrones is a North American production, distributed by HBO, an American television network and created by David Benioff and D. B. Weiss, both American screenwriters and directors. Moreover, George R. R. Martin, the novelist that gave life to the fantastic world of Game of Thrones in his series of novels *A Song of Ice and Fire* was born in the US as well. This explains that the population that got hit by the Game of Thrones phenomenon was, at least at first, the American, before expanding worldwide.

Consequently, it is logical to state that among the first ones who reacted to the TV series craze by visiting Dubrovnik were the American fans. Looking at the numbers, the increase in the number of US citizens' arrivals to Dubrovnik in 2012 substantially increased by 22,2% over the preceding year and continued growing even more in 2013, reaching 52.132 arrivals. Regarding overnights, in 2012 the increase was 17% and in 2013, 35,2%. A hypothetical explanation of the fact that the increase was greater in 2013 rather in 2012, when the first images of King's Landing shot within Dubrovnik's walls were released, is that the season ended in early June 2012. The first articles and videos showing the shooting locations of the second season appeared then close to the summer season, limiting the number of viewers that could have time to plan their holidays to Dubrovnik for that same year. However, in 2013, more viewers would have seen those videos, articles and pieces of information in which Dubrovnik now appeared as the real-life King's Landing and could plan a visit in advance to Dubrovnik with enough time not to splash out on a plane ticket to Europe.

**Table 4. Arrivals and overnights of US citizens
to Dubrovnik from 2007 to 2013**

Year	USA arrivals	% change ov. preceding year	USA overnights	% change ov. preceding year	Ranking (overnights)
2007	41.201		123.483		4
2008	34.481	-16,3%	104.114	-15,7%	6
2009	26.291	-23,8%	82.012	-21,2%	7
2010	28.092	6,9%	89.438	9,1%	7
2011	31.372	11,7%	99.975	11,8%	7
2012	38.346	22,2%	116.961	17,0%	6
2013	52.132	36,0%	158.076	35,2%	4

Source: Dubrovnik Tourism Board, 2016.

As the plot of the TV series is set in the Middle Ages, most of the cast are British actors and actresses to guarantee the characters have the desired accent. This fact suggested a possible increase in Dubrovnik's appeal for tourists coming from United Kingdom. Looking at the figures, there was an outstanding increase of British tourists' arrivals in 2012, rising by 38,9% over the preceding year and passing the 100.000 British arrivals by 2013.

**Table 5. Arrivals and overnights of UK citizens
to Dubrovnik from 2007 to 2013**

Year	UK arrivals	% change ov. preceding year	UK overnights	% change ov. preceding year	Ranking (overnights)
2007	45.786		214.484		2
2008	47.132	2,9%	225.206	5,0%	1
2009	57.091	21,1%	284.707	26,4%	1
2010	66.197	15,9%	331.318	16,4%	1
2011	66.976	1,2%	345.698	4,3%	1
2012	93.041	38,9%	484.952	40,3%	1
2013	105.535	13,4%	553.549	14,1%	1

Source: Dubrovnik Tourism Board, 2016.

This relates to Cohen's explanation of the different means of persuasion in films (Cohen, 1986). She distinguished three major themes. First, literary ethos, in which the persuasive agent is an individual, such as the director, an actor or actress, or a fictional character; second, literary logos, referring to logic and reasoning as a persuasive tool; and finally, literary pathos, appealing to emotions in order to persuade. Cohen believes

that the most common mean is the latter, since films often evoke feelings and emotions in the viewer, fostering empathy and identification with the plot and what occurs to the characters. The viewers have then a “vicarious experience” of the place through the characters (Kim & Richardson, 2003). However, the figures regarding US and UK tourists would add value to the literary ethos, as UK citizens could have been persuaded in certain way by the fact that most of the cast of Game of Thrones is British; which, at the same time, could trigger a higher identification and empathy level and, then, the literary pathos would have its place as well.

3. Analysis of the tourism sector in Dubrovnik

3.1. Methodology

In this study two different categories of data have been used. On the one hand, secondary data provided by the Croatian Institute for Tourism and the Dubrovnik Tourism Board in the form of aggregate figures of tourism arrivals and overnights in whole Croatia and in Dubrovnik specifically, for the period between 2007 and 2016, prior and post the release of Game of Thrones in 2011. On the other hand, primary data obtained from a questionnaire deployed by the Dubrovnik Tourism Board in the summer of 2015 to 264 tourists in the city of Dubrovnik.

It were used bivariate analysis to determine the relation between variables (Student's t-test and Levene's test). Also, a linear regression model was developed in order to assess which satisfaction factors contributed the most to the overall tourist satisfaction. In addition, a factor reduction analysis was used to demonstrate the suitability of the sample and to identify two different dimensions of satisfaction factors.

3.2. Results and findings

This study aims to understand the motivation factors that have the biggest influence on the tourists coming to Dubrovnik. Since Dubrovnik has emerged in the last years as a desired destination for summer holidays, this study proposes that:

Hypothesis 1: Tourists' main motivation to visit Dubrovnik is the fact that it is a sun and sea destination

Firstly, descriptive statistics were used to report the frequency distribution among the different motivation factors that had been named in the questionnaire. All these variables are dichotomous – Respondents had to choose whether the stated motivation applied to their own case or not. The question was “What were your motivations for choosing Dubrovnik?” and the different motivation factors have been coded as follows. MOTBRAND: Dubrovnik is a tourist brand; MOTSUNSEA: Sun and sea destination; MOTCULTUR: Cultural sites and events; MOTNATUR: The beauty of nature and landscapes; MOTFUNEXP: Fun and new experiences; MOTFRIENDS: Visit relatives and friends; MOTBUSINESS: Business, attending conferences and seminars; MOTCITYBREAK: Having a city break; MOTOTHER: Other sources of motivation.

Table 6. Descriptive statistics

	MOTBRAND	MOTSUNSEA	MOTCULTUR	MOTNATUR	MOTFUNEXP	MOTFRIENDS	MOTBUSINESS	MOTCITYBREAK	MOTOTHER
Yes	50	141	150	156	63	6	0	22	11
No	214	123	114	108	201	258	264	242	253
Mode	No	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No	No

Only MOTSUNSEA, MOTCULTUR and MOTNATUR variables have “Yes” as mode, meaning that the majority of respondents have agreed that these have been key motivations to come to Dubrovnik. Particularly, MOTNATUR has the highest frequency of “Yes” (156 out of 264), meaning that most respondents answered that one key motivation for them to come to Dubrovnik was the beauty of its nature and landscapes.

Evaluating the satisfaction of tourists towards Dubrovnik tourist offer is critical to determine which areas need improvement. This study proposes that

Hypothesis 4: The historical and cultural heritage are the factors that influence the most the overall satisfaction of tourists towards Dubrovnik tourist offer

Table 7. Descriptive statistics

	KINDNESS	TOURISTINFO	HERITAGE	CULTURPROG	QUALACOMM	EXCURSIONS	TIDINESS	GASTRONOMY	PUBLICTRANSP	TAXI	SHOPPING	SAFETY	VALUE4MONEY
Mean	1,534	1,439	1,318	1,458	1,496	1,322	1,477	1,598	1,644	1,402	1,663	1,314	1,674
Std. Deviation	,6632	,6319	,6019	,7934	,7451	,8625	,8586	,7931	,8239	,9621	,9652	,7162	,7896

The variable HERITAGE has the closest mean to 1 right after SAFETY, which means the former is the second most valued element of tourism offer in Dubrovnik (1,318). Nevertheless, EXCURSIONS is also rated close to excellent in average, with a value of 1,322.

In order to assess which source of satisfaction contributes more to the overall satisfaction of tourists towards Dubrovnik tourist offer, a multiple linear regression model has been developed. The method that has been used is the forward entry meth-

od, in which the independent variables (X_i) are entered into the model one by one. Firstly, the most explanatory variable will enter the model and then the second one, etc.

The dependent variable (Y) is OVERALL and the independent variables (predictors) entered were all the Likert scale variables relative to tourist satisfaction.

All the resulting models are significant within a confidence interval of 99%. The richest one includes six predictors out of the 13 satisfaction variables available. These predictors are GASTRONOMY, HERITAGE, TIDINESS, QUALACCOMM, KINDNESS and TOURISTINFO. The model explains the 42,7% of the variance of the dependent variable (Y) = OVERALL.

Table 8. Linear Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
6	,654f	,427	,414	,4954

Table 9. ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
6	Regression	47,076	6	7,846	31,971	,000g
	Residual	63,071	257	,245		
	Total	110,148	263			

Table 10. Linear Regression Coefficients

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
		B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
6	(Constant)	-,011	,103		-,104	,917		
	GASTRONOMY	,170	,047	,208	3,647	,000	,686	1,459
	HERITAGE	,189	,058	,176	3,278	,001	,777	1,287
	TIDINESS	,149	,040	,198	3,709	,000	,779	1,283
	QUALACCOMM	,140	,048	,161	2,950	,003	,745	1,343
	KINDNESS	,122	,053	,125	2,286	,023	,742	1,349
	TOURISTINFO	,125	,057	,122	2,191	,029	,723	1,384

The six predictors present the following β and significance level:

β GASTRONOMY = 0,208. It is significant at a 99% level.

β HERITAGE = 0,176. It is significant at a 99% level.

β TIDINESS= 0,198. It is significant at a 99% level.

β QUALACCOMM = 0,161. It is significant at a 99% level.

β KINDNESS = 0,125. It is significant at a 95% level.

β TOURISTINFO = 0,122. It is significant at a 95% level.

The regression line will look as follows:

$$Y = 0,208 * \text{GASTRONOMY} + 0,176 * \text{HERITAGE} + 0,198 * \text{TIDINESS} + 0,161 * \text{QUALACCOMM} + 0,125 * \text{KINDNESS} + 0,122 * \text{TOURISTINFO} + 0,4954$$

The collinearity indicators show Tolerance values below 0,75 for most of the variables and VIF above 1,33, expressing high correlation between the variables, which entails that the Beta interpretation is less reliable. However, bearing in mind that the regression model is significant at a 99% confidence level and that most of the variables are also significant at that level (only two at 95%), the researchers find more interesting to keep all the six indicators in the model, rather than choosing a model with no collinearity issues but with less variables and, consequently, less percentage of the variance explained by them.

In conclusion, the independent variable (Xi), or predictor, that further explains the dependent variable (Y) = OVERALL is GASTRONOMY, since it is the first one to enter the model and has the highest standardized beta. This means that the factor that has the biggest influence power in determining the global tourist satisfaction towards Dubrovnik is the gastronomy of the area, followed by the tidiness of the facilities at Dubrovnik's beaches and then the historical and cultural heritage of the city.

The hypothesis 4 must be, thus, rejected, since it is not the historical and cultural heritage, but the gastronomy, the factor that influences the most the overall satisfaction of tourists towards Dubrovnik's tourist offer.

It is interesting to analyze the consumer's loyalty to Dubrovnik as a tourist product and to do so, it is proposed that:

Hypothesis 5: Those who are more satisfied with the tourist offer are more likely coming back to Dubrovnik

To assess whether the variables VISITAGAIN and OVERALL are related, an ANOVA analysis has been conducted. This analysis allows to determine relations between a nominal variable and a scale one, provided that the nominal one has more than two alternatives, i.e. it is not a dichotomous variable.

VISITAGAIN is the nominal variable in this analysis and was the codification of the question "Do you intend to visit Dubrovnik again or to recommend it to friends?". The possible answers were 0. Yes, 1. DK/DA, 2. No. On the other hand, OVERALL is the scale variable, standing for the overall satisfaction of the person towards Dubrovnik's tourist offer and it is designed as a Likert scale variable in which 1 means "Excellent" and 5 means "Poor".

Table 11. ANOVA VISITAGAIN * OVERALL

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	3,278	3	1,093	6,691	,000
Within Groups	41,964	257	,163		
Total	45,241	260			

Source: Own elaboration.

Within a 99% confidence interval, a relation between the two variables can be established, rejecting the H_0 .

Table 12. ANOVA VISITAGAIN * OVERALL

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
DK/NA	23	,304	,4705	,0981	,101	,508	0,0	1,0
Excellent	140	,071	,2585	,0218	,028	,115	0,0	1,0
Very Good	94	,277	,5165	,0533	,171	,382	0,0	2,0
Good	4	,500	1,0000	,5000	-1,091	2,091	0,0	2,0
Total	261	,172	,4171	,0258	,122	,223	0,0	2,0

Source: Own elaboration.

Those rating “OVERALL” as excellent are more likely to come back to Dubrovnik, as their mean is closer to 0 (0,071). As we move up in the Likert scale, the means of VISITAGAIN go up, getting closer to 1, which means “I Don’t Know” (if I am coming back to Dubrovnik), therefore, the relation is positive.

The hypothesis 5 is supported by the evidence shown in the ANOVA analysis. Therefore, it must be accepted.

Finally, the researchers aim to find some indicators or constructs by levels of satisfaction by challenging that:

Hypothesis 6: There are at least two significantly different satisfaction dimensions

The factor reduction analysis is a multivariate method that aims to study the interdependency relations among certain variables. The primary objective of this analysis was to assess the relations between the Likert scale variables KINDNESS, TOURISTINFO, HERITAGE, CULTURPROG, QUALACCOMM, EXCURSIONS, TIDINESS, GASTRONOMY, PUBLICTRANSP, TAXI, SHOPPING, SAFETY, VALUE4MONEY. They all represent satisfaction elements. A priori, two factors may be created attending to the variables under study: “Material and earthly life elements”, gathering those related to money and price and “Intangible, enriching and self-actualization elements” for those talking about the cultural heritage, local people way of being and the city’s atmosphere.

Table 13. KMO and Bartlett’s Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		,893
Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1096,261
	df	78
	Sig.	,000

Source: Own elaboration.

The Chi-Square test allows to affirm that the analysis is significant at a 99% level, having passed the Barlett's Test of Sphericity. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test yields also very good results, as the value is 0,893, confirming the adequacy of the sample. The two factors explain 49,621% of the total variance.

Table 14. Total Variance Explained

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5,124	39,416	39,416	5,124	39,416	39,416
2	1,327	10,205	49,621	1,327	10,205	49,621

Source: Own elaboration.

The model has been rotated to better interpret the loads and values below 0,3 have been removed. By looking at the factor loading table and at the component plot, the two dimensions assumed in the hypothesis show up.

The “intangible, enriching and self-actualization elements” of satisfaction are represented by the variables TOURISTINFO, HERITAGE and KINDNESS. The tourist information element implies a source of knowledge and historical data that magnifies the tourist experience at destination. It does not only refer to the more logistic information on accommodation and services, but also to the history of the place, the gastronomy, the festivities and customs and many other aspects that are relevant for the tourists when seeking an enriching experience while traveling. It relates, then, with the second variable, HERITAGE, that stands for the historical and cultural heritage. Learning about local history and culture increases the feeling of accomplishment and contributes to satisfying the top elements of Maslow's pyramid: esteem and self-actualization needs. Meanwhile, the kindness of local population can be related to the previous elements as the interaction between tourists and local people contributes to the formers' cultural enhancement experience. Getting to know other cultures, behaviors and ways of being again leads to personal fulfilment.

The “material and earthly life elements” of satisfaction are mainly represented by SHOPPING, TAXI and even EXCURSIONS. These elements satisfy more basic or primary needs.

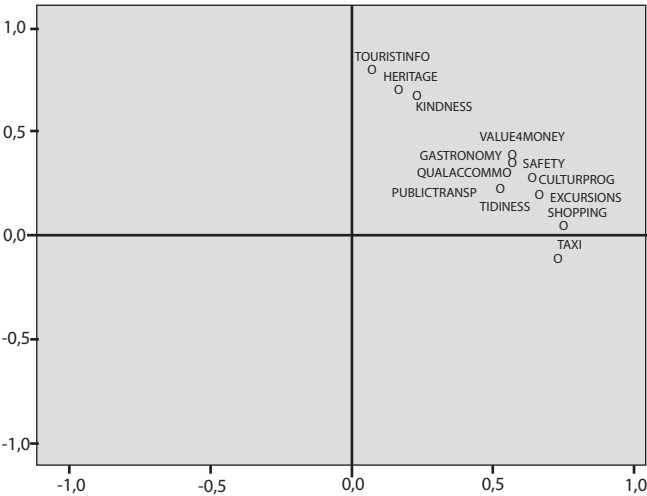
The rest of the variables are closer to the “material and earthly life” one. Surprisingly, CULTURPROG, which stands for cultural and entertainment programs, is closer to the material dimension of satisfaction. Beforehand, it could be considered a clear variable of the intangible and inner self enriching elements of satisfaction, as it is related to culture and personal development. Nonetheless, cultural and entertainment programs can be seen as actual products of services, that can be bought or booked through an economic transaction and would, then, be located under the umbrella of the material goods and services. Having proved that there are two dimensions within the tourist satisfaction spectrum, the hypothesis 5 is thereupon accepted.

Table 15. Rotated component Matrix

	Component	
	1	2
KINDNESS		,673
TOURISTINFO		,801
HERITAGE		,701
CULTURPROG	,644	
QUALACCOMM	,562	,307
EXCURSIONS	,693	
TIDINESS	,670	
GASTRONOMY	,572	,384
PUBLICTRANSP	,529	
TAXI	,731	
SHOPPING	,751	
SAFETY	,645	
VALUE4MONEY	,574	,357

Source: Own elaboration.

Figure 1.Component Plot in Rotated Space



4. Conclusion

This study gives a first insight on the impact of such a successful TV production to Dubrovnik tourism figures. The most remarkable findings are that North American and British tourists seem to be the most sensitive to film tourism phenomenon of *Game of Thrones*, as their arrivals to Croatia experienced an outstanding increase of 22% and 39% in 2012, respectively.

Additionally, several hypotheses regarding tourism in Dubrovnik have been challenged and some interesting results were obtained. Firstly, the main motivation for tourists to come to Dubrovnik turned out to be the richness of Dubrovnik's cultural sites and events and not so much the beaches and the concept of sun and sea destination. This is so important when it comes to designing the right positioning strategy of Dubrovnik as a destination and to address the right target population of tourists.

Regarding tourist satisfaction to Dubrovnik's tourist offer, the findings were that the gastronomy, the historical and cultural heritage and the tidiness of the beaches were the elements that contributed the most to the overall satisfaction of tourists. Furthermore, consumer loyalty was assessed and the results confirmed that those rating a higher score who are more satisfied with the tourist offer are more likely coming back to Dubrovnik. Finally, two dimensions of satisfaction elements were created through a factor reduction, one more driven to "cultural enrichment and self-actualization" and another one more "material and earthly-life" focused.

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Evaluation of cruise tourism economic sustainability. A methodological approach within the Spanish Mediterranean littoral

Evaluación de la sostenibilidad económica del turismo de cruceros. Una aproximación metodológica en el Litoral Mediterráneo español

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Abstract

Cruise tourism is a powerful development agent on the destinations where it is present. It has been largely studied from the customer behaviour point of view. Moreover, its environmental and social sustainability dimensions have been deeply analysed by the literature. However, in spite of a growing number of researches related to its economic impact, no robust conclusion about its economic effect onto destinations has been reached so far. In this work we examine the economic impact of cruise tourism in four different Spanish Mediterranean destinations. For that we use data from EGATUR statistics and financial data from tourism companies in each destination considered. After running curvilinear multivariable techniques, we established a correlation between the cruise traffic and the economic profitability of those enterprises within its scope. Moreover, despite we found no significant correlation with financial profitability, we also found evidence of significant connection between cruise traffic and the employment level of touristic firms affected.

Resumen

El turismo de cruceros es un poderoso dinamizador del turismo en los destinos en los que opera, y ha sido largamente estudiado desde el punto de vista del comportamiento del consumidor. También las dimensiones de la sostenibilidad medioambiental y social de este tipo de turismo han sido analizadas con detenimiento por la literatura. No obstante, y a pesar de un creciente número de investigaciones relacionadas con su impacto económico, no se ha llegado aún a una conclusión robusta sobre el efecto económico neto que tiene sobre los destinos. En este trabajo se estudia el impacto económico del turismo de cruceros en cuatro destinos del mediterráneo español con características distintas, usando datos de EGATUR y datos financieros de las empresas turísticas localizadas en los distintos destinos. Se correlacionaron, aplicando regresiones curvilíneas multivariantes, el tráfico crucerista en dichos destinos con la rentabilidad económica de las empresas bajo su área de influencia, así como su rentabilidad financiera y el número de empleados. Se establecieron, de esta manera, los umbrales en los que se estima que el turismo de cruceros tiene un efecto más beneficioso para la rentabilidad económica de las empresas turísticas que directamente se benefician del tráfico crucerista en destino, sin encontrarse relación con la rentabilidad financiera. También se describe la correlación del movimiento de pasajeros de crucero con el número de empleados declarado por las empresas.

Keywords | palabras clave

Cruise tourism, economic impact, multivariate techniques, Spanish littoral, Mediterranean, Financial performance. Turismo de cruceros, impacto económico, técnicas multivariantes, litoral español, Mediterráneo, desempeño financiero

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1. Introduction and state of the issue

Cruise tourism is one of the fastest growing segments in the tourism sector in recent years. Despite the economic situation that has taken place in the last decade, according to the Cruise Lines International Association (CLIA, 2016), an increase in the global cruise demand of approximately 62% has been recorded, positioning it as a product in the growth phase, prompting the need to carry out studies that, from a quantitative perspective, allow us to know the importance of this tourist activity in the economic development in the regions where it takes place.

A review of the literature on cruise tourism from an economic perspective reveals the scarce studies on the matter, focusing, in most cases, on the definition of the cruising profile and on the trends of this tourist typology in the medium and long term.

On the other hand, deepening in the studies that address the economic impact of cruises, three points of discussion quickly emerge: The analysis of the economic implications of corporate social responsibility carried out by cruise companies, the study of the patterns of spending related to cruise tourism, and statistical confirmation to know the economic effect of this type of tourism activity in a particular region.

Deepening the existing scientific literature from an economic point of view, it is observed that the first studies date from the mid-eighties, where the input-output models revealed the impact in the areas where there was tourist activity. In this respect, Mescon & Vozikis (1985) applied this methodology to Miami Dade County. Almost a decade later, Dwyer & Forsyth (1996, 1998), basing their studies on Australian areas of high cruise activity, propose alternative methodologies to the input-output model to know the economic impact of tourist cruises in any region. On the other hand, Vina & Ford (1998) determined the economic importance of a region based on the classification between the ports of shipment and the collection ports. As a milestone that unified the studies that had been carried out in the nineties, Chase (2001), in his thesis, established the basis for further research to know the economic influence of cruise tourism in a region with a broader vision of the evaluated magnitudes.

Subsequent studies continued using the input-output methodology, and although there was one that addressed the cruise tourism field on a global scale (Wood, 2000), most analyzed the effects in a particular region, such as the research carried out by Braun, Xander & White (2002) in Port Canaveral; Chase & Alon (2002) in Barbados and; Chase & McKee (2003) in Jamaica. In this sense, it should be noted that the results obtained in each of them did not converge on similar conclusions, this was due to the origin of the data, since some implemented surveys and others implemented national accounting data.

In parallel, Dwyer, Douglas & Livaic (2004) continued to deepen in the Australian regions, showing greater focus on the international reputation of their cruise industry than on its local image.

The most recent studies, dated in the last decade, incorporate as a novelty the broadening of the geographical scope, as example there are studies that were carried out focused on the Colombian Caribbean (see Brida, Bukstein, Garrido, Tealde & Aguirre, 2010) and in the Mediterranean regions of Croatia and Serbia (see Dragin, Jovicic & Boskovic, 2010). Likewise, they begin to measure magnitudes that in the previous studies had not been contemplated, as is the case of Brida et al. (2010) that

assessed the spending capacity of passengers, something that Dragin et al. (2010) not only confirmed, but also enriched, incorporating sociocultural variables into the spending pattern.

Also, Dragin et al. highlighted that the revenues generated by cruise tourism were advantageous for the local tourism industry and for job creation, although they did not have an impact on accommodation and restaurant services, although another team (Hefner, Mcleod & Crotts, 2014), subsequently would refute this study.

As of 2010, there are many studies that focus on consumer behavior in cruise ships, highlighting those carried out by Larsen et al. (2013) and by Hung & Petrick (2010), who give a valid and reliable scale to measure the restrictions of consumers in the acquisition of this type of vacation. This aspect has been considered intensely in recent years, by virtue of studies such as those of Fan & Hsu (2014), which modeled the acquisition process of cruise passengers, something that was subsequently qualified by Chen et al. (2016). The behavior at ports has also been investigated, reaching interesting conclusions about the importance of the recommendations (Satta et al., 2015) and other sources of information that tourists use (Sanz-Blas et al., 2017). Other areas of research about cruise tourism, which have generated more studies, include the environmental or social impact in the areas receiving this type of tourism. In this regard Kido-Cruz & Cuellar-Rio (2010) established the need to create a tax on the environmental use in Mexico for cruise passengers, determining the necessary threshold so that it does not affect demand. For its part, the studies conducted in 2012 by Arnold et al. (2012), Brida et al. (2012) and Brida, Riaño & Zapata (2012) in Alaska and Colombia respectively, reveal the socio-cultural processes that underlie the visit of cruise passengers. The results obtained were reinforced by the studies that were carried out in the Mediterranean (Brida, Chiappa, Meleddu & Pulina, 2014).

The studies carried out in the sector in the last five years rarely address the economic impact of cruise tourism, one of the few examples being the one carried out in 2017 (Loscertales-Sánchez & Peláez-Verdet, 2017), where some measures of economic impact were ventured. On the contrary, the lines of research have focused on the corporate social responsibility of the cruising companies (see Bonilla-Priego, Fontb & Pacheco-Olivares, 2014, de Grosbois, 2015), the design of the facilities to satisfy the demands from companies and users (eg Hardwick, Youdale & Frankland, 2013), or market trends and decision-making in the management of destinations that offer this type of service (see Castillo-Manzano, López -Valpuesta & Alanís, 2014; De los Reyes, Ruiz, Ruiz & De la Cruz, 2015).

2. Materials and methods

For this investigation, two clearly differentiated stages have been established. In the first, the groups in which the cruise passengers are subdivided in Spain have been determined, considering their behavior during the trip, focusing the analysis especially on their spending and in which communities the cruise passengers make tourism in Spain. This has made it possible to identify the importance of the Spanish continental littoral in the national tourism market, delimiting the destinations receiving cruise

ing tourism in this area. It was thus possible to identify four destinations of different dimensions that could be the object of this study.

In a second phase, information was obtained about the companies that normally have links with this sector, and that a priori could be affected by a greater or lesser presence of cruise ships in the destination. The financial information allowed to establish some regression functions that, suitably adjusted, allowed to define correlations between the influx of cruise passengers in each destination and the financial performance of the companies that operate in it.

2.1 Identification of the cruise passenger profile and its importance in Spain

The EGATUR survey is a tourism market prospecting campaign published every year in Spain. For this research it was necessary, first of all, to collect the microdata of the survey, available at the National Institute of Statistics. Subsequently, they had to be consolidated and preprocessed in Data Mining software, which in this case was Weka (version 3.8.1). The registration of this microdata allowed us to obtain a dataset of the following variables and dimensions:

Chart 1. Variables identifying the cruise passenger profile

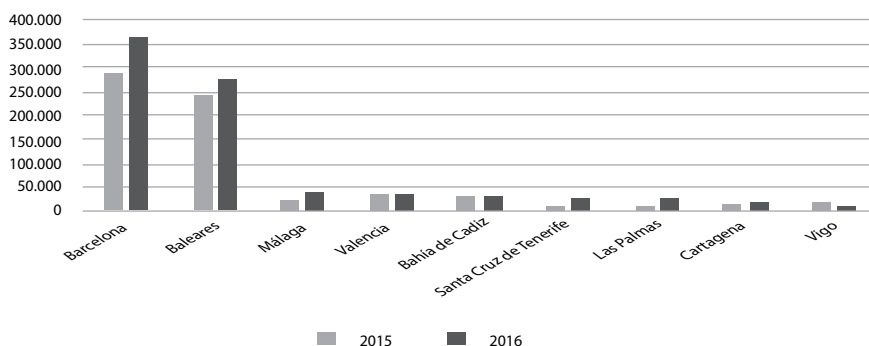
Variable	Values	Frequency (or Description)
Date	Months	Between October 2015 and October 2017
Respondent	2: Non-resident tourist (no transit) 8: Non-resident tourist in transit	177 826 9 741
Way of departure	1: highway 2: airport 3: port 4: train	22 758 154 594 7 377 2 828
Country of residence	01: Germany. 02: Belgium. 03: France. 04: Ireland. 05: Italy. 06: The Netherlands. 07: Portugal. 08: United Kingdom. 09: Switzerland. 10: Russia. 11: Nordic countries (Denmark, Finland, Norway, Sweden). 12: Rest of Europe. 13: USA. 14: Rest of America. 15: Rest of the world	
Main autonomous region of the trip	01: Andalusia. 02: Aragon. 03: Principality of Asturias. 04: Illes Balears. 05: Canary Islands. 06: Cantabria. 07: Castilla and Leon. 08: Castilla-La Mancha. 09: Catalonia. 10: Comunitat Valenciana. 11: Extremadura. 12: Galicia. 13: Community of Madrid. 14: Region of Murcia. 15: Comunidad Foral of Navarra. 16: Basque Country. 17: La Rioja. 18: Ceuta. 19: Melilla	
Total overnight stays	Nights	Mean: 9,27 Std. dev: 12,9

Lodging	1: Hotels and similar 2: Rest of the market 3: Non-market accommodation	105 466 21 581 60 520
Reason for the trip	1: Leisure/vacation 2: Business 3: The rest	134 254 18 830 34 483
Uses tour package	1: Yes 6: No	38 269 149 298
Total expenditure during the trip	Euros	Mean: 1 132,69 Std. dev: 1040,6

After obtaining these data, a K Means cluster analysis applied only to observation units with exit route 3 (port) allowed to identify the main five groups that make up the cruise sector in Spain, with interesting results. Basically, it was possible to identify the resounding importance of the communities of Catalonia, Levante and Andalusia as a vacation spot for tourists who subsequently leave by sea. This, in turn, shed light on the main ports used by these tourists, which gave way to a second phase of this first stage of the investigation, seeking to limit it geographically.

In this sense, the analysts went to the Statistical Yearbook of Ports of the State, published each year by Puertos del Estado (dependent of the Ministry of Development). This manual presented for the peak season of cruises (which coincides with the month of July) of the years 2015 and 2016 the figures that can be seen in figure 1, which present the situation for the Spanish ports that maintained, in period, a traffic higher than 10,000 passengers. As can be seen, there are four ports on the peninsular Spanish coast that have different and very attractive dimensions for the analysis: Barcelona (leading cruise port), Málaga and Valencia (intermediate ports), and Cartagena (smaller port).

Figure 1. Passengers in the main Spanish ports



This scenario provided the opportunity to make a comparative analysis of the economic impact of cruises in each of these destinations, which could be measured by the financial performance of the companies that are most related to this sector.

2.2 Financial performance of companies

Not all companies in each tourist destination are affected equally by the cruise industry. For the purposes of this research, measures of the economic and financial profitability of several companies was obtained in the cities of Barcelona, Málaga, Valencia and Cartagena, through the SABI database (Iberian Balance Sheet Analysis System). The selection criteria of the companies had to fulfill the objective of obtaining a set of firms that were sensitive to the variation, during a period, of the number of passengers disembarking in each of the analyzed ports. In this sense, the research focused on obtaining the financial information of the companies of each city that simultaneously fulfilled the following requirements:

Chart 2. Requirements for the selection of companies to be studied

Requirement	Value
Created	Since January 1, 1997
Status	Active during 2017
CNAE 2009 (Primary code)	471 - Retail trade in non-specialized establishments 472 - Retail sale of food, beverages and tobacco in specialized stores 476 - Retail trade of cultural and recreational articles in specialized establishments 551 - Hotels and similar accommodation 552 - Tourist accommodation and other short-stay accommodation 561 - Restaurants and food stands 563 - Beverage establishments 791 - Activities of travel agencies and tour operators 799 - Other reservation services and activities related to the same 900 - Creative, artistic and entertainment activities 910 - Activities of libraries, archives, museums and other cultural activities 920 - Gambling and betting activities 932 - Recreational and entertainment activities

The result of this search yielded a total of 5 640 companies (3 163 in Barcelona, 199 in Cartagena, 825 in Málaga and 1 453 in Valencia). Their measures of economic profitability, business profitability and its number of employees between 1997 and 2016 were incorporated into the analysis.

On the other hand, when consulting the Statistical Yearbook of the Registry of Ships and Shipping Companies (provided by the General Directorate of the Merchant Navy, State Secretariat for Infrastructure, Transport and Housing, Ministry of Development), the registered passenger census is obtained from each port authority, with a time horizon of twenty years. This allowed the researchers to have an independent variable that correlates with that dependent on the financial performance of the companies that surround each cruise port. This process was carried out through a

curvilinear estimation process that adjusted the relationship between both variables, through the IBM SPSS Statistics® software (version 22, IBM Corp., 2013).

3. Analysis

As a consequence of the application of these methods, the analysis was able to base a measure of the cross-influence of cruise tourism in four Spanish destinations in the Mediterranean peninsula. For this, it was necessary, in the first place, to identify the cruise passenger and estimate the ports in which it was present in a tourist way, and second to calculate the correlation between the influx of cruise passengers in each port and the economic performance of the companies associated to it.

3.1 What destinations do cruise passengers visit before returning?

After the discretization of the variable «Total expenditure» in ten equal intervals, and the filtering of the surveys to obtain only the cruise tourists (and not the hikers or those tourists who had left by other means), the total number of tourists per cruise stayed at 3 873). The execution of the cluster analysis in the dataset obtained from EGATUR between October 2015 and October 2017 and thusly preprocessed could be established, using the K Means algorithm (Euclidean Distance) three different groups of cruise passengers that integrated the total of tourists were distributed as follows:

Chart 3. Results of the cluster analysis on EGATUR data

Cluster	1	2	3
Origin	United Kingdom	United Kingdom	Resto f the world
Autonomous community of main destination	Catalonia	Valencian Community	Andalusia
Total overnight stays (average)	7,42	38,14	11,8
Main reason for travel	Vacation	Vacation	Vacation
Tourist Package	No	No	No
Total expenditure on the trip	Between 1450 and 1990 euros	More than 1990.60 euros	More than 1990.60 euros

Two preliminary conclusions can be drawn from this analysis: the cruise tourist generally supports a high level of expenditure compared to other types of tourists, a fact supported by the fact that the centroids of the three clusters are at the highest level of the general expenditure categories (case of cluster 2 and 3), and the one below (cluster 1). In addition, this allowed the researchers to geographically limit the analysis on the peninsular coast, since at no time does it seem that the island ports represent a specific weight compared to destinations in Catalonia, Valencia and Andalusia.

Comparing the previous partial conclusions with the report of Ports of the State referred to above, the analysis continued focusing on the Mediterranean peninsular ports of the Mediterranean: Barcelona (Catalonia), Valencia (Comunitat Valenciana), Cartagena (Port associated with the destination Valencia by geographical proximity,

and interesting from the point of view of its size) and Málaga (cruise port entrance to Andalusia from the Mediterranean).

3.2 What influence does cruise tourism have on local companies?

In a second phase of the investigation, the team focused its efforts on gathering financial information on the companies that could be influenced the most, a priori, in by the cruise sector. After the search described in the second point of the previous section, the team recorded and averaged annual economic and financial returns, as well as the number of employees declared of the 5 640 companies involved in this study that were known in the SABI database through the Spanish Commercial Registry. After this work of compilation, it became available a historical, business to business, of the variables described below:

Chart 4. Descriptions of the economic profitability of companies by city analyzed

Economic profitability (%)	Barcelona	Cartagena	Málaga	Valencia
Mean	- 4,28	1,91	- 7,27	- 5,33
Typical error	9,39	1,00	2,37	1,31
Median	- 7,58	1,50	- 3,41	- 5,73
Standard deviation	42,00	4,45	10,60	5,87
Variance	1.763,68	19,84	112,42	34,43
Curtosis	14,35	- 0,96	1,88	- 1,09
Asymmetry coefficient	3,32	- 0,04	- 1,53	- 0,05
Range	231,80	14,83	39,54	20,25
Minimum	- 70,57	- 5,18	- 35,49	- 15,49
Maximum	161,22	9,65	4,05	4,76
Confidence level (95,0%)	19,65	2,08	4,96	2,75

Economic profitability is the measure of the efficiency with which the company yields results, according to the size of its assets. It is understood as the quotient between the benefit before interest and taxes and the active total committed to obtain those benefits in a specific year. In this regard, it should be noted that the companies in Cartagena exhibit greater prosperity than those of the other three cities, which show a much lower average of economic returns in the period considered.

Financial profitability, for its part, expresses the extent to which the company remunerates its shareholders for the investment they have made in it, by generating the anticipated capital resources. It should be understood as the proportion of profits before interest and taxes and the company's own resources. In this case, it can be said that Málaga companies are the ones that better reward the resources with which their shareholders endow them.

**Chart 5. Descriptions of the financial profitability
of the companies analyzed, per city**

Financial profitability (%)	Barcelona	Cartagena	Málaga	Valencia
Mean	20,08	- 53,56	72,20	32,64
Typical error	34,12	36,12	66,72	25,61
Median	8,20	24,01	33,77	23,55
Standard deviation	152,61	161,53	298,38	114,55
Variance	23.289,56	26.092,20	89.032,20	13.121,13
Curtosis	7,53	4,44	3,52	5,81
Asymmetry coefficient	2,14	- 2,16	0,32	1,37
Range	772,72	645,82	1.547,28	612,10
Minimum	- 225,28	- 548,91	- 682,19	- 213,41
Maximum	547,44	96,91	865,09	398,69
Confidence level (95,0%)	71,42	75,60	139,65	53,61

**Chart 6. Descriptions of the number of employees declared
by the companies studied in each city**

Employees	Barcelona	Cartagena	Málaga	Valencia
Mean	12,03	6,94	7,24	7,91
Typical error	0,47	0,50	0,44	0,39
Median	12,15	6,71	7,71	7,69
Standard deviation	2,09	2,19	1,98	1,72
Variance	4,36	4,78	3,92	2,95
Curtosis	1,66	- 0,65	1,59	2,62
Asymmetry coefficient	- 1,07	- 0,15	- 1,32	0,74
Range	8,78	7,88	7,95	8,32
Minimum	6,50	2,67	2,00	4,20
Maximum	15,28	10,55	9,95	12,52
Confidence level (95,0%)	0,98	1,05	0,93	0,83

Employees are a standard measure of the size of a company. It is easy to deduce, through the data reflected in chart 6, that the Barcelona firms are those that have the greatest dimension in terms of jobs maintained in their structure. On the other hand, the companies in the rest of the observed destinations maintain an average number of employees of around six, which suggests that they are smaller than the firms in Barcelona.

These are measures associated with the economic life of the last twenty years of the companies analyzed in each destination. On the other hand, the objective was to correlate them with their respective passenger traffic, a variable that was obtained from the Register of Ships of the Merchant Navy, which officially publishes this measure for each Spanish port. This measure gives an indication of the tourist importance of

each place from the tourist point of view and allows to compare the destinations with a homogeneous magnitude and easy to understand.

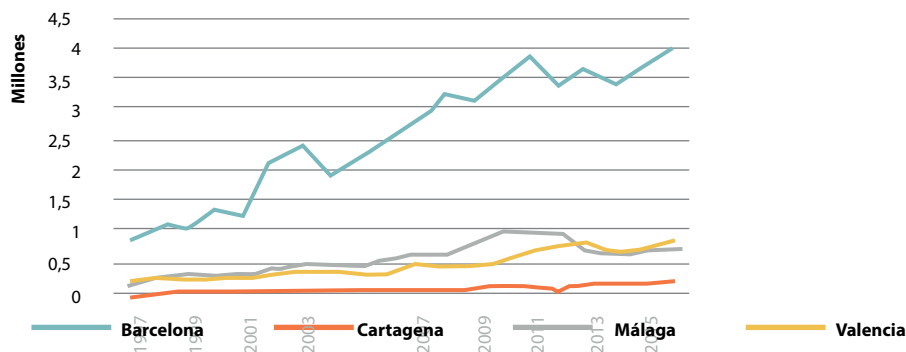
After the compilation of the information provided by the Ship Registry of the Merchant Navy, a complete record was obtained not only of passengers, but of activity of each port in relation to ship traffic, cargo, services, cabotage, etc. For the purposes of this investigation, the relevant information about the passengers was automated in a single register containing the passenger traffic during the same twenty years analyzed for each port, which can be seen in the following chart:

Chart 7. Descriptions of passenger flow by analyzed port

Passengers	Barcelona	Cartagena	Málaga	Valencia
Mean	2.586.072,60	59.566,90	552.781,20	471.231,60
Typical error	231.287,47	12.644,92	55.046,81	50.002,03
Median	2.709.430,50	32.187,50	556.612,00	397.458,50
Standard deviation	1.034.349,02	56.549,79	246.176,84	223.615,88
Variance	1.069.877.900.044,78	3.197.879.046,52	60.603.034.507,85	50.004.061.213,09
Curtosis	-1,33	- 0,26	- 0,91	- 0,97
Asymmetry coefficient	-0,36	0,97	0,13	0,66
Range	3.073.589,00	186.111,00	800.326,00	702.263,00
Minimum	887.840,00	2.401,00	184.712,00	205.880,00
Maximum	3.961.429,00	188.512,00	985.038,00	908.143,00
Confidence level (95,0%)	484.090,24	26.466,12	115.214,31	104.655,45

It is important to mention that the trend in the volume of passengers has been growing throughout the considered period, which requires thinking of a sustained improvement in the conditions for companies. This is shown in Figure 2.

Figure 2. Passengers by analyzed port and year



4. Results

Cross-analysis of these data sets lead to interesting conclusions, once all the information was introduced in the SPSS® software, and making a curvilinear correlation to estimate which curves would better adjust to the mutual behavior of the described parameters. The results can be seen in chart 8 (the blank cells are equivalent to non-significant relationships):

Chart 8. Functions and coefficients significant at 95%
of the Economic Profitability-Passengers adjustment by city

Adjustment model		Passengers/ Economic profitability		
		Cartagena	Málaga	Valencia
Function	Parameter	Coef.	Coef.	Coef.
Inverse	1/Passengers		4004608,24	3552515,8
	Constant		-16,545	-14,715
Lineal	Passengers	-5,19E-05		
	Constant	5,292		
Logarithmic	ln(Passengers)	-2,993	-11,69	-8,749
	Constant	33,719	145,991	107,842
Quadratic	Passengers	0		
	Passengers** 2	5,20E-10		
	(Constant)	7,27		
Cubic	Passengers		0	
	Passengers**2		-7,59E-10	
	Passengers**3		4,42E-16	
	Constant		-47,043 (*)	

Note: (*) significant at 90%.

As can be seen, the results indicate significant relationships in several functions, and it can be highlighted that some of them reveal themselves with a high significance. No significant results were obtained for the same analysis associated with the financial profitability of the analyzed companies, which indicates an absence of correlation between this and the flow of passengers, which may be related to other economic or tourism magnitudes.

Regarding the jobs declared by these companies, relevant correlations were found, shown in chart 9:

**Chart 9. Functions and coefficients significant at 95%
 of the adjustment between passenger flow and number of employees declared by port**

Adjustment model		Passengers/Number of employees		
		Barcelona	Cartagena	Málaga
Function	Parameter	Coef.	Coef.	Coef.
Inverse	1/Passengers	-3025668,14	-18970,137	-1095660,37
	Constant	13,485	7,768	9,779
Lineal	Passengers			4,33E-06
	Constant			4,844
Exponential	Passengers			8,75E-07
	Constant			4,229
Logarithmic	ln(Passengers)			2,511
	Constant			-25,682
Quadratic	Passengers		6,05E-05 (*)	
	Passengers** 2		-3,02E-10	
	(Constant)		5,247	
Cubic	Passengers	4,32E-05	0	
	Passengers**2	-1,77E-11	-3,23E-09	
	Passengers**3	2,23E-18	1,03E-14	
	Constant	-18,554	2,156	
S	1/Passengers	-354853,492	-3235,46	-223281,54
	Constant	2,641	2,023	2,443

Note: (*) significant at 90%.

5. Discussion and conclusions

From the results presented above, interesting conclusions are drawn that could serve as a reference to guide future work on this aspect of cruise tourism.

The first issue that draws attention is the number of functions that significantly correlate the volume of passengers that circulated in each port with the economic returns recorded by the analyzed companies. In the case of Málaga, the logarithmic or cubic functions seem to respond quite well, while in the case of Cartagena a cubic function fits this relationship in an acceptable manner.

There is a striking absence of relationships between the financial profitability of companies and the number of cruise passengers. It could be that it has to do with the capital structure and the indebtedness of the firms that have been analyzed. In future work, this should be a line of research, which delves into the liabilities of the studied companies and verifies if there are financial categories more susceptible than others to changes in the cruise market of their city.

The number of jobs seems to be a variable even more linked to the flow of cruises than the economic profitability of the companies they serve. The case of Málaga is striking, where a composite function explains this relationship very well. However, a logistic function of similar parameters in all cities could be highlighted as a relevant finding, since it allows to explain, in a significant and very similar way, the relationships between jobs and the flow of tourists in the four analyzed destinations and can be inferred by its coefficients the impact that an increase in the flow of tourists would have in job creation. Finally, some lines of action could be pointed out for future work in this regard, which inquire into what has already been presented here. For example, one of the limitations of this work has been the time horizon that has been considered. To the extent that temporary data can be added to the studied series, to make them longer than only twenty years, the results could gain in accuracy. On the other hand, the profile of the companies has not been broken up in the analysis, and there may be companies that are very sensitive to the sector and other categories which changes in cruise tourist flow that result in lesser harm or benefit. A more detailed analysis of the effects of these variables, depending, for example, on the CNAE 2009 heading in which the company is located, could yield very promising and professionally valuable results for the DMO's of these four studied destinations.

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Planning and perception of sustainable tourism in ethnic group of Mexico

Percepción y planificación del turismo sostenible en comunidades indígenas de México

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Abstract

The study shows the necessity of preserving the cultural richness of ethnic groups when in their own communities some touristic activities that endanger their identity as local cultures and preservers of their traditions and mother tongues are carried out. This is the case of Maya Chontal communities in Nacajuca, Tabasco, Mexico, where ancient traditions like Chontal language and the elaboration of art crafts are preserved. The aim of this work is to analyze the level of active participation of ethnic groups in four communities that belong to corridor Biji Yokotán in which the local people are considered part of the touristic offer. The methodology used has a mixed approach and the collection of data included direct observation, exploratory interviews, and surveys with opinion probing. The sample was determined through a random sampling in each community using an estimated rate, which result was the application of 304 questionnaires in the communities of study.

Results show that in those communities the practice of sustainable tourism is not promoted. Even some artisans remain as spectators of the touristic product developed in their communities. Thus, this study demonstrates the absent of a planned touristic offer as well as the lack of awareness and participation of the majority of the local population.

Resumen

La presente investigación destaca la necesidad de salvaguardar las riquezas culturales de los pueblos indígenas, más aún cuando en sus comunidades se promueven y llevan a cabo actividades turísticas que ponen en riesgo su identidad como culturas autóctonas preservadoras de sus tradiciones y lengua de origen. Tal es el caso de las comunidades Mayas Chontales en el municipio de Nacajuca, Tabasco, México. El objetivo del estudio fue analizar el grado de participación activa de los pobladores en cuatro comunidades pertenecientes al corredor *Biji Yokot'an*, donde la población Maya Chontal forma parte de la propia oferta turística. El diseño metodológico refiere a un enfoque mixto de la investigación a fin de triangular la información. La recolección de los datos incluyó observación directa, entrevistas exploratorias y encuestas con sondeos de opinión. Para el cálculo de la muestra se realizó un muestreo aleatorio en cada comunidad utilizando la estimación de una proporción, y con base en los resultados del muestreo se aplicaron 304 cuestionarios. Los resultados indican que en dichas comunidades no se promueve la práctica del turismo sostenible. Incluso, hay artesanos quienes permanecen como espectadores del producto turístico desarrollado en sus comunidades. Por tanto, el trabajo demuestra la ausencia de una oferta turística planificada, así como la falta de toma de conciencia y participación en la mayoría de los habitantes en la zona.

Keywords | palabras clave

Ethnic group, planning, tourism, sustainable development, crafts.

Comunidades indígenas, planificación, turismo, desarrollo sostenible, artesanías.

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1. Introduction and state of the issue

Tourism is an important economic sector in Mexico. In 2014, it directly represented 8.5% of GDP, 5.8% of full-time paid employment and 77.2% of service exports. In addition, it is identified as one of the six priority economic sectors in the National Development Plan, PND 2013-2018. However, the potential of tourism to promote local and regional development still has a wide margin of exploitation (Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development in Mexico, OECD, 2017).

In recent years the trend of tourists has leaned towards coexistence with natural environments. At the end of the 20th century some authors referred to this practice as alternative tourism, because “it was characterized by having nature as a destination and because it implied a more active attitude of the tourist and a growing concern for the welfare of local populations” (Palomino, Gasca & López, 2016, p.12). The Ministry of Tourism in Mexico, SECTUR defines eco-tourism as:

The travels that have as purpose to realize recreational activities in direct contact with the nature and the cultural expressions that surround it, with an attitude and commitment to know, to respect, to enjoy and to participate in the conservation of the natural and cultural resources (SECTUR, 2006, p. 2).

On the other hand, the business of nature tourism and that which takes place in rural environments, allows to diversify production, create employment, promote rural roots, work opportunities for women and young people, revalue environmental and cultural heritage, improve the commercialization of primary products and add value, promote associations, incorporate different sizes of establishments, expand the tourist offer and add value to the existing one, develop new investments, revalue people linked to the rural environment and contribute to local development (OMT, 2003).

Therefore, nature tourism promotes a better quality of physical and mental life by breaking the cultural barrier and expanding the knowledge of new customs and ways of life (Medina, 2011). That is, it promotes cultural revaluation in areas that are at risk of losing their traditions. In other words, nature tourism can lead to the conservation of intangible cultural heritage, defined by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, UNESCO, as:

...the uses, representations, expressions, knowledge and techniques -together with the instruments, objects, artifacts and cultural spaces that are inherent to them- which communities, groups and in some cases, individuals recognize as an integral part of their cultural heritage. This intangible cultural heritage, which is transmitted from generation to generation, is constantly recreated by communities and groups according to their environment, their interaction with nature and their history, instilling a sense of identity and continuity and thus contributing to promote respect of cultural diversity and human creativity (2016, p.5).

The World Tourism Organization (2018a), regarding tourism activity in intangible cultural heritage sites, states that “The cultural exchange promoted by these meetings; favors dialogue, strengthens understanding and, therefore, fosters peace and tolerance” (paragraph 2); which promotes the conservation of cultural heritage, since the income generated by visitors can be channeled towards conservation.

Also, it is essential that tourism development in these locations be carried out in conjunction with the local population, as stated by Casas, Soler & Pastor (2011):

...the objective of community tourism... is essentially to improve the standard of living of the inhabitants of the native communities, through the use of tourism resources. With this, it is possible to revive the depressed areas, increase and guarantee the permanence of traditional ways of life, create an economic activity complementary to the traditional productive forms... (p. 17).

Community tourism “allows for the generation of wealth in rural areas of developing countries, through the participation of the local community in tourism management, so that the benefits have an impact on the community itself” (Casas, Soler & Pastor, 2012, p.93). In this regard, Ruiz (2008) states that “for the practice of sustainable tourism to be successful, the formation of an environmental conscience and culture is essential, which constitutes an interest shared by all the agents involved” (cited in Montañón et al., 2012., p.497).

Therefore, tourist activity is seen as an effective opportunity to improve the precarious situation of rural environments, because unlike cities, rural communities are characterized by living in conditions of extreme poverty, and despite the efforts made by different organisms, this condition has been increasing in recent years. In this regard, the National Council for the Evaluation of Social Development Policy in Mexico, CONEVAL reported that the percentage of the population living in poverty in rural areas went from 61.1% in 2014 to 58.2% in 2016 (CONEVAL, 2017). These communities tend to be characterized by dispersed and isolated settlements, which is directly related to their degree of marginalization, which is why they face greater problems of social backwardness (National Council of Population in Mexico, CONAPO, 2014). For this reason, urban centers have constantly attracted the rural population that surrounds them, as more and more people are migrating from the countryside to the cities. Paradoxically, although in the rural world most of the goods are produced for the inhabitants of the city, this population has the least access to these resources (Chaves et al., 2008).

It should be noted that 61% of the indigenous population of Mexico lives in these communities. These peoples give a sense of belonging and identity to the country due to their culture, history and languages (National Institute of Statistics and Geography in Mexico, INEGI, 2016). Among its heritage is also traditional medicine and crafts, whose practices conserve and reproduce ancestral knowledge. The contribution of these peoples is multiple and has several dimensions, so they deserve a decent future (López-Hernández, 2011). Their practices can become an alternative source of employment in rural communities (Rivera, Alberti, Vázquez & Mendoza, 2008). However, by 2015 only 7.2 million indigenous people were registered, representing 6.6% of the total population (INEGI, 2015). Among these, the most spoken languages are: Nahuatl (23.4%), Maya (11.6%), Tseltal (7.5%), Mixteco (7.0%), Tsotsil (6.6%), Zapotec (6.5%), Otomi (4.2%), Totonaco (3.6%), Chol (3.4%), Mazateco (3.2%), Huasteco (2.4%) and Mazahua (2, 0%) (INEGI, 2016). These languages, despite representing a cultural heritage for the country, are at risk of disappearing, according to the census statistics of the late nineteenth to the twentieth century (National Institute of Indigenous Languages in Mexico, INALI, 2012).

Therefore, the Declaration of the Nations on the Rights of Indigenous Peoples, states that “respect for indigenous knowledge, cultures and traditional practices contributes to sustainable and equitable development and to the proper management of the environment.” They are also authorized to freely engage in the economic activity of their choice, whether traditional or otherwise, as well as encourage and transmit their stories, philosophies and customs to future generations (United Nations Organization, UN, 2007).

This is where the uncertainty of the viability of tourism activity in indigenous populations arises, since the development of tourism activities has implicit negative impacts, as the mere presence of humans represents changes in the natural environment of the destination; and in the sociocultural field it can cause de-culturalization when local traditions are improperly marketed. In addition, we know of many places where tourism has increased the cases of prostitution in all its manifestations and effects: sexually transmitted diseases; transculturation; price increase; delinquency; drug addiction; migration; alteration of the demography of the sector; xenophobia; changes in agricultural production; and strong impacts on the environment due to pollution (Orozco, Núñez & Virgen, 2008).

In the search to diminish the negative effects of the tourist activity, sustainable tourism is presented as a viable way to combat the problem. The issue of sustainable tourism has been widely discussed by various scholars, professionals and organizations. Moreno (2007), for example, affirms that in order to achieve sustainable development, it is necessary, among other things, to have a political system that ensures citizen participation in decision-making, an economic system that generates surpluses and knowledge on a self-sustaining and self-sufficient basis, and a social system that provides solutions for the tensions of non-harmonic development. Thus, the National Commission of Natural Protected Areas of Mexico, CONANP, mentions that sustainable tourism is one that fulfills the optimal use of environmental resources while respecting the socio-cultural authenticity of the host communities, conserving their architectural cultural assets and their traditional values, and contributing to intercultural understanding and tolerance. Lastly, it ensures viable long-term economic activities that provide well-distributed socio-economic benefits to all agents, such as stable employment opportunities and the obtaining of income and social services for host communities, thus contributing to the reduction of poverty (CONANP, 2006).

UNWTO (2018b) states that sustainable tourism “takes full account of current and future economic, social and environmental impacts to meet the needs of visitors, the industry, the environment and host communities” (paragraph 1). In this regard, Virgen (2014) points out that “today there is no development or management of tourism if planning and management are not based on solid bases of sustainability” (page 206). That is, when planning is done without sufficient information about the social and environmental repercussions of the activity, the well-being of the destination becomes vulnerable to the negative impacts of tourism activity. In this sense, planning is a necessary tool in the design of a tourism product and ideally, this tool is made within a sustainable framework. Therefore, the indicators constitute an early warning system that allows the managers of these places to anticipate the potential risks and adopt the relevant measures for each situation (UNWTO, 2009). Through these it is possible to formulate measures to maintain tourist attractions, increase economic

benefits, raise the level and quality of life of the communities and achieve a satisfactory experience for visitors (Ibáñez & Ángeles, 2012).

However, setting aside the importance of planning, many destinations, for lack of knowledge about sustainable tourism practices, have suffered serious damage to their social structure, causing the loss of traditions, customs, religious ceremonies, language, clothing and other manifestations of the residents, or simply the disintegration of projects that could, with better planning, obtain successful results.

Such is the case of the state of Tabasco, located in the southeast of the country with a total population of 2 395 272 inhabitants (Ministry of Economy in Mexico, SE, 2015). This area is inhabited by the smallest part of indigenous groups of Mexico, the most spoken languages are: the Chontal de Tabasco (37 072 speakers), Chol (13 840 speakers), Tzeltal (2 849 speakers) and Tzotzil (1 379 speakers). Thus, there are 60,526 people who speak an indigenous language, which represents 3% of the total population (INEGI, 2010).

The potential for tourism growth in the state is evident due to its natural attractions and cultural diversity (Special Tourism Program, PET, 2014), the latter mainly in the municipalities of Villahermosa, Nacajuca and Macuspana, where the largest indigenous population is concentrated (Flores, 2006). However, by 2016, 50.9% of the population of Tabasco lives in poverty and 11.8% in extreme poverty (CONEVAL, 2017). These localities do not have enough income to cover their basic needs of food, housing, clothing, education, etc.

The figures presented reveal the need to preserve the cultural heritage that has survived various hostile situations, as well as the notable social backwardness, presumably the lack of planning in the failure of many tourism projects in the State, such as the Reserve Ecological Rio Playa in Comalcalco, Agua Jungle in Huimanguillo, or Tucta's tourist hostel in the Nacajuca chontal ridges, to name a few (Liévano, Juárez & Mazó, 2014, Mazó, 2010).

Considering the role played by indigenous peoples in tourism, the knowledge of new cultures and experiences with the natural environment is appropriate to take advantage of this demand, without losing the sense of conservation and protection of the traditions treasured by the Tabasco indigenous areas. This can be achieved by promoting sustainable tourism practices in communities that, although they lack technical training, have the potential to develop the activity. Such is the case of the Mayan Chontal communities of Nacajuca. In this regard, it is known that these communities have characteristics with tourism potential, especially for the practice of ecotourism and those related to artisanal resources (Sánchez & López, 2011, Flores, 2011, Rivera et al., 2008).

The contextual framework of this research focuses on a case study regarding the Mayan Chontal indigenous communities of Nacajuca, Tabasco and their performance as part of the tourist offer of the Biji Yokot'an corridor. The tourist offer of the Biji Yokot'an corridor is integrated into two municipalities: Jalpa de Méndez and Nacajuca. Its main offer corresponds to the realization of activities immersed in nature tourism, specifically ecotourism and rural tourism; standouts include gastronomy, natural resources, culture, history and crafts. Currently, the Biji Yokot'an corridor has thirteen tourist resources classified into: three natural resources, five cultural resources and five historical monumental resources.

The main offer of the Mayan Chontal communities is the elaboration of crafts of different kinds, whose prices vary depending on several factors: the supplier, the size of the craft, the quality of the raw material and even the location of the point of sale. These are made from resources that are part of the local vegetation and can be easily obtained by artisans (See chart 1), with the exception of wicker and rattan that are transported from Tapijulapa and Mexico City.

Chart 1. Use of vegetation in craftsmanship

Common name	Scientific name	Handicrafts
Cañita	Cyperus canus	Sandals, folders, backpacks
Carrizo	Phragmites australis	Baskets
Cedro rojo	Cederla odorata	Drums
Coco	Cocos nucifera	Ornamental figures
Espadillo	Gladiolus spp	Fan
Guano redondo	Sabal mexicana	Hats
Jacinto	Eichhornia crassipes	Porta portraits, fans, boxes, cushions
Jícaro	Crescentia alata	Mugs
Joloché	Zea maíz	Artificial flowers
Jolocín	Heliocarpus appendiculatus	Mask hair
Junco	Scirpus lacustris	Curtains, tablecloths
Madera de sauce	Salix chilensis	Masks, key rings, carved figures
Mango	Manguifera indica	Cayucos
Palma real	Roystonea regia	Fans
Mimbre	Salix	Furniture and baskets
Rattán	Calameae	Furniture
Tule	Taxodium mucronato	Vases, baskets, ornate figures

Source: own elaboration based on the application of surveys and Pérez (2007).

The research tackles the question: is the tourism activity carried out in the Mayan Chontal communities perceived as sustainable among its inhabitants? To answer the research question, the work was based on a Sustainable Development Indicators Guide for tourism destination proposed by the UNWTO (2009), which refers to the sustainability of tourism, specifically addressing the degree of integration and participation of the community in the planning of tourist activities.

2. Materials and methods

The methodological design used is based on a mixed approach to research, since it involved the collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative information. The procedure is basically concentrated in two stages: the first consisted in the collection,

classification and analysis of documentary information regarding the actions of artisans, the local population, and tourists; which was obtained from secondary sources such as fascicles, publications in newspapers and scientific journals, population censuses, bulletins, reports, books, undergraduate and postgraduate theses, plans and programs, encyclopedias, as well as electronic sites of official organizations such as the UNWTO and SECTUR. And in a second stage, the field work was carried out that combined the techniques of interview, survey and observation.

The field research was developed through the Sequential Exploratory Design, DEXPLOS, understood as a design that integrates “an initial phase of qualitative data analysis collection followed by another where quantitative data are collected and analyzed” (Hernández, Fernández & Baptista, 2010, p 551).

As DEXPLOS points out in its comparative modality, the first phase of the research was focused on the collection and analysis of qualitative data, for which interviews were conducted with two key informants: the Director of Economic Development and Tourism of the municipality of Nacajuca, DFET, and a Catholic priest who is in charge of the coordination and integration of the Mayan Chontal communities. The first one we inquired about the joint work and the planning of tourism projects with the artisans, as well as providing relevant information on the structure and location of the artisanal zones, which allowed identifying the ideal indigenous areas to carry out the research. For its part, the priest was a source of valuable information regarding the behavior and participation of villagers in local festivals and traditions. It should be noted that their indigenous beliefs are mainly based on their religious tradition, and since Catholicism is the predominant religion with 73% of parishioners in the municipality (Municipal Development Plan, PMD, 2015), the priest’s knowledge and experience would provide information relevant to the study.

In the first phase, the communities were selected based on their tourist-artisan participation, which is why communities historically recognized for their artisanal vocation were sought out and are part of the offer of the Biji Yokot’an tourist corridor. This is how the communities that met both criteria were selected: Tucta, Mazateupa, Tecoluta 1ra. and Tecoluta 2da., which facilitated the search for information, as well as reducing the economic and time costs.

Subsequently, the sample size was calculated using the estimation of a proportion through the following formula:

$$n = \frac{P(1-P)}{\left(\frac{e}{Z_{\alpha/2}}\right)^2 + \frac{P(1-P)}{N}}$$

Where:

n = Sample size

P = Parameter

e = estimation error

Z = value of z that delimits an area of $\alpha / 2$ to its right in the normal curve

N = Size of the population

In this way a random sampling was carried out, where any of the individuals of a population had the same probability of being chosen (Gómez, 2012). Thus, a total of 304 questionnaires were printed, 78 for Tucta, 81 for Mazateupa, 69 for Tecoluta 1st. and 76 to Tecoluta 2nd.

In the second phase, the collection of quantitative information through surveys began. The source of information at this stage was the receiving population and the artisans. The questionnaires were directed to people of legal age, mainly parents. Most women were surveyed between 30 and 50 years of age, especially in the communities of Tucta, Tecoluta 1st. and Tecoluta 2nd., where they were regularly doing housework. In the case of Mazateupa, surveys of men prevailed, most of them were in their homes attending a craft or grocery business.

Regarding the research instruments for the interviews and surveys, several topics related to the accessibility of information regarding the activity of sustainable tourism and the participation of the local community in the decision making of tourism projects were addressed. The questionnaires for the interviews include, in addition to the categories that refer to the sustainability indicators, some demographic aspects and job functions of the interviewees. On the other hand, questionnaires for surveys address demographic, socio-economic and socio-cultural aspects. In the specific case of the questionnaire to artisans, it was considered pertinent to add a section that would provide descriptive information on the characteristics of the crafts, given that these products constitute the main tourist attraction of their communities (See chart 2).

Chart 2. Structure of research instruments

Instruments	Analysis categories	Items
Interview with the coordination of Economic Development and Tourism (1)	Demographic aspects	Name Origin
	Job description	Main function Time in office Tourism projects that have been worked or are currently active
	Community awareness and participation	Means used to promote sustainable tourism Tourism information in the destination Access to information Understanding the concept of sustainable tourism planning Understanding the practice of sustainable tourism Understanding the effects of tourism
Interview with religious leader (2)	Demographic aspects	Name Community
	Job description	Name of the church Time as minister in the community
	Community awareness and participation	Address all the items indicated in the instrument 1

Questionnaire to local residents (3)	Demographic	Age Sex Family size Birthplace
	Socioeconomic	Education Occupation
	Sociocultural	Indigenous language speaker Religion
	Community awareness and participation	Address all the items indicated in the instrument 1
Questionnaire to artisans (4)	Demographic	Age Sex Family size Birthplace
	Socioeconomic	Education Occupation
	Sociocultural	Indigenous language speaker Religion
	Community awareness and participation	Business with principles of sustainable tourism Address all the items indicated in the instrument 1
	Description of the crafts	Types of crafts Elaboration process Prices

The application of each questionnaire lasted about 10 minutes. The structure of the questions included closed questions, multiple choice, affirmations with answers based on the five-point Likert scale that ranged from the «strongly agree» category to the «strongly disagree» category and finally open questions were posed that gave a pattern the interviewee to express his opinion on the subject.

In the third phase of the research, the interpretation of the data is compared and integrated, the analysis of the results was done using the Excel tool of the parcel office 2010, for the quantitative data, through which the necessary charts and graphs were generated. Finally, the qualitative data that resulted from the interviews were worked on Atlas-ti 8 Windows.

3. Analysis and results

3.1. Sociodemographic, socio-economic and socio-cultural aspects of the community

The communities studied have very similar demographic characteristics, in principle they are rural communities, with a population of less than 2 500 inhabitants (See chart 3). Likewise, more than 50% of their homes are inhabited by an average of four to six people (Liévano, 2016).

Chart 3. Population numbers of the study area

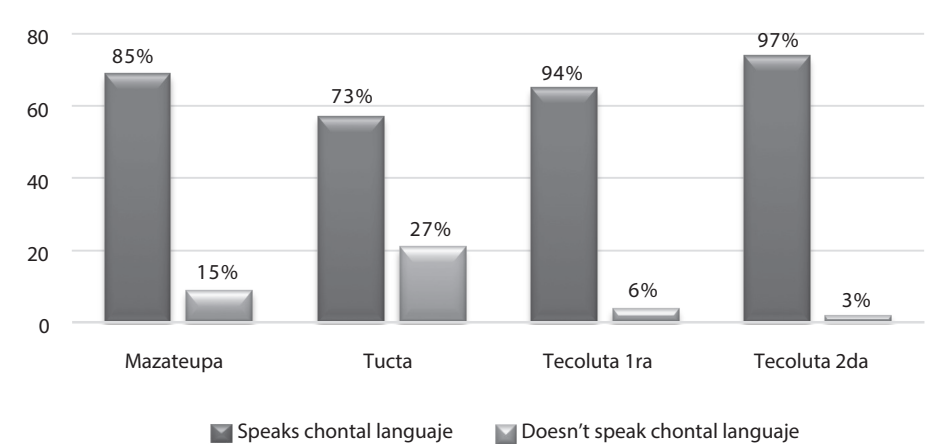
	Tucta	Mazateupa	Tecoluta 1st.	Tecoluta 2nd.
Population	2 015	2 304	1 689	1 132
Homes	418	531	354	245

As is characteristic of rural communities, there is a certain educational lag in the area. 34% of the respondents have not completed the primary level, 22% have completed middle school, 16% have completed the upper secondary level (high school) and only 6% have completed their university studies. It should be noted that the communities Tecoluta 2nd. and Mazateupa have a higher level of educational lag with 44% and 39% of the population without studies, respectively. Tucta with 10% of its inhabitants achieves a greater scope in university studies. It should be noted that these results correspond mostly to women, since it was the prevailing gender during the surveys.

Adult women are engaged in housework. The youngest work in the tertiary sector outside their community or they are studying high school or university. Men mainly carry out primary activities, whether fishing or farming. However, in the specific case of Mazateupa, followed by Tucta, there is a considerable number of family crafts businesses, which complements the income of the inhabitants.

It should be noted that in the town there are also teachers who work in bilingual schools within the same community, where children are taught in Spanish and Chontal language. The latter is spoken in the four communities by more than 87% of households. Parents try to preserve the language by teaching it to their children from an early age, which is why many children dominate the Chontal language and Spanish at the age of 5, especially in the Tecoluta 1st communities. and Tecoluta 2da., where there is no constant tourist interaction (See figure 1).

Figure 1. Number of speakers of Chontal indigenous language



It is also evident that in Tucta there has been a majority loss of the Chontal language, with 27% of respondents who do not speak that language. The 40% of respondents in this community are housewives, whose activities are concentrated in their home, doing work that does not imply their constant transfer to places outside their environment. It is likely that the head of family and children, who have greater interaction with the external environment due to work and studies, present a higher degree of loss of the language.

Regarding the religion professed by these communities, Catholicism is with more than 85% of parishioners the predominant religion, this figure is followed by a minority of evangelicals, including Pentecostals, Presbyterians and Adventists. It should be noted that Catholicism in Mexico is emerging as one of the religions with greater festivities. Specifically, in the Chontal culture, which has also contributed to the diversification of its tourist offer, since the celebrations of the indigenous peoples are an important cultural attraction for tourists.

3.2. Community awareness and participation

Most of the artisans began with this activity from very young, having on average ten years of age; tradition that they want to inculcate also to their children. However, at present, this tradition, as well as the speaking of the indigenous language, has been lost in many children and young people of the community. In this regard, one of the key informants reported that in the last ten years the behavior of the inhabitants has changed in various aspects, for example, the number of participants in the cultural practices has decreased, that is to say: celebrations of the saints, the fairs, offerings, dances, etc... He also commented that young people are increasingly independent; and he even resumed that the Chontal language is being lost in the children and youth of the locality.

In Tecoluta 1st. and 2nd, a large number of craftsmen who do not have an established business were reported, the housewives made the guano fabrics, and these are sold at \$ 10 pesos to other communities that finish the craft, transforming it into a useful object. Artisans say that at least 30% their income comes from the sale of handicrafts although this is not their main economic activity.

Although the majority of the inhabitants do not know that the elaboration of crafts is part of a tourist attraction, during the field work it was observed that more than 50% of the inhabitants in the four communities carry out this activity, either for direct sale to tourists or for sale to other communities.

When inquiring about the greatest concern that the population has with respect to tourism in their community, the responses of the respondents in Tucta and Mazateupa showed disgruntledness in the inhabitants regarding previous tourism projects (See chart 4). For its part, in Tecoluta 1st. and Tecoluta 2nd. they insisted on the need to improve the infrastructure of their streets so that tourists can have access to their communities.

Chart 4. Concerns regarding tourism activity

Community	Concern
Tucta	«There is no integration within the community» «There is a lack of knowledge of the people responsible for executing projects»
Mazateupa	«I wish there was more tourism» «The community does not look pretty enough for tourists to stay» «There is no support for all artisans»
Tecoluta 1st.	«Here there are no tourists» «The poor state of the roads does not let tourists come»
Tecoluta 2nd.	«I would like tourism to get here» «The government is not willing to invest here»

In this regard, none of the respondents has presented their disagreements or ideas to the authorities, because they consider that their community is not a tourist site and therefore will not be taken into account. However, 95% of respondents believe that tourism can find new opportunities for recreation and 20% agree that projects should be carried out to encourage the sale of handicrafts and tourist tours in the lagoon or the riverbank.

The case of artisans in Nacajuca is contradictory to the premise of community participation, since most of them have refused to participate with the City Council in the exhibitions that are organized. In this sense, only a minority are able to advertise their products at the Villahermosa or Nacajuca fairs.

In addition to the above, the DFET lacks a plan that allows the establishment of specific goals and objectives that promote tourism development and even less the involvement of the artisanal community, nor are reports on the economic and social development of the communities that produce handicrafts performed. In this regard, Sánchez & López (2011) state that:

It is very important the incorporation of local population through participatory methodologies for project generation... Therefore, they must internalize the local problem, through rounds within the area, to achieve social, economic and environmental sensitivity for the sustainable management of resources... (p.87)

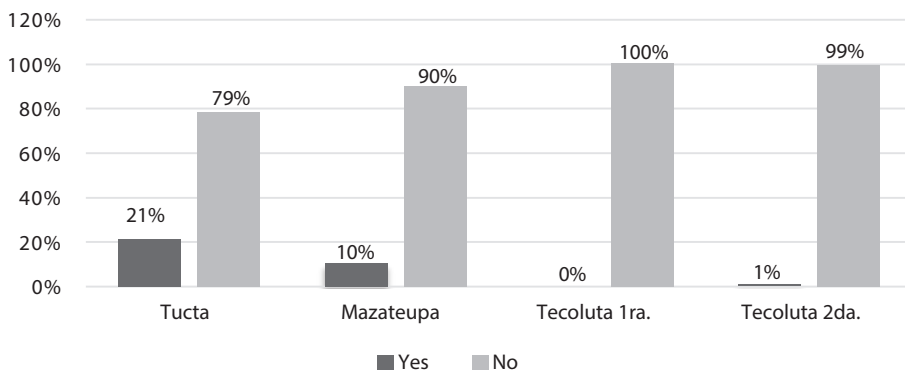
The respondents report that they are unaware of the existence of plans or strategies that involve them in the development of tourism projects. In addition, few residents attend community meetings and those who attend ensure that issues related to tourism activity are not addressed.

Of the studied communities, Tucta and Mazateupa are aware that their community is touristy, so the application of the questionnaires was facilitated, since most of its inhabitants are people who have had contact with tourists. A different story is the one of the communities Tecoluta 1st. and Tecoluta 2da., where a complete ignorance of tourism on the part of the inhabitants is perceived, which made the application of the questionnaire difficult. However, the above showed an inkling of response to the research question posed at the beginning, since one of the main indicators to identify

sustainability in a tourist destination is that the population is aware that it is part of said activity.

It was found that the population does not understand what the tourism activity implies and even less know the meaning of sustainability, since in the Mayan Chontal communities the practice of sustainable tourism is not promoted. Even many artisans had not even heard the term (See Figure 2), consequently they also do not know its meaning.

Figure 2. Knowledge of the respondents about sustainable tourism



However, more than 70% of respondents in each community, say they are interested in receiving training courses on the development of sustainable tourism, which is a good forecast for future projects.

4. Discussion and conclusions

It is important to mention that “there is a complex and constantly evolving relationship between indigenous tourism and the concepts and practices of sustainable tourism” (Carr, Ruhanen, & Whitford, 2016, p.1067). This complexity is mainly due to the fact that, through activities such as tourism, many indigenous peoples have been colonized, being stripped of their lands and denied the total or partial right to access the natural, historical and cultural resources of their localities, which can support their basic food needs (Carr et al., 2016). Given this situation, the application of sustainability indicators is a necessary tool in planning tourism activities, because through them you can adopt early measures to prevent the negative impacts of tourism.

The application of the indicators in the Mayan Chontal communities had more limitations than expected, the characteristics presented by these communities do not match with common tourist centers, therefore, during the research process the instruments were adapted to the socio-cultural characteristics of the community.

The research yielded homogeneous responses in the four communities. The inhabitants perceive tourism as an activity where new leisure opportunities can be found, even though they are disappointed by previous tourism projects. However, they

express their desire for there to be a greater tourist influx in their communities in the coming years.

Butler & Hinch (2007) expose the importance of the inhabitants of indigenous communities being informed about the tourist activity, since it often represents a new experience for them. However, the research shows a clear ignorance of the practices of sustainable tourism on the part of the inhabitants, including the service providers and the agents in charge of the planning; which demands and invites the implementation of training programs in the area of tourism sustainability where all the agents involved can participate, since the knowledge of this practice is the basis for making the right decisions in future projects.

The Mayan Chontal communities represent a development opportunity for the municipality. The cultural wealth that they harbor can be the trigger for the development of various projects. However, successful cases are not based on the beauty of their resources. Success implies a joint effort of work and strategic planning for the benefit of the community.

In this sense, the participation of the government becomes necessary; as well as the participation of: private sector companies; artisans, restaurateurs, and other businesses; schools of all educational levels; professionals specialized in diverse areas; biologists, environmentalists, sociologists, economists, etc.; the health sector; security; but above all, the local population, as it will receive the greatest impact from tourism.

Therefore, there is a need to design a strategic plan for tourism development involving the local population, together with the development of sustainable projects that diversify the current offer and regular community meetings where advances, complaints or suggestions are recorded during the start-up of each project.

On the other hand, it is important to carry out periodic trainings for the providers of tourist services: restaurateurs, artisans, hoteliers, guides, transporters, etc., providing them with the necessary information to perform efficiently in their daily activities. In addition, it is important to manage the resources necessary for the construction, maintenance and remodeling of roads in the Mayan Chontal communities, as well as the implementation of adequate signage within the Chontal Maya area.

In order to promote their roots, traditions and language of origin in children and adolescents, it is important to build a space where bimonthly exhibitions of handicrafts and typical gastronomy of the municipality are held, as well as workshops on environmental and cultural education for children. Finally, it is proposed to sensitize the population and service providers about sustainable tourism practices, and work towards the consolidation of this approach so that it affects the fair distribution of the goods generated by tourism, the security of the community, the training of service providers and in all the required areas.

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Social networks as a means of tourist promotion in the ibero-american countries

Redes sociales como medio de promoción turística en los países iberoamericanos

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Abstract

Through social networks it is possible to create a virtual community around a brand allowing users who wish to inform themselves and interact with the publications made by the brand itself. In this context, these social networks stand out as a channel to obtain and disseminate information on travel experiences, being of great influence on the part of tourists when making a purchase decision. In this way, it is interesting to know how tourist destinations use these social networks to carry out their marketing strategies. Thus, the objective of this study is to analyze the activity and effectiveness of official social networks for tourism promotion in Ibero-American countries. To do this, we consider the variables of "presence", "engagement" and "type of publications" that are measured through a series of performance indicators using the online analysis tool Fanpage Karma®. The results specify that each social network can be used for a particular goal. Facebook stands out as the most complete social network for the promotion of tourist destination with a greater number of followers. Instagram becomes the main social network for general greater interaction with users while Twitter evolves into a news and communication channel. Also highlight the importance of the visual nature of publications for the tourism sector, being those that most often generate interactions of the social networks studied are useful according to the objective to be achieved.

Resumen

A través de las redes sociales es posible crear una comunidad virtual alrededor de una marca, permitiendo a los usuarios que lo deseen informarse e interactuar con las publicaciones realizadas por la misma. En este contexto destacan las redes sociales como canales para obtener y difundir información sobre experiencias de viaje, siendo de gran influencia por parte de los turistas a la hora de tomar una decisión de compra. De esta manera, es de interés conocer cómo los destinos turísticos utilizan estas redes sociales para realizar sus estrategias de marketing. Así, el objetivo del presente estudio es analizar la actividad y efectividad de las redes sociales oficiales para la promoción turística de los países iberoamericanos. Para ello se consideran las variables de «presencia», «engagement» y «tipo de publicaciones» que se miden a través de una serie de indicadores de rendimiento mediante la herramienta de análisis online Fanpage Karma®. Los resultados especifican que cada red social puede ser utilizada para un objetivo en particular. Facebook destaca como la principal red social más completa para la promoción del destino turístico con un mayor número de seguidores. Instagram se convierte en la red social principal para general una mayor interacción con los usuarios mientras que Twitter va evolucionando a un canal de noticias y comunicación. Destacar también la importancia del carácter visual de las publicaciones para el ámbito turístico, siendo las que más interacciones suelen generar.

Keywords | palabras clave

Tourism, marketing, social networks, ROI, engagement, Ibero-American countries.
Turismo, marketing, redes sociales, ROI, engagement, países iberoamericanos.

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1. Introduction

A virtual community around a brand is a specialized group built on a structured set of social relationships between fans of products or services of a specific brand (Pathak, & Pathak-Shelat, 2017). The reason why brands establish a virtual community around them can be explained by their desire to strengthen brand building through the feedback provided by the relationship established with consumers (Gummerus et al., 2012). A successful brand community can help strengthen consumer brand loyalty and serve as a channel for communication and knowledge sharing between brands and consumers, as well as among consumers themselves (Bruhn et al., 2014). In addition, empirical research has shown that consumers who participate in brand communities tend to have a deeper and closer relationship with the brand than those that do not (e.g Laroche et al., 2013; Potgieter & Naidoo, 2017; Rosenthal & Brito, 2017). Therefore, online brand communities function not only as a channel for entities to communicate with customers, but also as an important tool to build relationships with customers.

At present, most of the people willing to travel to a tourist destination choose the alternatives of online communication and planning, among which social networks stand out (Dina & Sabou, 2012). Thus, the tourist offer chooses to adapt to the new trend of behavior of tourists, becoming increasingly active in social networks, which have revolutionized the communicative interactions and, consequently, the commercialization of tourist destinations and business strategies (Sotiriadis & van Zyl, 2013).

The measurement of the value of a business from the Information and Communication Technologies has traditionally been problematic, which extends to social media (Stockdale et al., 2012, Geho et al., 2011). Social media is different from traditional media; therefore, it requires a different approach to its measurement. While the impact of online activity can be measured using defined quantitative metrics, social networks generate a considerable amount of qualitative data that traditional metrics, by themselves, cannot address or quantify in monetary terms (Fisher, 2009).

Thus, the objective of this study is to analyze the activity and effectiveness of official social networks for tourism promotion in Ibero-American countries through the measurement of a series of performance indicators using the online analysis tool Fanpage Karma®. In this case, the sample of Ibero-American countries selected for the study are the 22 members of the Ibero-American General Secretariat¹: Andorra, Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Colombia, Costa Rica, Cuba, Ecuador, El Salvador, Spain, Guatemala, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru, Portugal, Dominican Republic, Uruguay and Venezuela.

2. Theoretical Framework

2.1. Importance of the tourism sector worldwide

Tourism is the largest service industry in the world, it is considered one of the most important sectors in many countries and one of the main engines of the world economy, whose importance is increasing (Devi, 2015), being currently one of the five sectors

1 Available online at: <http://segib.org/>

that provide more income in 83% of countries and the main source of foreign currency in 38% of countries in 2016 (WTO, 2017).

According to the study carried out by World Travel & Tourism Council (WTTC, 2017), tourism is a key sector for economic development and the creation of employment throughout the world. Regarding economic development, in 2016 tourism directly contributed 2.3 trillion dollars to the world economy, equivalent to 10.2% of world GDP. This contribution to GDP grew by 3.1% in 2016, higher than the global economy as a whole, which grew by 2.5%. In addition to overcoming world economic growth, the tourism sector also overtook other major global economic sectors in 2016. Specifically, the direct growth of GDP relative to tourism was stronger than the growth recorded in financial and business services, distribution and transport, and it was only slightly less than the growth of the communications sector.

Regarding job creation, the WTTC study (2017) specifies that in 2016 tourism directly contributed to the creation of 109 million jobs, approximately 1 in 10 worldwide. The direct contribution of tourism to employment grew 1.8% in 2016 compared to the previous year, which means that almost 2 million additional net jobs were generated directly by the sector and a total of around 6 million new jobs created as a result of the activity.

According to the aforementioned WTTC study (2017), the future prospects are also positive. In 2017, the total contribution of tourism to the world economy is expected to grow by 3.5%. Strong continued global growth is expected among the main economic indicators of the contribution to GDP, job creation, investment and exports. A key challenge for tourism in 2017 will be a general slowdown in consumer purchasing power that will affect spending, due to the combination of higher inflation caused by the recovery of oil prices - which could have negative impacts for air fares -, the increase in the cost of debt as interest rates rise and a worldwide slowdown in job creation. The forecast for the next ten years is better, since it is expected that the direct contribution of tourism to GDP will grow an average of 3.9% and generate more than 380 million jobs worldwide.

2.2. Information and Communication Technologies (ICT) and social media in the tourism sector

ICTs have changed the way tourism is reported and the way companies and tourism communities work on the design and marketing of their products, just as the way tourists plan, make reservations and live their tourist experiences has changed (Munar, 2012).

Ferrá & Cardona (2015) consider that ICTs are part of the current culture and expand the possibilities of personal social development. It is usually included in the ICT concept not only the computer and its associated technologies, telematics and multimedia, but also communication media of all kinds: the social media and the traditional interpersonal media with technological support such as the telephone.

According to Xiang & Gretzel (2010), web 2.0 has been the beginning of two fundamental trends: the emergence of social media and the increase in the amount of information that can be found. These are two elements that are closely linked, since the increase of information and tourism elements in the web have established a dialog

with the information produced by users. As a result of the emergence of web 2.0 and new social elements related to this progress (Sotiriadis & van Zyl, 2013); and that are combined with data and extra content that originate from the companies in charge of managing tourist destinations (Hudson & Thal, 2013).

Given this panorama, the information that is shared in social media is recognized as a fundamental information point that can facilitate the programming of travels or can even influence the decision making of a potential tourist (Kang & Schuett, 2013). These potential tourists are often influenced by the experiences and opinions of third parties when making decisions regarding their vacation (Zeng & Gerritsen, 2014). For the reasons mentioned above, the web 2.0 and social media have transformed the way users program and buy their vacations or travels. In this way, web 2.0 has removed some importance to the web of yesteryear, since information, speaking from a quantitative and qualitative point of view, has improved considerably, because the users themselves expand this information with their own experiences.

The characteristics of the tourism sector, in general, and the hotel sector, in particular, make its impact on social media more important. The tourism sector, like any service sector, sells intangible products that are characterized by being inseparable, perishable and heterogeneous, hence the communication process is a vital element in the offer (Sirakaya & Woodside, 2005). For this reason, the use of social media has allowed new communication possibilities and has provided a substantial impact on tourism demand and supply (Martínez et al., 2013).

2.3. Measuring ROI in social networks

Although it can be argued that only financial gains can be measured in monetary value, the non-financial gains of social media can be equally beneficial as they provide an intangible return, such as better communication with customers, brand awareness, among others. However, although these considerations can be advantageous for any business, measuring such intangible benefits is problematic. While, some metrics, such as «the increase of followers on Facebook or Twitter» do not necessarily refer to an increase in sales, it is clear to see that the presence of a brand through social media platforms can ultimately lead to financial gain (Blanchard, 2012).

Return On Investment (ROI), simply refers to the idea that something of value has resulted from an investment of time, energy or money. In financial circles, ROI is usually reduced to a formula (Bragg, 2012), which is calculated simply by subtracting the cost of an investment from the income received from the investment, divided by the investment cost. It is normal for brands to seek profits, but social media cannot be interpreted solely as a measure of such benefits and for this reason it is important to be familiar with other ways of using ROI. First, if an institution is present in social media, it is because there is already someone talking about it and, secondly, these media offer nothing more than new ways of interacting and communicating with prospective audiences and customers. Avoiding them is like refusing to have a phone or a customer service office. In addition, the need to compare Social Media Marketing with more traditional advertising makes us lose sight of the most important aspect of 2.0 communication, which is its bidirectionality (Schmidt, 2014).

There are no standards that clearly and easily define how the data is obtained, which are the most appropriate metrics to obtain the information (Leefflang et al., 2014). When the measurement of profitability in social media is addressed, a benefit in value is contemplated, the so-called IOR (Impact On Relationship) or Return in Relationships. The IOR is considered as the accumulated value that a person gives to a brand, due to the cultivation of this relationship. The IOR is a value and its impact can be measured through recommendations, participation or loyalty. Social media is easily profitable for non-economic benefits, hence the SIOR or Social IOR (Taladriz-Mas, 2013).

Once the focus of return on investment with respect to social media has expanded, brands can begin to consider the "relationship impact" or IOR. This approach focuses on the analysis of social media interactions between a brand and its fans/followers and then determining how that relationship can be fruitful (Geho & Dangelo, 2012).

To measure this impact of the relationship, it is necessary to create a set of indicators and unique metrics that measure the impact on users and the profitability of the brand on the social web and serve as a competitive analysis (González Fernández-Villavicencio, 2016).

Key Performance Indicators (KPIs) are metrics used to quantify objectives that reflect the performance of an organization. The act of monitoring key performance indicators in real time is known as «business activity monitoring». KPIs are communication vehicles and are usually tied to the organization's strategy. On the other hand, Castelló (2012) comments that a KPI is a key indicator of performance, a variable that is linked to a goal in social media and allows to monitor the progress or degree of compliance with the objective. The KPIs serve to know how to boost the channels of the brand in social networks since the results will give clues on how to continue applying the strategy.

3. Methodology

3.1. Research design

To carry out the analysis, the PRGS (Presence, Response, Generation and Suggestion) model, proposed by IAB Spain Research, was used as a basis to elaborate its IV Study of the Activity of brands in Social Media in the years 2012-2016. This model has been used in various studies, such as those carried out by Sánchez & Giraldo (2015), Bueno et al. (2017) and Giraldo & Martínez (2017).

This model is based on 4 variables (Presence, Response, Generation and Suggestion) to measure the activity and the effectiveness of brands in social networks (Giraldo & Martínez, 2017):

- P (Presence): it is given by the number of fans or followers and the number of publications that the brand makes on the page. $P = \text{number of followers} \times \text{post number}$.
- R (Response): is given by the number of likes of the users that they generate for the publications of the brand. $R = \text{likes} / \text{number of fans}$.
- G (Generation): it is given by the number of comments of the users that they generate before the publications of the brand. $G = \text{comments} / \text{number of fans}$.

- S (Suggestion) is given by the number of shares or recommendations of the users that they generate before the publications of the brand. $S = \text{Share/number of fans}$.

For the present study, the variables of «response», «generation» and «suggestion» have been united in a single variable called «engagement», which corresponds to the sum of the three previous ones. The formulation and calculation of “engagement” has been addressed in several studies such as those of Castelló (2012), Oviedo-García et al. (2014) and Buhalis & Mamalakis (2015).

In addition, as an original contribution to the model, it has been considered of interest to analyze the activity to add the variable “type of publications”, through which information is obtained about the type of publications of the official social networks of Ibero-American countries. In this way, the modification of the evaluation model of the present research takes into account the variables of “presence” from the PGRS model, “engagement” and “type of publications”.

The KPIs used in each variable to quantify the results have been the following (chart 1):

Chart 1. Variables and performance indicators used in the analysis along with their description

Variables	Indicators	Description
Presence	Number of followers	Set the number of followers of the hotel's social network
	Number of publications and publications / day	Indicates how many publications the hotel has made
Engagement or activity	Total number of interactions / number of publications	Indicates the total number of user interactions per publication of the page by the sum of the reactions (I like, I love, surprised, laugh, etc.), comments and the number of times the number has been shared of publications
Publications	Type of publications	Indicates what type of publications have been made, either in links, videos or images

3.2. Data collection

To measure the indicators of the official social networks of the 22 Ibero-American countries, the online tool Fanpage Karma® has been used to analyze and monitor social media. This tool has been used in several research studies for the analysis of social networks among which (e.g) those of Jayasingh & Venkatesh (2015), Huertas & Marine-Roig (2016), Martínez-Fernández et al. (2015) and Márquez-Domínguez et al. (2017). In addition, it has also been used for tourist studies such as those of Wozniak et al. (2017) and Huertas et al. (2015).

In this case, the official social networks of tourism promotion used by the 22 Ibero-American countries have been selected as the object of analysis because they are considered the most relevant for studying tourism in the area. In this way, a database

has been obtained with the official social networks of tourism that these 22 countries use with their corresponding link. The social networks of Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and YouTube have been taken into account because they are considered the most outstanding in the tourism sector (Beezhotels, 2016). The data was obtained for a period of six months, corresponding from May 1, 2017 to October 31, 2017.

4. Results

Next, the results obtained in the analysis of the social networks of the 22 Ibero-American countries during the period of six months are exposed, taking into account the already mentioned variables of presence, engagement and type of publications. In sections 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 the results obtained by each of the social networks are specified and in 5.4 the comparative results between the Ibero-American countries.

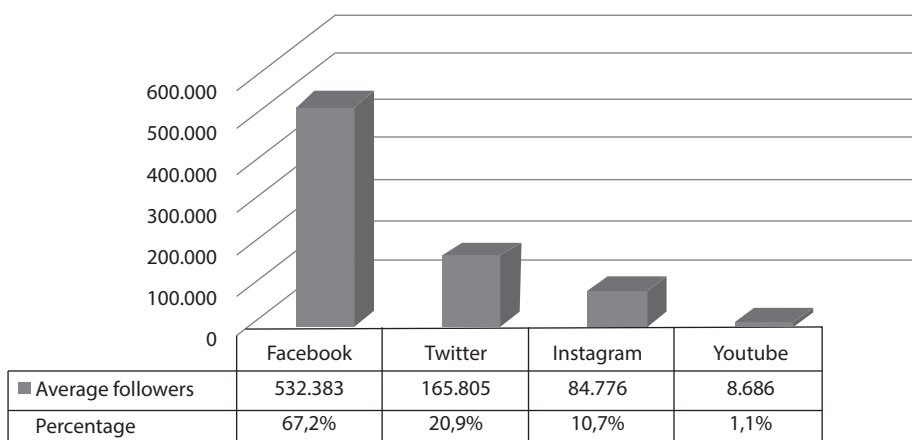
4.1. Presence

The study to verify the presence of Ibero-American countries in official social networks for tourism promotion has been divided into two sections, taking into account the following indicators: first, the average number of followers in each social network is analyzed and, subsequently, the average number of publications. For this, the social networks of Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and Youtube are considered.

Before beginning the analysis, it has been verified that all Ibero-American countries have an open profile in each of the social networks and a database with the results has been made taking into account the aforementioned indicators.

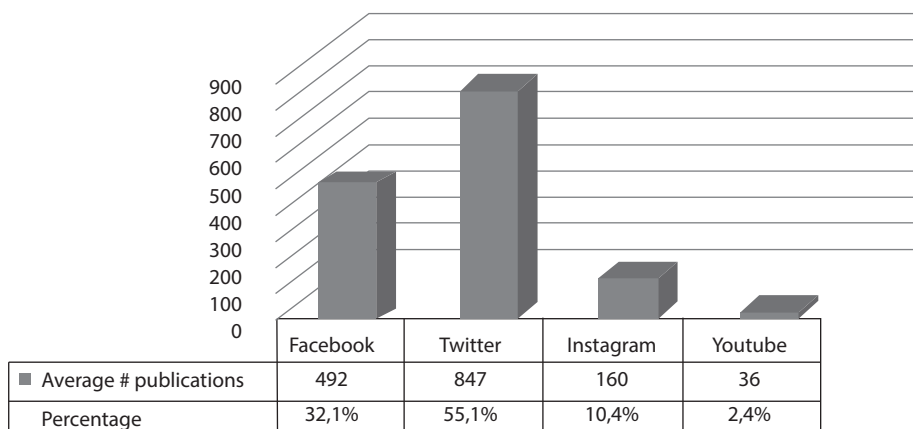
Regarding the results in the average number of followers for each social network, it can be seen that Facebook stands out with 67.2% of the total, followed by Twitter with 20.9% and, further away, Instagram and YouTube are found with 10.7% and 1.1% respectively (figure 1).

Figure 1. Average number of followers per social network



Regarding the average number of publications, Twitter is the social network that stands out with 55.1% of the total, followed closely by Facebook with 32.1%. Much further behind is with Instagram with 10.4% and finally YouTube with 2.4% (figure 2).

Figure 2. Average number of publications per social network



4.2. Engagement

Once the presence of Ibero-American countries in official social networks has been verified, it is of special interest to analyze what is the effectiveness of their use measured through the variable engagement.

To calculate the engagement of each profile of social networks of Ibero-American countries, the following formula has been used:

$$E = \frac{ni (nr + nc + nco)}{np}$$

E = Engagement.

ni = Number of interactions.

nr = Number of reactions.

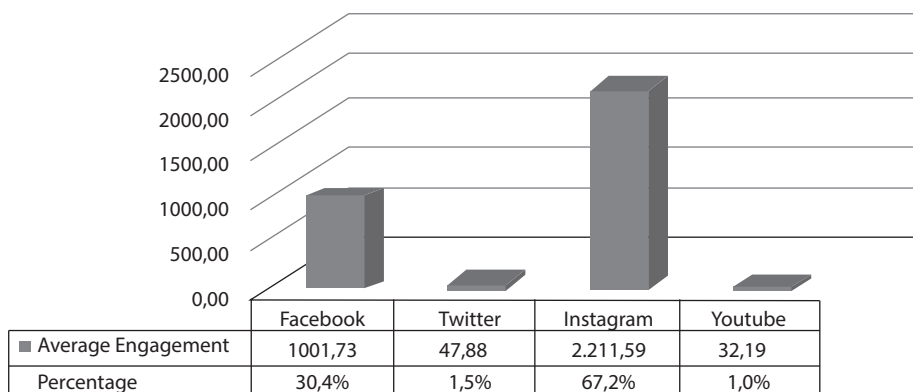
nc = Number of comments.

nco = Number of shares.

np = Number of publications

In figure 3 it can be verified that the two social networks with greater engagement with much difference with respect to the others are Instagram and Facebook. In this case Instagram stands out with 67.2% of the total and Facebook with 30.4%. It is considered, therefore, that users participate and interact much more with these two social networks. It's remarkable the case of Instagram that despite not having a great number of followers or publications is the social network it is where greater engagement is generated.

Figure 3. Average engagement by social network

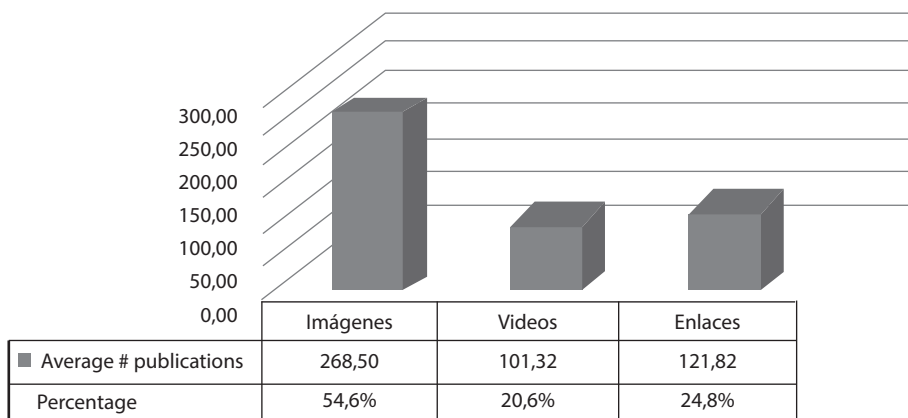


4.3. Type of publications

In this section we have analyzed the type of publications made by the different profiles of social networks. The average of the type of publications per social network carried out during the six months under study is verified.

Figure 4 shows the average of the publications on Facebook for each type of publication. The messages or post of images stand out, being 54.6% of the total, showing the tourist destinations is clearly a strategy. Next, at a greater distance, there are as many link messages as there are videos with 24.8% and 20.6% of the total, respectively.

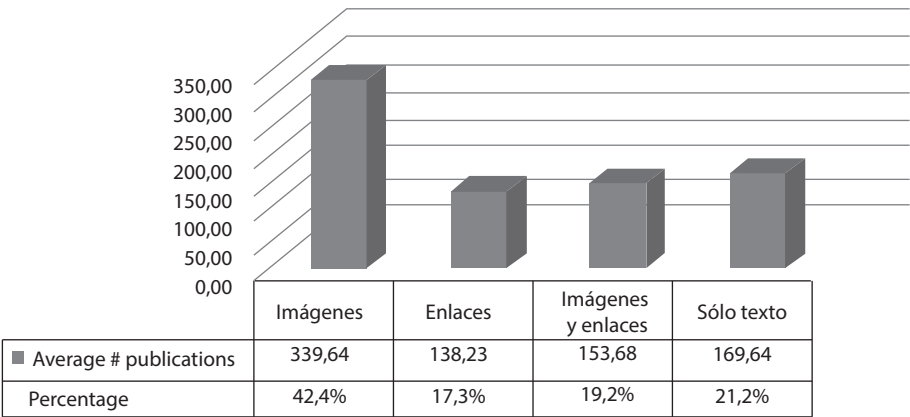
Figure 4. Average types of publications on Facebook



With regard to Twitter (figure 5), it is contrasted that most of the messages or tweets over the six months are referred to images with 42.4% of the total. The other

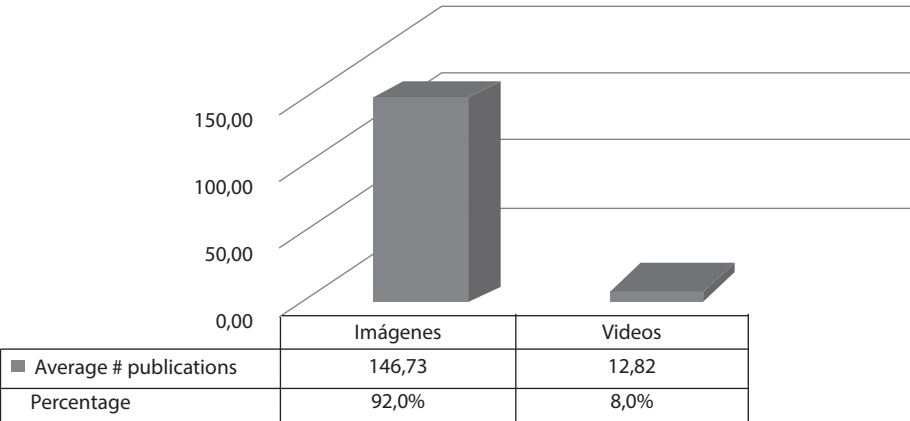
publications are very close, with text only 21.2%, images and links 19.2% and links 17.3% of the total. It can be verified in the case of Twitter that the content is more distributed than on Facebook, highlighting the importance of the images despite not being a social network conducive to them.

Figure 5. Media of types of publications on Twitter



The social network Instagram only allows the publication of content through images and videos. In this case it can be seen in Figure 6 that 92% of publications are images while 8% are videos (Figure 6).

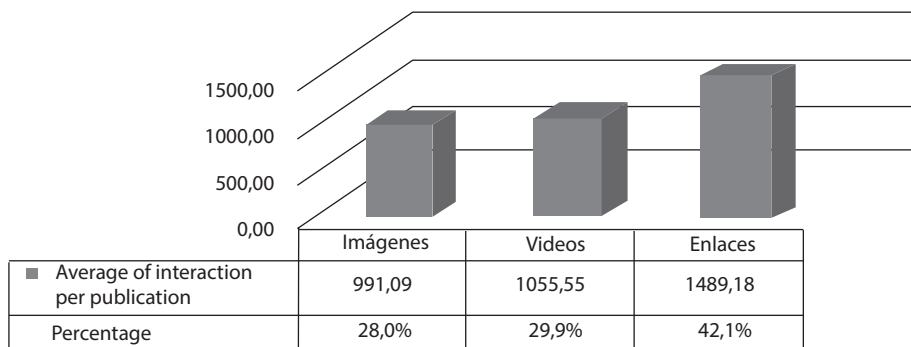
Figure 6. Average types of publications on Instagram



In addition, the interactions obtained by each type of publication are known on Facebook (figure 7). It can be verified that there is a great similarity in the interactions

produced in each type of publication, the links with 42.1% of the total stand out, and then the videos and images with 29.9% and 28% of the total respectively.

Figure 7. Average interaction of publications on Facebook



4.4. Comparative results between Ibero-American countries

In this section we will comment on the main results referring to the Ibero-American countries. In Facebook, in general, there is a large number of followers and a very good participation of users. Regarding the number of followers, the countries of Mexico, Portugal, Ecuador and Argentina stand out, ranking above one million followers. Regarding the number of publications, the countries of Bolivia, Chile and Honduras stand out with more than seven publications per day during the study period. Regarding the engagement or interactions for each publication, Costa Rica stands out above 9,000 interactions for each publication, followed by Mexico and the Dominican Republic with more than 2,500 interactions for each publication.

Twitter stands out as the social network with the highest number of publications in this study, however, it is below Facebook in followers and especially in engagement. Regarding the number of followers, Mexico stands out with more than one and a half million. It is followed by Venezuela and Ecuador with more than 300,000 followers. In publications, the countries of Portugal, Spain, Venezuela and Paraguay stand out with more than nine publications per day, also Nicaragua and Chile with more than four publications per day. Regarding the interactions, Mexico stands out with more than 400 publication interactions and Spain with 237, at a distance with more than 60 interactions per publication are Argentina, Costa Rica and Peru.

As it has been evidenced with meridian *clarity ut supra*, in Youtube the results of presence and engagement are quite inferior than those in the other social networks. However, there are some provinces that have had an active participation increasing more than one hundred videos in the study period such as Nicaragua, Uruguay and Venezuela. In the interactions, it stands out above the rest Ecuador with more than 300 interactions per uploaded video, followed at a considerable distance by Portugal and Mexico with more than 50.

5. Conclusions

In the study it has been possible to verify, in general, the great interest that the countries have in promoting themselves as a tourist destination through different social networks. All Ibero-American countries intervene in social networks to a greater or lesser extent.

Facebook stands out as the main social network for the promotion of tourist destinations in the countries under study, being the social network with the largest number of followers and the second social network in number of publications and engagement. Regarding Twitter and Instagram, it has been proven that each one can be used with different objectives. Twitter stands out for being the social network with the highest number of publications and the second one, quite a distance from Facebook, in number of followers. However, it has a very low level of engagement or interactions, therefore, it becomes a more informative network. The reverse happens with Instagram which, in spite of being quite below Facebook and Twitter with respect to the number of followers and publications, it is the social network where there is greater interaction in its publications, establishing itself as an ideal platform to generate commitment or engagement among users. Finally, although the activity and the engagement on YouTube is not high, there are several countries that have uploaded enough videos in the study period, making it possible to visually reveal their country as a tourist destination.

Regarding the types of publications that stand out, the content of images is the main aspect, being the most used in all analyzed social networks—except YouTube which only allows videos. However, in the analysis of the interaction for each type of publication, it is verified that there is much equality, there being no type of publication that stands out above the other. About videos it is worth mentioning that although the activity of them, on YouTube and other social networks is not the highest, they are highly appealing and get high interaction rates allowing to visually promote the tourist destinations. It is considered a type of interesting content to show the users.

Regarding the business considerations of the results for tourist destinations, it is recommended to establish a particular objective for each social network. An active and frequent intervention on Facebook and Instagram are essential, accompanied by a good strategy of content marketing since they are the social networks that generate most interaction, leaving Twitter as a channel of communication and information. A greater interest in publications of a visual nature is also recommended, since images and videos usually generate the most interactions. This is also denoted in the increase of importance that the Instagram social network is having. In this same sense, although Youtube is a channel with little interaction, it has of a good number of video reproductions that can make the tourist destination better known, so it is recommended to create new content over time for this platform.

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Sección Miscelánea



Are concentrated companies more profitable? The case of the tanning sector of skins in Ecuador

¿Son rentables las empresas concentradas? El caso del sector de curtido de pieles en el Ecuador

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Abstract

The present research identifies the market structure of the Tanning and Leather Sector in Ecuador ISIC: C151101 and aims to establish the relation between profitability, costs and market concentration. The Herfindhal-Hirshman index used for cases of imperfect market structure has been calculated; and on the other hand, the solvency, liquidity and profitability to evaluate the financial performance of the concentrated companies. Additionally, four econometric models have been designed to which statistical tests of adequacy have been applied. Simple and multiple linear regression analysis has been applied in several experiments through Ordinary Least Squares. Of the nine oligopoly companies, four companies have been identified that control 73,12% of the market, with a margin of return of 0,1391 average of the oligopoly for the period of study 2011-2015. One of the developed econometric models has made possible to show through Fisher's statistical test that market concentration and production costs have an effect on profitability with a p-value of 0,00035, meaning that there is a significant linear relation of the oligopoly with cost production and market concentration, demonstrating that this group of companies makes profits because of their ability to concentrate the market.

Resumen

El presente trabajo de investigación identifica la estructura de mercado del sector Curtido y Adobo de Pieles en el Ecuador CIIU: C151101 y tiene como objetivo establecer la relación entre rentabilidad, costos y concentración de mercado. Se calculó el índice de Herfindhal-Hirshman utilizado para casos de estructura de mercado imperfecta; y por otro lado, los índices de solvencia, liquidez, rentabilidad, para evaluar el desempeño financiero de las empresas concentradas. Además, se diseñaron cuatro modelos econométricos a los cuales se aplicaron pruebas estadísticas de idoneidad de los estimadores. Se aplicó análisis de regresión lineal simple y múltiple en varias experimentaciones a través de Mínimos cuadrados Ordinarios. De las nueve empresas del oligopolio, se identificaron cuatro empresas concentradas que controlan el 73,12% del mercado, con un margen de rentabilidad del 0,1391 promedio del oligopolio para el período de estudio 2011-2015. De los modelos econométricos desarrollados uno permitió evidenciar a través de la prueba estadística de Fisher que la concentración de mercado y los costos de producción inciden en la rentabilidad con un p-value de 0,00035, es decir, existe una relación lineal significativa de la rentabilidad del oligopolio con los costos de producción y la concentración del mercado, demostrándose así que este grupo de empresas obtienen beneficios por efecto de su capacidad para concentrar el mercado.

Keywords | palabras clave

Economic concentration, skins, profitability, economic growth, market, profit.
Concentración económica, pieles, rentabilidad, crecimiento económico, mercado, beneficio.

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1. Introduction and state of the issue

In Ecuador, there are several sectors of economic activity which remain in constant business activity, this means the same behavior in consumers, producers and intermediaries and, finally, in the State. As the sectors where supply and demand emerge consecutively, the presence of competitive tactics that benefit both consumers and producers is evident; which results in the existence of high concentration levels of some companies in each sector. This business behavior depends on several aspects, which start from the type of sector, its importance within the national economy, the degree of social involvement that companies have as a response to their degree of social responsibility. According to INEC figures for 2015, one of the most representative sectors is wholesale and retail trade, represented by 46.75%, followed by the Manufacturing Industries sector with a participation of 16.39%. Due to the above, an economic sector that contributes greatly to employment in Ecuador is the wholesale and retail trade, contributing 26.15% to employment sources nationwide, followed by the manufacturing sector that reports 19.50%, including the business activity of Tanning and Dressing of hides in Ecuador (Lema, 2017).

This sector was developed 70 years ago in Ecuador, in an artisanal manner and as the years passed. It began to be industrialized as a result of the urban projection that grew in the last decades; as of 2013 and 2014, the sales of the tanned and dressed leather sector had a significant growth in relation to 2011, where there was a growth of 24.82% and 17.86%, and then in the subsequent years 2015 and 2016 denote a decrease in the sector (Lema, 2017). It is necessary to differentiate that within the Leather Manufacturing Sector in Ecuador there are two subsectors of economic activity; the first of tanning and dressing of leather, manufacture of suitcases, handbags, saddlery and the last shoe manufacturing, being this the most representative in sales at national level contributing with 86.74% of the sector according to figures for the year 2015. As said above, the first subsector represents 10.09%. In fact, although the leather tanning and dressing sector is not very representative in terms of productivity or contribution to employment, it is nevertheless necessary to know the degree of impact on the consumer in the event that the sector is concentrated (Lema, 2017).

In this context, the objective of this paper is to determine whether the concentration levels have a response effect on the profitability levels of the companies, if this is the case, the dominant companies would maintain a state of conformity which in the long term limits, notably, innovation as a consequence of the incipient business interaction, fostering business wealth and generating a setback in terms of equity and economic growth of the sector. All this is identified through the financial indicators applied to companies. In the same way the financial performance of the Colombian companies in the leather goods and leather sector is analyzed in the investigation of Cardona Olaya, Martínez Carvajal, Velásquez Restrepo, & López Fernández (2015), the present study carries with it a descriptive application of the documentary information, which deals with fourteen indicators of profitability, leverage, asset management, value generation, and liquidity by economic activity by year. With respect to the acid test indicator, this considers the accounts of the current assets except the inventory to divide it with the current liabilities, as it is a more effective measure when the inventory does not have an immediate capacity to become cash. In this study differences in the financial performance of the four economic activities that make up the sector were

detected. The research by Castaño Ríos et al. (2016) applies financial performance indicators (ROE-ROI) to the cement, lime and gypsum companies of the department of Antioquia and their contribution to manufacturing GDP during the periods 2008-2013. Using a quantitative-descriptive analysis, a direct relationship between the three variables (ROE-ROI and GDP) was found, which allows to investigate whether the most profitable companies contribute to GDP. The use of financial variables in the application of correlation studies is broad and allows to evaluate financially sectors in various economic activities where large, small and medium-sized companies arise and where the power of management is a factor of success for the companies; the immediate effect is represented in sales, which leads to companies with a high market share, which subsequently contributes subject to qualifying them as concentrated markets.

The presence of concentrated markets is an event present all over the world, which means a constant struggle between control entities and companies whose market conditions promise to be the most favorable for large business groups and the most harmful to citizens in general. Thus, the conditions of concentration differ according to the reality and the laws of each country. However, the same objective is sought, to try to protect the most vulnerable sectors of the population to suffer the negative effects of the exercise of market power that, in some cases, are harmful and disloyal. The studies that will be detailed below structure an inferential and descriptive analysis addressing concentrated sectors of the economy at a global and regional level, to which an econometric methodology is applied that allows to identify the effects and causes that lead to the concentration of the market.

A market that has a limited number of active companies is known as imperfect competition, which is presented as a monopoly, oligopoly or monopsony. Oligopoly is one of the most common imperfect competition market forms and Jaén et al. (2013) characterize it as an intermediate situation between perfect competition and monopoly in which market power is not necessarily exercised. This is because the demand of a company is related to that of the competition; that is, it is not as independent of its environment as the demand for a monopoly. In this way, in an environment of perfect competition, companies can apply control strategies, an aspect that properly arises from the structure of their market.

Companies apply strategies to acquire control over the sector in which they operate, which can be based on the price or not. Within price-based strategies, as Jaén (2013) states, price discrimination is found in the first, second and third grades, while non-price-based strategies can be classified as batch sales, joint or basket of goods and linked sales. The privilege of having few competitors in the market allows the adoption of certain domain strategies; however, this privilege is limited by several factors. A prime case is that of the presence of entry barriers, the understanding of which is inherent to the exercise of market power, and the conception of oligopoly or monopoly would be empty without considering this factor.

The introduction of barriers to entry by the owners can be based on the extensive knowledge that companies have of suppliers and, sometimes, of certain advantages that these companies can offer them. This does not necessarily mean an illegal action. Nevertheless, it is a strategy of implantation of barriers to the entrance of possible competitors.

On the other hand, the oligopolistic market structure determines that there are several factors that competitors handle as a market penetration strategy that directly influence the consumer and formalize their market share. Historically, the structure of the market in the sector has been concentrated, with multinational companies that have always controlled the market and, being banana production and marketing one of the most important economic sectors on the Colombian Caribbean coast, it is very important to describe the behavior of the companies and consumers that control the market. For that purpose, we use the Herfindahl-Hirschman index, together with a model of the behavior of the strategies carried out by the marketers following game theory and a multiple linear regression model of the price to the producer according to the level of concentration of the sector and the cyclical behavior of banana prices. Following this, the social effects of market concentration are monitored, so that it can be determined if the existing market structure generates positive or negative effects on the population. It showed that the market for banana trade is concentrated and that there is an inverse relationship between producer prices and market concentration expressed through the Herfindahl-Hirschman concentration index. The social losses generated by the concentration and market power exercised by the banana traders are considerable.

Continuing with the possibility of exercising market power through the formation of prices, in the context of the world production of palm oil *et al.* (2013) seek to study the market structure of the world production of palm oil and the analysis of the influence of this variable on the price level of the product, a causal characteristics study is made by means of a correlation analysis between the levels of market concentration of the sector and the prices of palm oil established within its market. In order to carry out this study, a correlation statistical analysis is carried out together with the description of the Herfindahl-Hirschman Index (IHH), the Domination index (ID), the concentration rate (CR) and the palm oil price in the international market. A considerable relationship was found between the international prices of the product and the degree of market concentration. However, the presence of abuse of market power was not observed, which assumes that a concentrated structure does not necessarily imply exercising power over it as a monopoly or oligopoly. This is due to the ease of entering the sector, which led to a change in the leadership of the market, since it went from being dominated by a single producer to being led by two producers.

2. Materials and methods

For the realization of this research work, first, we proceeded to identify the sector and companies that develop tannery activities. This activity is identified by the Internal Revenue Service (SRI) under the ISIC code: C142001 according to the National Classification of Economic Activities according to the National Institute of Statistics and Censuses (2012), however, according to the database of the Superintendency of Companies of Ecuador, the companies that carry out tannery activities are identified under the ISIC code: C151101, due to this, the companies were identified according to the criteria of the Superintendence of Companies. and for its contrast with the total sales of the sector, the criterion of the SRI was considered, and it was approved based on the description of both. The companies that develop activities and are active in the sector to the year 2017, are Curtiduría Tungurahua S.A., Curtiembre Renaciente S.A.,

Servicueros S.A., Tenería San José Cía. Ltda., Tenería Díaz Cía Ltda., Cabaro Cia. Ltda., Curtigual S.A., Promepell S.A. and Proinpiel S.A.

For the analysis of the total sales of the sector, the study was based on the statistics provided by the SRI derived from the declaration form to the Value Added Tax (VAT) of companies and individuals, since it provides information regarding sales taxed with VAT, which represent the totality of commercial transactions that companies carry out in Ecuador.

For the descriptive analysis we used the data of Income, Sales, Production Costs, Fixed Assets and Long-term Liabilities during the period 2011-2015 of the four companies with the highest sales volume in the sector (Curtiduría Tungurahua, Servicueros, SA, Curtiembre Renaciente SA and Tenería San José Cía. Ltda.). In addition, solvency, liquidity and profitability indicators are presented, for which the equity account was adopted as an indicator of solvency, current liquidity as an indicator of liquidity and the gross margin of profitability as an index of profitability. The use of the financial ratios that includes the methods of calculation and interpretation, allow the financial manager to conduct the analysis of the performance, solvency and liquidity of the companies in the continuous exercise of the manufacturing activity in any sector. On the other hand, it is necessary to consider that the correct management of cash management allows to determine if the analyzed companies have sufficient short-term available resources to comply with their obligations. The short-term creditors of the company believe that the higher the ratio of the currency is much better for creditors as suppliers because it can show a high liquidity. Likewise, solvency ratios involve measuring the capacity of companies to satisfy their long-term obligations. For the preparation of these financial indicators, it was necessary to identify the accounts of the current Assets and Liabilities, the total Assets and Liabilities and the estate account, so that the aforementioned relationships can be carried out; Chart 1 shows a summary of the indicators to be analyzed and their corresponding calculation.

Chart 1. Indicators

Índice	Fórmula
Endeudamiento patrimonial	$= \frac{\text{Pasivo no corriente}}{\text{Patrimonio}} \quad (1)$
Liquidez corriente	$= \frac{\text{Activo corriente}}{\text{Pasivo corriente}} \quad (2)$
Margen bruto	$= \frac{\text{Ventas} - \text{Costo de ventas}}{\text{Ventas}} \quad (3)$
Índice de Hirschman-Herfindahl	$= \sum (\text{Cuota de mercado})^2 \times 10.000$

Source: Tanaka (2005); Caballero (2014), Aching (2006), Parkin & Loría (2010).

The main research hypothesis is that market concentration is related to the performance of companies in the tanned leather manufacturing sector in Ecuador. Consequently,

the aim is to identify the degree of market concentration that the sector presents and to contrast the fact that the Herfindahl-Hirschman concentration index statistically affects the profitability of the companies and vice versa. This will allow knowing if there is concentration in the market and if the companies exercise power over it in order to explain the behavior adopted by the companies engaged in the competitive context.

With respect to the econometric analysis, two simple linear regression models and three multiple linear regression models were structured, from which four interaction variables will be identified: the profitability that is expressed through the gross margin of profitability, the market concentration represented by the Herfindahl-Hirschman concentration index, economic growth as a variation rate of GDP and production costs of the four most representative companies in the sector.

The first model was structured by profitability (Gross margin) based on market concentration (Herfindahl-Hirschman index) as established by Duarte (2014) when presenting a simple linear regression model representing profitability or gross profit as dependent variable and prices per unit produced as an independent variable. In this case, unlike that established by Duarte (2014) in the first model, the market concentration is taken as an independent variable, with the objective of determining the incidence and degree of explanation of the profitability of the four most representative companies of the sector, depending on its degree of concentration, which basically seeks the same objective as Duarte (2014).

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + u \quad (4)$$

Where:

Y = Rentabilidad (Margen bruto).

X_1 = Concentración de mercado (Índice de Herfindahl – Hirschman).

u = Error de perturbación.

β_0 y β_1 = Estimadores.

The second model explains the market concentration, that is, the Herfindahl-Hirschman index in terms of profitability or gross margin, in other words, model number 2 is the inverse version of the previous linear regression model. This with the objective of analyzing the degree of explanation of market concentration based on the profitability that leading companies in the sector can obtain.

$$X_1 = \beta_0 + \beta_1 Y + u \quad (5)$$

Where:

X_1 = Concentración de mercado (Índice de Herfindahl – Hirschman).

Y = Rentabilidad (Margen bruto).

u = Error de perturbación.

β_0 y β_1 = Estimadores.

Model number 3 was designed by the rates of variation of the gross margin of profitability based on the variation rate of the Herfindahl-Hirschman Concentration Index and the economic growth expressed through the growth rate of the GDP of Ecuador. This multiple linear regression model aims to analyze the incidence and degree of explanation of the profitability margins of the main companies in the leather tanning and dressing sector in Ecuador, based on the concentration of the market and the behavior of the economy in its context. It should be noted that the Duarte (2014) criterion of establishing profitability as a dependent variable is again adopted, except that the interaction of the GDP growth rate was incorporated for this model.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + u \quad (6)$$

Where:

Y = Tasa de variación de la rentabilidad (Margen bruto).

X_1 = Tasa de variación del índice de Herfindahl – Hirschman.

X_2 = Tasa de crecimiento del PIB.

u = Error de perturbación.

β_0 y β_1 = Estimadores.

Model number 4 was structured with the gross profit margin as the dependent variable and the Herfindahl-Hirschman index, the variation rate of GDP and production costs as independent variables. In this model, it was incorporated into the variable of production costs adopting the criterion of Duarte (2014) that does not necessarily treat this variable as part of an econometric model but take it into account for its descriptive analysis. It was decided to integrate this variable within the model, in order to better identify the effects of concentration and economic growth on the levels of profitability within the sector studied since the gross margin of profitability depends directly on costs of production.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_2 X_2 + \beta X_3 + u \quad (7)$$

Where:

Y = Rentabilidad (Margen bruto).

X_1 = Concentración de mercado (Índice de Herfindahl – Hirschman).

X_2 = Tasa de crecimiento del PIB.

X_3 = Costos de producción.

u = Error de perturbación.

$\beta_0, \beta_1, \beta_2$ y β_3 = Estimadores.

Model number 5 results directly from model number 4, since the collinearity test was applied through the Variation Inflation Factor (VIF), which identified that the variable GDP growth rate presented collinearity. Therefore, this variable was dismissed for the development of the econometric model.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \beta_1 X_1 + \beta_3 X_3 + u \quad (8)$$

Where:

Y = Rentabilidad (Margen bruto).

X_1 = Concentración de mercado (Índice de Herfindahl – Hirschman).

X_3 = Costos de producción.

u = Error de perturbación.

β_0, β_1 y β_3 = Estimadores.

Statistical tests were applied to each of the models to determine the suitability of the estimators for the prediction and hypothesis testing through the proposed models such as: the non-linearity test, the Ramsey RESET specification test, of White Heteroscedasticity, the Durbin Watson and Breusch-Godfrey Autocorrelation test, the Collinearity of the Variable Inflation Factor test (VIF) and the normality of the Jarque-Bera residuals. Due to the size of the sample and the number of returnees, it was not possible to perform certain statistical tests on some of the proposed models, such as the Durbin Watson and Breusch-Godfrey autocorrelation test, Ramsey RESET test and the White Heteroscedasticity test.

3. Analysis and results

In the present investigation, an analysis of the market structure of the CIU: 111501 tanned and dressed leather sector in Ecuador is sought. The sales of each of the companies, the market share and their respective concentration index are described, with which the behavior of the leading companies in the sector can be observed.

Chart 2. Sales of the four concentrated companies
in the leather tanning and dressing sector

Sales						
Business	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Average
A	7 157 900,52	9 400 968,82	12 468 131,30	13 827 271,30	12 433 762,50	11 057 606,89
B	2 926 582,98	3 159 810,39	3 681 256,50	5 271 600,06	5 555 130,41	4 118 876,07
C	1 898 848,00	3 116 853,76	4 205 653,05	3 245 023,03	2 658 223,37	3 024 920,24
D	2 870 574,70	2 826 163,04	4 205 653,05	3 948 487,60	2 653 702,29	3 300 916,14
Total:	14 853 906,20	18 503 796,01	24 560 693,90	26 292 381,99	23 300 818,57	21 502 319,33

Source: Own elaboration based on the data provided by the Superintendence of Companies and SRI.

Sales per company of the oligopoly on average represent 73.42% of total sales made by the entire sector from 2011 to 2015, placing company A, as the company with the highest sales in the market reaching an average of sales of 11 057 606.89 during the period analyzed. Second, there is company B with average sales of 4 118 876.07, while in third and fourth place are D and C with average sales of 3 300 916.14 and 3 024 920.24 respectively.

Chart 3. Sales, Market Share and Sector Concentration Index

Business	Sales 2015	Market share 2015	Hirschman-Herfindahl Index 2015
A	12 433 762,50	39,02%	1522,27
B	5 555 130,41	17,43%	303,86
C	2 658 223,37	8,34%	69,58
D	2. 653 702,29	8,33%	69,34
E	1 718 142,73	5,39%	29,07
F	875 208,52	2,75%	7,54
G	366 862,50	1,15%	1,33
H	280 767,04	0,88%	0,78
I	124 085,87	0,39%	0,15
Other businesses	5 202 307,02	16,32%	266,49

Source: Own elaboration based on data provided by the Superintendency of Companies of Ecuador

As can be seen in Chart 3, the company that leads the market represents 39.02% of the sales of the leather tanning and dressing sector. The second place, representing 17.43% of total sales in the market, followed by 8.34% and 8.33% in the third and fourth place market share respectively. In the sector there are 11 active companies registered as companies (2 of which do not record sales in their financial statements during 2015), while the companies established as natural persons represent 16.32%.

Chart 4. Solvency by company

Solvency-Indebtedness						
Business	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Average
A	2,76	2,33	2,47	2,52	1,57	2,33
B	1,63	1,61	0,85	1,09	1,65	1,37
C	1,11	2,1	2,38	2,49	3,25	2,27
D	3,64	1,74	2,38	1,48	1,6	2,17

Source: Own elaboration based on data provided by the Superintendency of Companies of Ecuador

The most solvent company of the oligopoly is undoubtedly the company B that on average on the analyzed period registered a patrimonial indebtedness of 1.37, which, although it is not an optimal solvency value, is the lowest observed in the whole oligopoly. The second most solvent company is D, which, although it presented a high level of equity indebtedness during 2011, experienced a marked decrease during subsequent years. On the other hand, companies A and C have the highest average insolvency rates of the period, which shows a high level of financing potentially used to expand in the market, since these two companies have the highest installed capacity of the entire oligopoly.

Chart 5. Current liquidity by company

Liquidity-Current liquidity						
Business	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Average
A	1,52	1,91	1,2	1,22	1,67	1,504
B	2,07	2,35	1,9	1,91	2,58	2,162
C	1,93	1,18	1,63	1,17	1,18	1,418
D	1,25	0,99	1,63	1,33	2,14	1,468

Source: Own elaboration based on data provided by the Superintendency of Companies of Ecuador

The company with the highest liquidity in the sector is company B, since on average it recorded a current liquidity value of 2.16 during the analyzed period, which is above the optimum limit. During the years 2013 and 2014, company B presented a reduction in its liquidity margins, which is attributable to the expansion strategy. Finally, there are the companies C and D which presented, on average, during the whole analyzed period the lowest current liquidity indexes, these being 1.42 and 1.47 respectively, while company A remained within the optimal limits of liquidity.

Chart 6. Profitability, gross margin by company

Profitability-Gross margin						
Business	2011	2012	2013	2014	2015	Average
A	0,09	0,16	0,17	0,12	0,14	0,14
B	0,17	0,18	0,16	0,13	0,1	0,15
C	0,31	0,31	0,28	0,33	0,27	0,30
D	0,17	0,13	0,27	0,15	0,06	0,16

Source: Own elaboration based on data provided by the Superintendency of Companies of Ecuador

The most profitable company of the oligopoly is company C, registering a value of the average gross profit margin of the period of 0.30. The margins of profitability of the company maintained a stable behavior without clear ascending or decreasing trends, except for the year 2014, in which the highest level of profitability of the company was recorded, this being 0.33. On the other hand, the company with the lowest gross margin of profitability is company A, recording an average gross margin of 0.14

throughout the period analyzed. The company maintained a decreasing trend in its profitability, especially since 2013, which resulted in a significant decline in profitability for 2014 and a slight recovery for 2015.

Chart 7. Sales, production costs, profitability and market concentration of the companies concentrated in the sector

Years	Sales of concentrated companies	Production costs of the concentrated companies	Profitability (Gross margin) of the concentrated companies	Market concentration
2011	14 853 906,20	13 246 396,87	0,1082	1 423,10
2012	12 560 779,21	10 451 712,84	0,1679	1 893,34
2013	16 149 387,80	13 461 679,91	0,1664	2 186,64
2014	19 098 871,36	16 725 817,56	0,1243	2 061,77
2015	17 988 892,91	15 673 051,95	0,1287	2 010,68

Source: Superintendence of Companies

Chart 8. Sales variation rates, production costs, profitability and market concentration of the sector

Indicators	Sales Variation rate of the main companies	Production costs Variation rate of the main companies	Profitability Variation rate of the main companies (Gross margin)	Market concentration Variation rate
2012	-15,44%	-21,10%	55,15%	33,04%
2013	28,57%	28,80%	-0,88%	15,49%
2014	18,26%	24,25%	-25,34%	-5,71%
2015	-5,81%	-6,29%	3,61%	-2,48%

Source: Own elaboration based on data provided by the Superintendency of Companies of Ecuador

The production costs of the oligopoly presented in Table No. 5 show a harmonious behavior with sales that is not the result of a variation in prices. For 2014, there was a significant reduction in the gross margin of profitability and a slight recovery experienced during 2015, which could be attributed to the slowdown in the Ecuadorian economy in the three previous years.

The market concentration expressed through the Herfindahl-Hirschman index experienced a marked growth during the years 2011, 2012 and 2013, that is to say that the oligopoly studied maintained an expansive process of market capture resulting in an increase in the participation quota in the sector, so that later during the years 2014 and 2015 the concentration of the oligopoly would decrease. During the course of the year 2011 to the year 2013, the Herfindahl-Hirschman concentration index grew by an

average of 18.83%, while from 2013 to 2015 the indicator decreased by an average of 4.11%, which is appreciable the expansion of the oligopoly with respect to the year 2011.

Next, we present the econometric model that explains the profitability of the oligopoly with the variables concentration and production costs. The chosen model is the result of 4 experimentations, based on the models included in the methodology section. The variable GDP growth rate was rejected due to the fact that it presented collinearity registering a value higher than 10 through the Variable Inflation Factor test (VIF), this being 14,943.

Chart 9. Profitability based on market concentration and production costs

Variable	Coefficient	Standard error	Statistic t	Probability value
Constant	1,1964E-01	8,6279E-03	13,87	0,0052
Market concentration (IHH)	7,7137E-05	4,0101E-06	19,24	0,0027
Production costs	-9,22E-09	4,85808E-10	-18,98	0,0028
Corrected determination coefficient:	0,9929			
Fisher statistic:	280,65	p Value:	0,0036	
Non-linearity test				
Null hypothesis: The relationship is linear	Valor p:	0,0821		
Normality test of the waste of Jarque Bera				
Null hypothesis: the error is normally distributed	P Value:	0,7832		

Source: Own elaboration based on the statistical data described in Table 7

As can be seen in Chart 7, the market concentration affects the profitability of the oligopoly, since a p-statistically significant value with a value of 0.0027 was evidenced. Likewise, it was determined that the production costs also affect the profitability of the oligopoly, since it observed a p-value of the statistically significant estimator, of 0.0028. In addition, a coefficient of determination of 0.9929 was registered, which implies that market concentration and production costs explain 99.29% of the profitability of the oligopoly.

Through the non-linearity test, it was determined that the variables of the model are linearly related, since a p-value of the non-significant statistic with a value of 0.081 was observed. Likewise, it was evident that the residuals of the model are normally distributed, since a value of the Jarque-Bera statistic of 0.7832 was observed, which determines that the estimators are reliable, biased and efficient.

4. Discussion and conclusions

The presence of market concentration is usually related to the power to impose prices above what would be fair at the expense of consumer welfare; however, this may not always happen. An evident case of the presence of concentration and the exercise of

market power is evidenced by Duarte (2014), by recording a relationship between profitability and concentration level. In contrast, Navarro, Ocampo & Saumeth (2013) also recorded incidence of market concentration on profitability within the palm oil manufacturing sector; however, the research ruled out any possibility of exercising market power due to the lack of barriers to entry. The present study shows similar findings to what was observed by Duarte (2014) when a relation between the profitability and the concentration index of Herfindahl-Hirschman is evidenced and the presence of exercising market power is considered.

Business performance is linked to the cyclicity of the economy as a whole. However, the sectors of economic activity that maintain barriers to entry are reluctant to be affected by recessive processes. The research observed the inexistence of a relationship between the growth rate of GDP and the profitability of tanneries. This independence between variables is related to the existence of entry barriers, because a sector of difficult access tends to better resist the decrease of productive activity. Castaño et al. (2016), on the other hand, evidenced a strong relationship between the profitability of the cement companies and the GDP of the department of Antioquia; that is to say, a cyclical behavior of the sector was evidenced. In general, the cement manufacturing market has important competitors in the international market, which implies the presence of weak entry barriers.

Four companies were identified as having the highest market share in the leather tanning and dressing sector in Ecuador. The concentrated companies studied in the present investigation control 73.12% of the market share, presenting a Herfindahl-Hirschman index of 2,010.68 for the year 2015.

During the studied period, the four companies with the highest market concentration in the leather tanning and dressing sector on average registered a gross profit margin of 0.1391, that is, for every dollar sold there is a 14% return. These four companies evidenced an increase in their profitability levels in the same period, except for the year 2014.

The market concentration expressed through the Herfindahl-Hirschman Index registered a statistically significant p-value of 0.0027 in conjunction with the variable production costs. The econometric model shows that the part of profitability that is not explained by production costs is importantly explained by the levels of market concentration. That is to say, this group of companies obtain benefits due to their ability to concentrate the market. We accept the hypothesis that the imperfect market structure affects the profitability levels of the leading companies in the leather tanning and dressing sector and that the production costs affect the profitability levels of the oligopoly.

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Normas editoriales

Basic writing rules

Universidad Politécnica Salesiana del Ecuador

1. General information

“Retos” is a bilingual scientific publication by the Universidad Politécnica Salesiana de Ecuador, which has been edited on a bi-annual basis since January 2011. The journal focuses on Development and transdisciplinary issues including Public Administration, Social Economics, Marketing, Tourism, Entrepreneurship, Management, Administrative and Economic Science, etc.

It is an arbitrated Scientific Journal that uses an external evaluation system known as *peer-review*, employing *double-blind review*, in accordance with the American Psychological Association (APA) style rules. By using this system, the authors have access to an objective, impartial and transparent review process, which facilitates their publication being included in databases, repositories, and international indexed references.

“Retos” is indexed in the selective directory and catalog of the Online Regional Information System for Scientific Journals in Latin America, the Caribbean, Spain, and Portugal (Latindex), in the REDALYC Scientific Information System, the Directory of Open Access Journals in repositories, libraries, and specialized catalogs in Ibero-America.

The Journal is published with two different editions: printed (ISSN: 1390-62911) and electronic (e-ISSN: 1390-8618), in Spanish and English, and each article is identified with a DOI (Digital Object Identifier System).

2. Scope and policies

2.1. Themes

Original contributions in Development issues, as well as related fields: Public Administration, Social Economics, Marketing, Tourism, Entrepreneurship, Management...and all other disciplines related to the central thematic issue.

2.2. Contributions

“Retos” preferably publishes the results of empirical research about Development, written in Spanish and/or English, while reports, studies, and proposals are also accepted, as well as reviews of state-of-the-art literature.

All of the publications must be original, never have been published in any other journal, and not be undergoing any arbitration or publication processes. Contributions to the journal can include any of the following:

- **Research:** 5,000 to 6,500 words of text, including the title, abstracts, keywords, tables, and references.
- **Reports, Studies, and Proposals:** 5,000 to 6,500 words of text, including the title, abstracts, tables, and references.
- **Reviews:** 6,000 to 7,000 words of text, including tables and references. Justified, current, and selective references shall be evaluated, and should include around 70 publications.

“Retos” is published bi-annually (20 articles per year), in April and October, and each edition has two sections with five articles each, the first containing a **Monograph** theme edited by subject matter experts, and a second **Miscellaneous** section, made up of diverse contributions related to the publication’s theme.

3. Presentation, structure, and submission of manuscripts

Papers are to be presented with Arial 10 typeface, single line spacing, all justified, without indentation or blank spaces between paragraphs. A space is only to be included between the major sections (title, authors, abstracts, keywords, credits, and epigraphs). All margins on each page must be 2 cm.

The papers are to be presented in Microsoft Word format (.doc or .docx), and the file is to be anonymous in the File Properties such that the author(s) is(are) not identified.

Manuscripts are to be submitted only through the OJS (Open Journal System), in which all authors must first register. Original papers sent via email or another interface are not accepted.

3.1. Manuscript Structure

For papers that are empirical research, the manuscripts are to follow IMRDC structure, while Notes and Contributions epigraphs are optional. Papers that constitute reports, studies, proposals, and reviews are afforded greater flexibility in terms of epigraphs, especially in relation to Materials and Methods, Analysis and Results, and Discussion and Conclusions. All types of papers are required to include References.

- 1) **Title (Spanish) / Title (English):** Concise but informative, the first line in Spanish and the second, in English. Maximum 80 characters are accepted, including spaces. The Editorial Board is allowed to propose changes to the author’s title.
- 2) **First and last names:** of each of the authors, organized in order of priority. Maximum three authors are accepted per original paper; although justified exceptions may be allowed, based on the theme, complexity, and length. The names are to be followed by the professional category, workplace, each author’s email address and ORCID number. It is mandatory to include whether the author has a doctorate degree (Dr. before the name).
- 3) **Abstract (Resumen, Spanish) / Abstract (English):** This section can contain a maximum of 230 words, first in Spanish and then in English. The abstract shall concisely contain the following, and in this order: 1) Justification of the theme; 2) Objectives; 3) Methods and sample; 4) Main results; 5) Main conclusions. It

should be written impersonally “This paper analyzes...” In the abstract, automatic translation is not accepted due to its poor quality.

- 4) **Keywords (descriptores, Spanish) / Keywords (English):** Six keywords are to be included for each language, and must be directly related to the paper’s theme. This requirement shall be scored based on whether the keywords can be found in the UNESCO Thesaurus.
- 5) **Introduction and State of the Question:** The section proposes the question, the context of the issue surrounding it, justification, basis, and proposal for the study, using bibliographic references, including the most important up-to-date literature on the theme, both nationally and internationally.
- 6) **Material and Methods:** This is to be composed in such a way that the reader can easily understand how the research was performed. As appropriate, describe the method, sample, sampling, and refer to the type of statistical analysis used. If it is an original method, present the reasons for applying it, and describe any possible limitations.
- 7) **Analysis and Results:** This section should seek to highlight the most important observations, and without including any value judgments, describe the methods used. Throughout the text, essential tables and figures shall be included in a logical sequence, without repeating any data.
- 8) **Discussion and Conclusions:** This section summarizes the most important findings related to any observations from relevant studies, pointing out contributions and limitations, without repeating data from other sections. The discussion and conclusions paragraph is to include inferences and new lines of research for the future.
- 9) **Contributions and acknowledgment (optional):** The Science Editors Board recommends that the author(s) specify the financing source for their research. Priority shall be given to work endorsed by competitive national or international projects. Regardless, for the manuscript to be scientifically evaluated, it is to be anonymized with an XXXX only for the initial evaluation, in order to avoid identification of any of the authors or research teams, which are to be named in the Cover Letter and later, in the final manuscript.
- 10) **Notes** (optional) are included, only if necessary, at the end of the article (before the references). They are to be included manually, since the Word footnotes are not recognized by the layout systems. Note numbers are to be included using superscript, both in the text and in the final note. Notes including simple bibliographic references (without comments) are not allowed, since these are supposed to be included in the references.
- 11) **References:** Bibliographic references are to follow the text references. Under no circumstances should references be included that have not been cited in the text. There should be enough references in order to contextualize the theoretical framework, and be based on criteria of contemporary relevance and importance. They are presented alphabetically, according to the author’s last name (if the last name has more than one word, based on the first word of the last name).

3.2. Rules for references

Periodical publications

Journal article (one author) Valdés-Pérez, D. (2016). Incidencia de las técnicas de gestión en la mejora de decisiones administrativas [Impact of Management Techniques on the Improvement of Administrative Decisions]. *Retos*, 12(6), 199-2013. <https://doi.org/10.17163/ret.n12.2016.05>

Journal article (up to six authors): Ospina, M.C., Alvarado, S.V., Fefferman, M., & Llanos, D. (2016). Introducción del dossier temático “Infancias y juventudes: violencias, conflictos, memorias y procesos de construcción de paz” [Introduction of the thematic dossier “Infancy and Youth: Violence, Conflicts, Memories and Peace Construction Processes”]. *Universitas*, 25(14), 91-95. <https://doi.org/10.17163/uni.n25.%25x>

Journal article (more than six authors): Smith, S.W., Smith, S.L. Pieper, K.M., Yoo, J.H., Ferrys, A.L., Downs, E.,... Bowden, B. (2006). Altruism on American Television: Examining the Amount of, and Context Surrounding. Acts of Helping and Sharing. *Journal of Communication*, 56(4), 707-727. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1460-2466.2006.00316.x>

Journal article (with no DOI). Rodríguez, A. (2007). Desde la promoción de salud mental hacia la promoción de salud: La concepción de lo comunitario en la implementación de proyectos sociales. *Alteridad*, 2(1), 28-40. (<https://goo.gl/zDb3Me>) (2017-01-29).

Books and chapters of books

Complete books: Cuéllar, J.C., & Moncada-Paredes, M.C. (2014). *El peso de la deuda externa ecuatoriana*. Quito: Abya-Yala.

Chapters of a book: Zambrano-Quiñones, D. (2015). *El ecoturismo comunitario en Manglaralto y Colonche*. En V.H. Torres (Ed.), *Alternativas de Vida: Trece experiencias de desarrollo endógeno en Ecuador* (pp. 175-198). Quito: Abya-Yala.

Electronic media

Pérez-Rodríguez, M.A., Ramírez, A., & García-Ruíz, R. (2015). La competencia mediática en educación infantil. Análisis del nivel de desarrollo en España. *Universitas Psychologica*, 14(2), 619-630. <https://doi.org.10.11144/Javeriana.upsy14-2.cmei>

All reference that have a DOI (Digital Object Identifier System) must be included in the References (which can be obtained at <http://goo.gl/gfruh1>). All of the journals and books that do not have a DOI are to appear with a link (to the online version, if available, shortened using Google Shortener: <http://goo.gl>) and the date of query in said format.

Journal articles are to be listed in English, except for those that are available in Spanish and English, in which case, both languages are to be included in brackets. All internet addresses presented are to be shortened in the manuscript, except for the DOI, which are to be included in the established format (<https://doi.org/XXX>).

3.3. *Epigraphs, Tables, and Graphs*

The epigraphs in the article's body are in Arabic numbers. These are to avoid all capital letters, underlining, or bold text. Numbering should use maximum three levels: 1. / 1.1. / 1.1.1. A carriage return is to be used at the end of each epigraph.

Tables are to be included in the text in Word format, according to their order of appearance, with Arabic numbering and captioned with a description of their content.

Graphics or figures should be kept to a minimum and incorporated into the text, in accordance with their order of appearance, with Arabic numbers and captions with a short description. Quality should be no less than 300 ppp, if necessary, using TIFF, PNG, or JPEG formats.

4. Submission process

The papers are to be submitted in two files through the journal's OJS system:

- 1) **Cover letter and title page**, which includes the title in Spanish and English, first and last names of the authors (standardized format) with ORCID number, abstract in Spanish and English, keywords in Spanish and English, and a declaration that the manuscript constitutes an original contribution that has not been sent for evaluation in another journal, confirmation of the authorship, acceptance (as the case may be) of formal changes to the manuscript according to the rules, and partial transfer of copyright to the publishing house (use the official format).
- 2) **Completely** anonymized manuscript in accordance with the preceding rules.

All authors are to register on the OJS platform, even if only one of them will be in charge of correspondence. No author can submit two manuscripts simultaneously, with a penalty of not being able to participate in four consecutive editions (2 years).

