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ARTICLE



Critical success factors for tourist destination governance in times of crisis: a case study of Antalya, Turkey

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ABSTRACT

The aim of this paper is to identify the critical success factors for the development of crisis management and strategy for the governance of the tourist destination of Antalya, Turkey. Data was obtained from *in situ* interviews, participant observation, and documentation. Interviews were conducted with the main tourism stakeholders representing both public and private sectors in Antalya. Findings show that the critical success factors of responsiveness, shared roles, strategy formation, and collaboration are vital for effective crisis management. The study also highlighted the fact that in the area of shared roles and collaboration, encompassing the characteristics of coordination, communication, cooperation, and knowledge transfer, stakeholders are proving ineffectual, thereby obstructing the development of necessary strategies for crisis management and the recovery process. Further, ineffective governance, adopted by local stakeholders, has had a substantial negative impact on the process of developing future effective crisis management strategies.

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critical success factors

Introduction

The tourism industry, in general terms, is a fragile and volatile sector, more affected than other economic areas by adverse incidents, whether man-made or natural (Sausmarez, 2007; Sönmez, Apostolopoulos, & Tarlow, 1999). The industry has recently faced a number of crises, which have had a detrimental impact on tourist destinations. As a result, more attention is now being paid to the consequences of such adverse events (Aschauer, 2010). In times of crisis and disaster, it is important to develop necessary management strategies. According to Beirman (2003, pp. 18–19), there are two significant stages in the marketing and management of any tourist destination after a crisis: (1) the consolidation management of the actual crisis; and (2) the implementation of a post-crisis recovery program. Tse (2006) distinguished four different types of disasters: those relating to nature, civil conflict, epidemics, and technology failure. Developing the necessary strategies to aid post-crisis recovery is seen as essential from the point of view of the tourist destination, in order to minimize or remove the detrimental impact of the crisis, which could deter tourists (Scott, Laws, & Prideaux, 2008).

According to Mair, Ritchie, and Walters (2016), effective crisis and disaster management consists of four

main stages: planning activities prior to the crisis or disaster, responding to a crisis or disaster as it occurs, and finding a post-crisis resolution. With this in mind, it is essential to develop deliberate strategies, which entails the involvement of all stakeholders (Byrd, Cárdenas, & Greenwood, 2008), as well as long-term strategic planning in order to ensure the sustainability of particular tourist destinations (Gustafsson, Larson, & Svensson, 2014). Thus, the tourism sector, in terms of its responsiveness, has gained considerable significance over the last decade due to the increased detrimental impact of adverse incidents (Hall, 2010). In this regard, the planning process of crisis and risk management has become the focal point of particular tourist destinations or organizations in order to mitigate the negative impact of such incidents.

This planning process is based on “the four Rs”: Reduction, Readiness, Response, and Recovery (Boniface & Cooper, 2009). In the existing academic literature, several different approaches to crisis management are used to respond to the adverse effects of such event (Beirman, 2003; Faulkner, 2001; Hystad & Keller, 2006; Mansfeld, 1999; Plog, 2006; Pforr & Hosie, 2008). In their research, Paraskevas and Altinay (2013) highlighted three main stages of crisis management in tourism. The first stage is a post-crisis response and concentrates on mitigating the negative impacts of

the disaster, while the second stage focuses on the recovery aspect of crisis management. The third stage emphasizes the pre-crisis phase, showing how both tourism stakeholders and hospitality organizations can learn lessons from the devastating results of former crises in order to be prepared for future ones. The last stage offers a holistic perspective, involving integrated strategies, models, and frameworks, which provides a comprehensive knowledge of previous crises and disaster management (Parakevas & Altinay, 2013).

This paper specifically aims to investigate the third and last stage, mentioned above, for two reasons: (1) to better understand how stakeholders in the Antalya tourist region are engaged in the pre-crisis stage of events, entailing the development of necessary strategies and long-term plans in order to diminish the repercussions of future adverse incidents; and (2) to explore to what extent the local actors harness the overall existing knowledge of crisis and disaster management. From this perspective, the study will investigate if stakeholders have learned lessons from crisis events experienced in the past.

With the above aims in mind, this paper seeks to examine whether there is a relationship between the type of governance being adopted at the destination level and effective crisis management, while identifying the critical success factors (CSFs) in effective destination governance for the development of necessary crisis management and strategy.

First, the relevant literature on governance at the destination level in crisis and disaster management is reviewed. The next section explores the methodology, data collection, and data analysis before evaluating the results. The following section presents the findings of the research, which are explained and discussed in detail. The final part concludes the study by providing recommendations and implications for future research studies.

Literature review

The concept of destination governance

The successful implementation of any tourist activity relies heavily on a well-formed stakeholders structure, which itself should be a core element within the system of tourist destinations. Generally speaking, the main tourism stakeholders consist of local authorities and a number of non-governmental organizations, governorships, municipalities, local administrative councils, and business and industrial organizations (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999). Their responsibilities involve taking the initiative and action, both in the creation and the

implementation of a common strategy by involving local people in the decision-making process (Byrd, 2007), along planned lines in accordance with a developed strategy (Graham, Amos, & Plumpre, 2003; Panyik, 2015; United Nations Conference on Environment & Development Rio de Janeiro, 1992).

Moreover, stakeholders, by using cooperation and involving the local community, including business and industrial organizations, by gathering information as well as establishing a consensus on tourist policies, are seen to be of major importance (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999) for the better achievement of sustainable tourism. This consensus should be an opportunity to reshape local policies, laws, and regulations regarding tourism, for the better achievement of common goals and desired objectives.

The approach of stakeholders within the tourism domain at destination level, which clearly differs from that of other industries, involves the participation of many elements, including tourists, industry, local community, government, interest groups, and educational institutions. All of the aforementioned, led by the approach taken by the main tourism stakeholders, characterize and shape tourism planning and policies of both the supply and demand sides of tourist destinations (Waligo, Clarke, & Hawkins, 2013). When discussing the issue of stakeholders, the concept of governance takes a central place in the debate, as both terms are closely linked to each other. This also refers to relationships between stakeholders themselves, and the degree to which they interact with each other (Baggio, Scott & Cooper, 2010).

In order to achieve particular results, and common goals and strategies, the main tourism stakeholders need to act together, representing both the public and private sectors, which will enable them to take collaborative initiatives (Hall, 2011a). The concept of governance is described as “the interactions among structures, processes and traditions that determine how power and responsibilities are exercised, how decisions are taken, and how citizens or other stakeholders have their say” (Graham et al., 2003, p. ii). From this it can be understood that there needs to be communication among stakeholders, who make up various groups of interest including both public and private actors at a local level. On the other hand, corporate governance and destination governance are theoretically intertwined (Pechlaner, Volgger, & Herntrei, 2012a), and the notion of governance is often discussed by various disciplines from different perspectives (Dredge & Tazim, 2013; Ruhanen, Scott, Ritchie, & Tkaczynski, 2010).

In essence, the concept of governance encapsulates the inclusiveness of actors from all areas of society,

both local and institutional, including both public and private sectors. Within the context of tourism, the concept of destination governance is described as “the rules and mechanism for developing policies and business strategies which could combine all the organizations and individuals” (Zhang & Zhu, 2014, p.125). From this perspective, the application of the concept of governance can be similarly applied at destination level since destination governance consists of several institutions including both public and private representatives (Beritelli, Bieger, & Laesser, 2007) who are included in the decision-making process (D’Angella, Carlo, & Sainaghi, 2010).

Such providers of, and contributors to, a tourist destination are identified under the term “stakeholder”, a concept which is described by Freeman (1984: 31) as “those groups without whose support the organization would cease to exist”. The term stakeholder addresses the groups or individuals who can potentially affect, or can be affected by, the collective implementation process and outcomes of organizational objectives (Freeman, Harrison, Wicks, Parmar, & De Colle, 2010, p. 31). More concretely, stakeholder theory is defined by Freeman (1984) as the redistribution of benefits and powers pertaining to the stakeholders that can be applied in the decision-making process. Using this approach, one can evaluate Freeman’s (1984) stance that each actor should possess competence and voice in order to be effective in the decision-making process (Sautter & Leisen, 1999; Stieb, 2009). When considering the competence and notion of voice, the concept of power becomes the central issue within the destination governance structure, where each actor is given authority, which, to a greater or lesser extent, by taking into account their position, may potentially lead to a conflict or disagreement between stakeholders since the concept of governance is closely linked to the issue of power (Hall, 2007).

The idea of stakeholder is split into two distinct groups: the “primary stakeholder” includes customers, management, co-workers, suppliers, shareholders, and the government; “secondary stakeholder” covers non-governmental organizations, academics, media, fair trade bodies, and environmental pressure groups. The dispersion of roles and the power of each actor become the focal point among stakeholders, and play a crucial role in determining policy and pursuing strategies at the destination level. The concept of primary stakeholder refers to actors who have direct control over essential means required by the organization, while the secondary stakeholder approach indicates those who have less of an impact (Pesqueux & Damak-Ayadi, 2005) on the effective implementation of sustainable strategies (Valente, Dredge, & Lohmann, 2015).

Donaldson and Preston (1995) have enlarged on the stakeholder theory by dividing it into the categories of descriptive, instrumental, normative, and managerial. The descriptive or empirical aspect describes characteristics or behavior that the organization possesses. The instrumental aspect addresses the degree of connections among stakeholders in the achievement of desired objectives, while the normative aspect represents the understanding of a function at corporate level (Byrd et al., 2008; Spitzbeck & Hansen, 2010).

Hall (2011a), in assessing the concept of governance, proposes four typologies, namely hierarchies, markets, networks, and communities, based on the relationship between state and societal autonomy. In this approach, hierarchies reflect the highest degree of state intervention, while market governance reflects the lowest. Networks and communities encapsulate different modes of public–private partnerships and community participation (Hultman & Hall, 2012). Further assessment of the idea of governance at destination level from a network perspective involves the participation of both public and private sectors, which is seen as essential for the development and management of community relations among actors who refer to links at societal norms (Farmaki, 2015; Timur & Getz, 2008), called by Hazenberg (2015) the act of collective decision-making.

Therefore, destination governance can be assessed within the context of the congruence between “social coordination” and “network management”, which generates integral parts of the governance structure for any particular tourist destination (Pechlaner et al., 2012a). Moreover, better knowledge, and the ownership and creation of knowledge, seem to be vital for the successful implementation of governance at the destination level (Laws, Agrusa, Scott, & Richins, 2011). In a similar manner, sharing information and knowledge among actors in the network at destination level is assumed to be of crucial importance and should also be given particular attention (Baggio & Cooper, 2010). Further, the destination management organizations (DMOs) also play a key role in achieving effective destination governance for tourist destinations (Volgger & Pechlaner, 2014). It is also claimed that community models of destination governance depend heavily on the high networking capability that actors need to have within the hierarchical structure.

Tourist destinations, which bring a number of elements together to a greater or lesser extent, should be evaluated in a broader perspective. Here arises the governance concept entailing public–private partnerships (Dredge, 2006; Yüksel, Bramwell, & Yüksel, 2005) and a collaborative approach among stakeholders,

which is itself a core element within any structure at destination level (Reed, 1997; Zeppel, 2012). For the better achievement of common goals and desired objectives, stakeholders should cooperate, bringing together their knowledge and competence in setting objectives, as well as fully taking part in decision-making processes (Graham et al., 2003; Song, Liu, & Chen, 2013; Valente et al., 2015; Wan & Bramwell, 2015). Further, stakeholder collaboration will ensure dialogue, interaction, and negotiation between contributors, providing necessary tourism policies and planning processes (Bramwell & Lane, 2000).

Beaumont and Dredge (2010, p. 10) identify the characteristics of good tourism governance at destination level, through which tourist destinations can reach desired objectives and common goals using an effective governance structure, as follows:

- positive cultures, effective communication, and engaged communities;
- transparency and accountability;
- vision and leadership;
- presence of diversity, equity, and inclusiveness of all actors;
- developing knowledge, learning, and sharing expertise;
- clear roles and responsibilities of actors and providing clear network operational structures and processes.

Lack of information or the emergence of collaboration problems among actors, creating an absence of stakeholder effectiveness, may lead to difficulties in terms of governance network at a destination level. In this respect, ineffective governance is likely to impact negatively on the achievement of common goals and on pursuing effective strategies (Laws et al., 2011).

The concept of destination governance has been further investigated from a diverse range of perspectives, such as collaboration (Cioccio & Michael, 2007; Jiang & Ritchie, 2017), sustainability (Borges, Eusébio, & Carvalho, 2014; Cizel, Ajanovic, & Cakar, 2016; Gill & Williams, 2014; Hall, 2011b; Sofield & Li, 2011), political economy (Zahra, 2011), innovation (Halkier, 2014; Halkier, Kozak, & Svensson, 2014; Pechlaner, Herntrei, Pichler, & Volgger, 2012b), network (Baggio et al., 2010; Gustafsson et al., 2014), mobility (Dredge & Jamal, 2013), typology (Amore & Hall, 2016), knowledge (Paraskevas, Altinay, McLean, & Cooper, 2013), DMOs (Derco, 2013; Volgger & Pechlaner, 2014), event tourism (Dredge & Whitford, 2011), Cittaslow movement (Presenza, Abbate, & Micera, 2015), cross-border (Blasco, Guia, & Prats, 2014), value chain (Song et al., 2013), and business interest groups (Greenwood, 1993).

However, despite the increasing recognition of the concept of governance, the existing academic literature fails to deal with the issue of the crisis recovery process, from a destination governance perspective. Moreover, in the current literature there are a number of studies discussing the adverse effects of crisis events (Campiranon & Scott, 2014) rather than investigating to what extent successful destination governance can play a role in the creation of effective crisis management and strategies. This paper is intended to fill this gap in the literature.

Crisis and disaster management in tourism

Crises and disasters can be assessed in terms of man-made and natural events (Meditinos & Vassiliadis, 2008; Sausmarez, 2007). The term “disaster” is identified as being an unpredictable event, in other words, one that is not foreseen, while “crisis” is defined as an unexpected adverse incident that may be self-inflicted (Faulkner, 2001; Prideaux, Laws, & Faulkner, 2003; Ritchie, 2009; Timothy, 2006). One of the most compelling distinctions between the terms crisis and disaster is that while the resulting factors of emergence of the crisis are subject to internal issues, a disaster is described as a sudden and unforeseen event that cannot be controlled (Ritchie, 2008).

Crises are split into two main generic categories: natural and man-made (Glaesser, 2003). While financial and economic crises or recessions (Hall, 2010; Martin & Soria, 2014; Spencer, 2013; Stylidis & Terzidou, 2014), wars and terrorist attacks (Blake & Sinclair, 2003; Greenbaum & Hultquist, 2006; Goodrich, 2002; Hitchcock & Putra, 2005; Korstanje, 2014; Larsen, 2011; Ness, 2005; Sönmez et al., 1999), political instability or unrest (Fletcher & Morakabati, 2008; Saha & Yap, 2014; Sönmez, 1998), and social movements (Monterrubio, 2017) can be classified as man-made, epidemic or pandemic diseases such as the severe acute respiratory syndrome (SARS) (Mao, Ding, & Lee, 2010; Wen et al., 2005; Tew et al., 2008), earthquakes (Gray et al., 2014; Orchiston, 2012, 2013), hurricanes (Ryu et al., 2013; Woosnam & Kim, 2014), and tsunamis (Biggs et al., 2012; Calgaro et al., 2014; Cohen, 2011; Kono & Shinew, 2015; Teigen & Glad, 2011) are considered to be tourism crises exacerbated by naturally influenced events (Ghaderi et al., 2015).

In the existing academic literature there are many forms of “crisis”, such as a monetary crisis, managerial crisis, national crisis, and political crisis (Laws & Prideaux, 2005). On the other hand, a disaster has four different kinds of trigger events: nature-based, violence,

technology, and deterioration (Pelling, Özerdem, & Barakat, 2002).

Since tourist destinations are often defenceless against threats affecting destination safety and market perception resulting from crisis events, it is necessary for them to develop crisis strategies and contingency plans in response to adverse events (Beirman, 2003). Thus, the presence of effective crisis management, both for tourism organizations and tourist destinations, is regarded as essential for the survival of the tourism industry, one of the sectors most susceptible and vulnerable to crisis events (Henderson, 2003; Santana, 2004; Walters, Mair, & Lim, 2016).

Several different crisis and/or disaster management models have been identified by a number of scholars in the existing literature within the tourism domain (Hughey & Becken, 2016; Jones, 2016; Liu, Gray, & Krieger, 2016; Pforr & Hosie, 2008).

Murphy and Bayley (1989) developed a disaster planning model composed of four stages: assessment, warning, impact, and recovery. Evans and Elphick (2005) proposed a crisis management model that integrates crisis management with strategic planning, preparing exhaustive contingency plans, defining roles and responsibilities, and providing flexibility.

Crisis management has both proactive and reactive approaches (Moe & Pathranarakul, 2006), while at the same time encapsulating a specific series of phases through which it may be possible to prevent a crisis (Scott & Laws, 2005). There are four major crisis phases introduced by Kash and Darling (1998) – prodromal, acute, chronic, and resolution – while Glaesser (2003) classifies crises into three phases: potential, latent, and acute. Even though a number of crisis management stages exist in the literature, the most prevalent and well-known model was summarized and temporally divided up by Henderson (2003) into three stages, namely pre- (planning), during (response), and post-crisis (recovery) (Huang, Tseng, & Petrick, 2008; Hystad & Keller, 2008). On the other hand, Faulkner's (2001) model is also one of the most commonly used, consisting of six stages, namely pre-event, prodromal, emergency, intermediate, long-term, and resolution.

Hosie and Smith (2004) deal with the issue of crisis management from a distinct perspective by offering four stages – prevention, preparation, response, and recovery – that can be used by many organizations, at both local and national levels. In this approach, learning plays a crucial role in the successful implementation of crisis management. By adopting the Cusp Catastrophe Model, Mao et al. (2010) focus on exploring the nature of the recovery process, and reveal the main differences among various nations by offering a comparative

model. Orchiston (2012) proffers a seismic risk scenario planning model by integrating a natural emergency planning process with sustainable tourism strategies. The author aimed to identify fragilities in the sector while underscoring the physical results, in terms of certain dimensions of tourism-related issues, such as infrastructure, transport, food supply, rescue, and survival. Whether sharing common features or having different characteristics, all the models mentioned above involve different stages in which key actors are given a crucial role in reducing the adverse impact of crises within organizations or destinations.

Methodology and research design

The present research has adopted the case study approach in order to examine the degree to which there exists coordination, cooperation, communication, and a shared knowledge among local actors at the destination level, as well as aiming to identify CFSs for effective destination governance in the development of necessary crisis management strategies. The case study approach is often used by qualitative researchers from a diverse range of disciplines in order to analyze and better understand complex social phenomena (Yin, 2009). This approach is often described as a method for studying a phenomenon for which interviews, observations, pre-recorded documents, and secondary data can be used (Bhattacharjee, 2012).

Antalya as a tourist destination

The tourism industry is a key sector for Turkey in terms of economic growth (Arslantürk & Atan, 2012). The direct contribution of tourism revenue to the gross domestic product (GDP) is seen as fundamental since the country's economy is heavily reliant on such revenue as a source of export income (Yilanci & Eris, 2012). Major market sources of the country in 2014 were Germany, Russia, and the United Kingdom (UK) (Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development [OECD], 2016), while Antalya was mostly preferred by German and Russian travelers in 2015 (Antalya İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü, 2017). Antalya is a city regarded as one of the most popular tourist destinations in Turkey, after Istanbul, hosting a large number of foreign visitors from different countries across the world (Erkuş-Öztürk & Eraydın, 2010). It also has several popular holiday provinces (e.g. Alanya, Belek, Kemer, Side, Manavgat) that are visited every year by a number of domestic and international visitors. It encapsulates a diverse range of tourism activities involving, for example, culture, sea, sports, health,

winter, conventions, caving, camping, golf, hunting, congress and yacht tourism (Antalya Destination, 2015), which are provided by package tours. According to statistical data calculated as the distribution of foreigners by province of entry arriving in Turkey by both sea and air, Antalya welcomed 11,498,519 foreign tourists in 2014 (Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2015). During the period from January to July 2015, Antalya was rated the second most-visited city among five others, with 6,054,084 tourists on the list of foreigners by province of entry (Türkiye Seyahat Acentaları Birliği [TÜRSAB], 2015). Over the last two decades there have been several major crises – a forest fire in 2008, a refugee crisis in 2010, a diplomatic crisis with Russia in 2015 and with the Netherlands in 2017, and a traffic accident involving a tour bus in 2017 – which have directly and indirectly affected tourism in the city, as well as the marketability and image of the tourist destination. Nevertheless, the city has the potential to regain its former reputation by restoring travelers' confidence, and improving its image through the recovery process.

Data collection

Within the context of data triangulation, the empirical components of data collection consist of *in situ* interviews, participant observation, and document analysis (Annual Report published by the City Council of Antalya, Antalya Kent Konseyi Çalışma Raporu [The Annual Report of Antalya City Council, 2014]-official websites of public and private representatives-Antalya Destination, 2015; Antalya İl Kültür ve Turizm Müdürlüğü, 2017; Ministry of Culture and Tourism, 2015; Türkiye Seyahat Acentaları Birliği, 2015-). At the initial stage, participants were contacted via telephone to see if they would be willing to participate in the research project. Once they had accepted, participants were informed about the research aims and the structure of the interview. Only one of the research participants answered the semi-structured questions via email instead of in a face-to-face interview. The qualitative interviews were recorded and then transcribed into a written document to enable an analysis of data. All interviews were conducted by the same researcher in Turkish and then translated into English. Semi-structured qualitative questions, based on a perusal of secondary sources such as current literature and document analysis, were: "Who is the main person responsible for developing strategies, and directing and coordinating actors in times of crisis and disaster?" and "Is there any pre-set strategy introduced by tourism stakeholders to minimize the adverse effects of a crisis that may occur

in the future?" In order to gain further insights and elicit hidden meanings some additional questions were also asked during the course of the interview, such as "If yes, please could you explain what they are?", "Please could you share with us your experience and any observations you have had during times of crisis?", "What was your reaction?", and "What were your observations regarding behavior that was exhibited by tourists during times of crisis?"

Research participants

The main tourism stakeholders consist of various actors and groups of interest, such as accommodation businesses, attractions, tour companies, service providers, government agencies, tourism offices, and local community representatives (Baggio et al., 2010; March & Wilkinson, 2009). Yıldırım, Çizel, Çalışkan, Özdemir, and Helhel (2012) conducted research in Antalya to determine the role of actors who could potentially contribute to tourism, both directly and indirectly. Three classifications of actors were highlighted: core actors (those directly providing tourism services and goods), first cycle group of actors (those offering, regulating, and monitoring products and services), and second cycle group of actors (those supporting core and the first cycle group of actors).

The potential stakeholders list can be further extended with the addition of governments, different special interest groups, various branches of the tourism industry, residents, DMOs, and visitors (Gustafsson et al., 2014). On the basis of the research objectives, the participants of the present study were selected according to their experience, position in and knowledge of the field. In addition to the key roles of actors engaged in management and decision-making processes, work experience in the field was also influential in choosing research participants in order to obtain a deeper insight into and greater understanding of the phenomenon being investigated.

Based on snowball sampling, the 10 research participants were selected from authoritative positions (one interview was conducted via email while the remaining interviews were face-to-face): the general secretary of the City Council of Antalya, the general manager of a 5-star hotel, and one person from each of the following groups: the Association of Professional Hotel Managers, the Association of Antalya Tourist Guides, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism Antalya Office, Akdeniz University Faculty of Tourism, Antalya Chamber of Industry and Trade, Turkey's Hotel Restaurant and Entertainment Workers Trade Union, the Association of Turkish Travel Agencies, and the Association of Travel Agencies Managers. All participants were recruited

during their working hours and all interviews were conducted within their office environment. The duration of the interviews ranged between 38 and 91 minutes. The in-depth interviews were conducted during the period of 2014–2016. During the interviews, respondents were asked semi-structured questions in order to gain a better understanding of their knowledge with regard to crisis management. Within the context of theoretical saturation, the sampling of the study was restricted, as similar data were (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

Data analysis

In order to elicit concise information, a general inductive content analysis was used for analyzing qualitative data. Miles and Huberman's (1994) content analysis model was utilized for the analysis of data, which is described as an approach that can be applied in a systematic way through which the researcher can divide raw data into themes and categories by interpreting, theorizing, or making sense of the data (Mehmetoglu & Altinay, 2006). The following four steps were maintained during the course of data analysis: decreasing data, display of data, description of data, and verification of data. During the process of data analysis, the first step was the generation of a conceptual category at the level of abstraction. In the second stage, the relationship between concept and categories was sought by coders, who reviewed and refined the collected data, while the third phase consisted of conceptualizing and expressing connections arising from themes and categories (Punch, 2011).

During the qualitative content analysis process, after coding was realized coders reduced obtained data into meaningful themes and categories through which concepts were generated, and at subsequent stages refined data was transferred into documents and transcripts (Creswell, 2007). During the course of interpreting the data, different levels of explicitness, abstraction, and systematization deriving from patterns were also identified by the researcher (Strauss, 2003). To provide research reliability and objectivity (confirmability), the coding process of the data was maintained independently by two researchers (Creswell, 2009; Decrop, 1999). As a consequence, categories of words falling

under the main themes created, on which there was strong agreement, were extracted (Table 1).

Results

After the coding process was finalized, the raw data was refined and condensed and subsequently four main themes, created by the coders, who reached a high level of agreement amongst themselves, were identified. The four themes, namely responsiveness, shared roles, strategy formation, and collaboration, represent the CSFs of effective destination governance for the creation of strategy in response to crises. These themes are followed by categories of words based on *in situ* interviews, and were identified in the coding scheme.

The observation process allowed for a better understanding of the interaction between actors and the ways in which main tourism stakeholders make decisions. A meeting, lasting approximately two hours, was hosted by the City Council, working under the treaty of municipal law. The researcher was not formally involved in the meeting, but participated as an observer in order to remain neutral. During the course of observation, some key points were written down as notes. The election of the board of directors was made during the initial phase of the meeting of the stakeholders, which was followed by a discussion of some of the problems needing to be resolved with respect to tourism activity in the city. The most important observation made during the meeting was that there were no representatives of any tourism-related worker unions. After data analysis was completed, four CSFs emerged for effective destination governance in response to crises: CSF1: responsiveness: readiness and preparedness; CSF2: shared roles: communication and sharing knowledge; CSF3: strategy formation: reactive and proactive; and CSF4: collaboration: cooperation and coordination (Figure 1).

The common beliefs, ideas, and opinions of local actors in Antalya are presented below, and participants' responses are direct quotations.

CSF1: responsiveness

Under the main theme of "responsiveness", preparedness and readiness were found to be categories of the first CSF. It was found on the basis of the *in situ* interviews that due to the existing governance structure, public actors who represent central government are assumed to be the key players in determining tourism policies and strategies, to the exclusion of the remaining actors. Since this approach engenders a lack of effective planning, local actors commonly fail to

Table 1. Critical success factors for destination governance.

Themes	Categories
Responsiveness	Preparedness, Readiness
Shared roles	Communication, Sharing knowledge
Strategy formation	Reactive, Proactive
Collaboration	Cooperation, Coordination

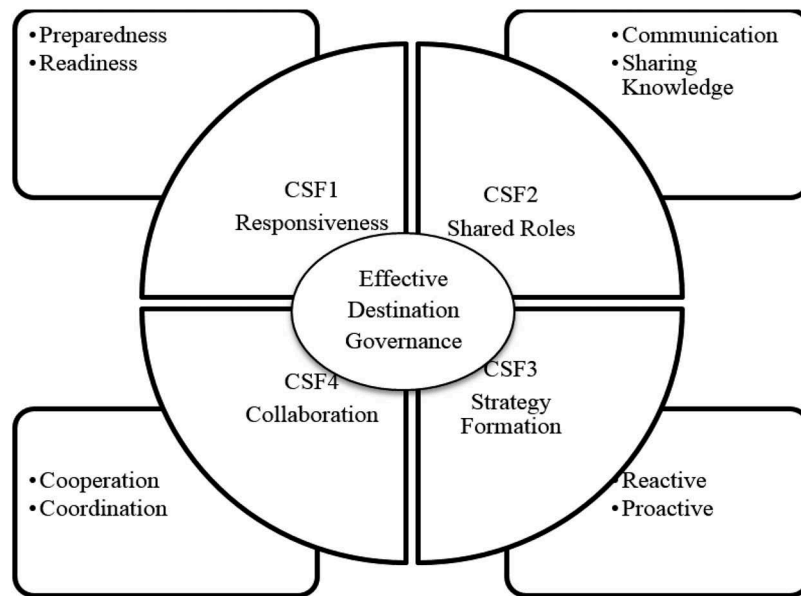


Figure 1. Model of critical success factors for effective destination governance in times of crisis.

CSF: critical success factor.

prepare effective management strategies in response to crises. This idea is supported by the statement of one of the key research participants:

[...] at the moment, we, as a City Council, don't have any previously created strategy [...] In general, the government has a plan for disasters and crises, and this includes tourism.

The interviews further revealed that the unequal distribution of power among actors creates an absence of collaborative initiatives in determining and developing effective crisis management strategies, and in achieving long-term goals and objectives. Moreover, the participants stated that the existing strategies and crisis management plans were insufficient, involving mundane remedies or a contingency approach using reactive strategies rather than the proactive ones needed by the tourism industry during times of crisis. The basic idea behind this stance is expressed by one of the research participants:

We do not think there is any seriously developed strategy on the part of related organizations or associations with regard to alleviating the kind of crises which will probably occur in Antalya city [...] Action is only taken when critical events occur. A long-term strategy regarding what should be done before the emergence of a crisis does not exist. I have been doing this job for 20 years, but so far I have not been invited to any meeting involving measures that should be taken in the case of possible future crises.

The issue of power distribution within the structures of governance is a sociopolitical construction firmly grounded in a political economy relying on the actors' positions, interests, and values, and also based on how they interact with each other (Wan & Bramwell, 2015). In a nutshell, the stakeholders of Antalya commonly hold the belief that their responsiveness toward crises is very limited due to the absence of a vision and leadership, which stems from a lack of interaction, thus hindering the creation of effective crisis management strategies. These results are also supported by, and consistent with, previous research (Beritelli & Bieger, 2014; Cizel et al., 2016).

CSF2: shared roles

On completion of the coding process, communication and sharing knowledge were identified as categories falling under the main theme of "shared roles". From the perspective of local actors, cooperation and coordination are an integral part of communication, while communication is regarded as one of the most crucial elements for stakeholders (Renn, 2015). In addition to the unclear distribution of roles between actors, the existing pattern of communication among stakeholders has also been found to be an unsatisfactory and problematic issue with regard to providing an effective governance structure.

Given the distribution of roles among actors, without doubt the Governorship is the most important political actor. At the same time, it is the actor that holds the power of coordination. We are in a position which is considered to be the second most important actor, after the Governor's Office.

As can be seen from the interviews, some important stakeholders do not have sufficient power or knowledge to make an adequate contribution to the decision-making process (Jiang & Ritchie, 2017). This issue creates an absence of stakeholder activism with regard to providing interaction based on effective communication, which is an obstacle to building successful crisis management strategies, as stated by one of the research participants:

Communication between non-governmental organizations and the private sector (which are the most affected) is more intense, but not at the desired level.

This kind of difference can be assumed to cause problems between stakeholders since the effectiveness of their interaction is key in determining and implementing rules (Baggio et al., 2010). The main actors responsible for developing strategies, and directing and coordinating stakeholders in times of crisis and disaster, as believed by the research participants, are the Governorship and the Ministry of Culture and Tourism Antalya Office. These are both central actors whose absolute power is equally significant in the determination of strategies and common goals at a local level (Bramwell, 2011).

In times of possible crisis, from a touristic perspective, the State is the owner of this business (as the main responsible actor). Governorships, on behalf of the State, stand at the forefront of this business at local level. The Governorship and the Ministry of Culture and Tourism Provincial Office are responsible for programming and planning [...] I cannot say there is a high level of coordination and cooperation but I can attest to the presence of natural dynamics.

Possible problems may emerge regarding the issue of destination leadership, which is closely linked to actors and actions at a destination level, owing to a preponderance of some agents deriving their position from using their power over others (Beritelli & Bieger, 2014). Another crucial point is that a lack of shared roles, cooperation, coordination, communication, and information transfer seems to be another issue among actors. Regarding governance, due to the unequal distribution of power between non-state and public representatives, the latter's force being derived from central state power, an absence of stakeholder effectiveness is

created. The issue of ineffective governance becomes more apparent when cooperation and coordination, seen as the main characteristics of destination management and governance, which should include all actors, are limited (Pechlaner, Bachinger, Volgger, & Fischer, 2014).

First, institutions and organizations, civil society organizations related to tourism, need to admit that they all have equal weight. There should not be a hierarchy [...] the degree to which actors hold their roles is not very clear, leading to the issue of ineffective communication, and thus hindering the creation of effective crisis management strategies.

Based on such statements, which are commonly supported by the participants, it can be clearly understood that the state plays a significant role in determining tourism strategies and planning in terms of achieving common goals, and holds power over non-state or non-governmental actors at the local level. In this regard, overall the Governorship is seen as the most authoritative and influential political actor in developing and pursuing necessary policies and strategies at a local level. This kind of power explains how government-related or -led bodies have such a strong say in the determination of and intervention in local policies (Bramwell, 2006).

CSF3: strategy formation

Regarding the issue of pre-determined and pre-set strategies in response to challenges that may potentially occur, it is clear that stakeholders remain unprepared in dealing effectively with crises. Under the theme of "strategy formation", both reactive and proactive approaches were encountered. Overall, research participants expressed the opinion that crisis responses were simply reactive rather than being predetermined.

There is no developed ready strategy on this issue, but due to frequently experienced crises the tourism industry has itself developed habits through experience. There is an embedded immune system with a habitual response.

We, as a work association, do not have any organized measures or developed strategies in place to deal with a crisis.

It can be concluded from the above statements that there is no predetermined effective strategy in response to potential crisis events; rather, strategy plans are contingent and emergent. In other words, the disaster or crisis management strategies in use at tourist

destinations are applied only when critical incidents occur (Ritchie, 2008).

[...] there may be a written crisis guide in the Governor's Office and in the Ministry of Culture and Tourism Antalya Office. However, it is economically debatable in real life to what extent such crisis plans overlap with the current tourism crisis. So far, I have not seen such a crisis plan, I have not read one, I have not seen one [...] Obviously, I must conclude that there is no general crisis management [strategy]. Each actor tries to manage a crisis as best they can.

Another key feature is that although the knowledge of crisis strategies of related actors has been strengthened through past experiences, it still remains inadequate in dealing with crisis events and continues to expose the city to their negative consequences (Paraskevas et al., 2013). However, more interestingly, most of the participants declared that their own pre-determined crisis management strategy had been built independently, while only one respondent stated that no pre-developed strategy existed in their company:

The biggest issue concerning Antalya is that effective pre-planning in the face of a crisis has not been organized ... Antalya has been experiencing crises every two to three years since the development of the tourist industry in the region. However, even if we had a well-organized plan and program, involving the private sector and the government, it would still be imperfect.

As a consequence, it can also be seen from the interviews that in times of crisis there is no consensus among stakeholders to cooperate in order to create an effective crisis management strategy. It should also be noted that one of the most substantive points to be underlined by a research participant is that apart from decreasing the detrimental impact of crises, the social exclusion of local people from tourist activities and the feasibility of inbound tourism is also seen to be a highly problematic issue.

CSF4: collaboration

Collaboration, the last theme, is followed by the categories of coordination and cooperation. Collaboration is the process whereby solving problems is undertaken by including a wide range of actors whose objective reflects the common interest of and benefit for all (Jiang & Ritchie, 2017). Collaboration in the context of crisis management entails a partnership of all stakeholders, including public and private representatives at the destination level (Campiranon & Scott, 2014).

According to the key participants involved in the formation of an effective crisis management strategy,

the public bodies of the state are more powerful and authoritative than the other actors.

The City Council convenes once a month. [...] regarding the issue of cooperation, not enough meetings are planned to achieve such a collaborative ideal [...] there may well be a strategy developed for a crisis in the Governor's Office. This shows the Governor's Office to be the most important and authoritative actor at the local level, after the Ministry.

Clearly, the existing problem of a lack of coordination and cooperation among actors hinders stakeholders from developing necessary crisis management and strategies (Jiang & Ritchie, 2017). Insufficient coordination and cooperation among the key actors is also supported by another research participant:

[...] I can also say that there is no adequate coordination and cooperation.

The majority of participants also commented on the absence of proactive strategies to be implemented prior to a crisis. They agreed that the presence of such strategies was vital and that strategies should be implemented by the main tourism stakeholders, which would entail collaborative initiatives and close cooperation among local actors.

Discussion

This is the first study which has attempted to describe the CSFs involved in the creation of effective strategies for successful tourism destination governance, and it has done so by examining the attitudes of local actors toward the issue of effective crisis management. The CSFs, providing a deeper understanding of destination governance, were identified based on the results of this study, and incorporating them into a crisis management plan would benefit both industry practitioners and destination managers. Also, it has been revealed in this research based on interviews with key local stakeholders, that the enforcement of the developed model referring to CSFs would help tourism planners and managers address the issue of good destination governance when dealing with crisis situations.

In considering CSF1 and CSF3, which are concerned with responsiveness and strategy formation, the results confirm that stakeholders have not learned any significant lessons from past crisis events, and that they do not appear to be any better prepared for future incidents (Hystad and Keller, 2008). The results also illustrate that an unequal distribution of power, through which public representatives are given authority, thus precipitating problems among actors in terms of shared roles (CSF2), has given rise to ineffective

communication of crisis knowledge (Paraskevas et al., 2013). Considering strategy formation (CSF3), it can be seen that it displays reactive rather than proactive approaches in terms of strategies which need to be prepared for future crises. One could put forward the idea that due to a lack of good tourism governance at destination level, all the CSFs which have emerged from this study are partly reflected by the tourism stakeholders.

More interestingly, findings seem to support the fact that stakeholders have not developed and prepared proactive strategies for future crisis events due to the absence of adequate collaboration (CSF4) among local actors. As a consequence, CSF4 proves that the presence of effective collaboration (cooperation and coordination) can potentially provide proactive responses to future crises, and this strategy should be cultivated by governance leaders at the local level (Sheppard & Williams, 2016). It can thus be concluded that there is limited evidence of cooperation between private and government-led actors in developing necessary crisis management strategies, and of proactive stakeholder responses to adverse events. Moreover, it is also clear that there are no examples of effective host community participation despite the presence of limited cooperation and ineffective communication among some local stakeholders (Gurtner, 2016). These findings reveal that there is a substantial relationship between the type of governance being adopted by local stakeholders and effective crisis management, which plays a crucial role in destination governance as it determines the degree to which local actors have the capacity to act in a proactive way.

The responsiveness (CSF1) of stakeholders to crisis events has been found to be very low and insufficient due to ineffective communication, while at the same time shared roles (CSF2) remain at an unsatisfactory level. On the one hand, strategy formation (CSF3) is heavily based on a reactive approach rather than a proactive one, and on the other hand, a low level of cooperation among actors has created a lack of collaboration (CSF4). Therefore, the conclusion of this paper is that there is an ineffective governance structure in Antalya stemming from a lack of coordination, knowledge transfer, communication, and information flow among actors, which has led to an inability to build the necessary strategies required to respond to crisis events (Jiang & Ritchie, 2017). In this regard, assuming that the concept of stakeholder represents governance at the destination level within a tourist domain, one can clearly see that the problem is “governance with many governments” (Collignon, 2006) or “governance without government”, since governance is not applicable in the

absence of government(s) (Rosenau, 1992). More precisely, in line with the results of the present study, the problem of Antalya as a tourist destination can be stated as being governance with (only) a few governments, since two actors, whose authority and dominance derive from state force, seem to have more power, over those agents at the tourism level. Further, for the successful achievement of tourism destination governance at a local level, the findings of this study indicate that the relationship between local people and stakeholders is seen to be essential, reflecting a delicate congruence between the two.

The presence of an ineffective governance structure is also an obstacle to building a necessary and proactive strategy for crisis events, while a centralized governance approach, decreasing stakeholders’ responsiveness, ensures that the inclusiveness of non-governmental organizations (NGOs) is neglected and doomed to failure (Cizel et al., 2016; Erkuş-Öztürk, 2011; Göymen, 2000; Yüksel et al., 2005). One of the most substantial findings of the present study is that there is a strong relationship between the type of governance being adopted at destination level and effective crisis management, in terms of strategies to deal with challenges that may occur during and after crisis events. Linked to this argument it can also be said that effective crisis management strategies are only possible with the establishment of a strong governance structure that is adopted by the main tourism stakeholders.

Conclusions, recommendations, and implications

The concept of governance is an ambiguous one, as the findings of this study have revealed. In essence, the concept of governance has itself a broader meaning and broader dimensions than simply the presupposed issue of government (Cope, Leishman, & Starie, 1997). There are two main reasons for an ineffective governance structure. The first is a misunderstanding of the context of governance, since governance and management are often confused, leading to the fact that the former is usually evaluated simply as a management process (Cizel et al., 2016) in which only a few actors have limited access to direct control over the distribution of resources. Garvare and Johansson (2010) labelled this group of interest the “primary stakeholder”. The second reason is that Antalya’s governance structure illustrates a convergence toward a centralized and more bureaucratic approach (top-down), rather than a decentralized one (bottom-up) (Farmaki, 2015; Ruhanen et al., 2010). This encapsulates a strongly

hierarchical type of approach in which the sustainability of tourism is fundamentally embedded within the governance structure itself as a core element. Therefore, the actors representing the public arena seem to be more influential and dominant in pursuing strategies and exerting their power with regard to local policies and the managing of local resources (Göymen, 2000), the power of the local representatives being firmly grounded in the transfer of authority and control given by the central state (Yüksel et al., 2005). This approach of “one size fits all” adopted by the central government, in terms of tourism planning, policies, and strategies, is not viable for all tourism destinations within the country, as each destination is different and has a different tourism governance structure at local level.

Overall, the majority of research participants agreed that the Governorship and the Ministry of Culture and Tourism Antalya Office are the most authoritative and influential bodies at a local level, whose power over private agents has been endorsed by central government. They further stated that these public bodies hold absolute power over all local actors, with the ability to decide policies, strategies, and planning processes. This style of management restricts the development of an effective destination governance structure, which subsequently prevents the formation and improvement of necessary crisis strategy plans. Moreover, it goes against the idea that the planning and policy process can be accessed by all actors equally (Reed, 1997). From the above-mentioned statements, one could consider this to be an issue of democracy and inequality, which is a governance problem as it leads to the exclusion of certain actors while at the same time empowering elites. In other words, the fact that those who are able to use their power over agents with less power begs the question: to what extent is this type of governance democratic? (Hazenberg, 2015).

Based on research findings, the issue of sharing knowledge and information between stakeholders emerges when actors who hold more power due to their political status can directly influence the political agenda and decision-making process, particularly during a time of crisis. This problem can be explained in several different ways. First, the relationship between power and knowledge becomes more conspicuous. Here, the concept of power is equated with knowledge since possessing knowledge engenders power (Foucault, 1980). Thus, on the basis of this research it has been found that the limited capability of tourism stakeholders to engage in the elicitation and distribution of knowledge during all phases of a crisis, has led to inaction and ineffectiveness in strategy formation (Jia, Shi, Jia, & Li, 2012).

Luke (2005) claims that power is engendered through the ability of external actors to shape agents. One of the key implications of the present research is that external actions, meaning the regulatory initiatives emanating from the power of the state, are likely to elicit internal reactions and influence stakeholder sub-groups (Hardy, 2005), since the stakeholder theory postulates that many groups may have a direct impact on the managerial decision-making process (Presenza & Cipollina, 2010). This kind of dependence is supported by the external control of organizations in terms of use, allocation, and control of resources, as asserted by Pfeffer and Salancik (1978). The basic logic behind this issue can be explained by the challenges that surround governments, international institutions, and organizations, which occur in the geopolitical arena and, therefore, one needs an effective response to remove them (Bruce-Lockhart, 2016).

Given the political culture of the state (Chilton, 1988), the main reason behind this can be attributed to the geoculture the state possesses (Wallerstein, 2014), through which local representatives of the public domain can use their power directly to exert control over other agents in the management of local resources granted by the central government, and explained by Timothy (2007) as disempowerment. Put more succinctly, a governance structure is largely determined by the central government, which is reliant on a country's historical development, specific laws, institutions, and political culture (Scott & Marzano, 2015).

Therefore, government intervention becomes more apparent, both in the tourism sector and in decision-making processes, where decision makers strive to build necessary strategies (Go & Trunfio, 2012). This relationship can also be interpreted through Gramsci's (1999) power and hegemony stance, which is inextricably intertwined with a political context. In a nutshell, it can be concluded that this type of state is effective in the creation of governance structure and also modes of governance (Erkuş-Öztürk, 2011). In simple terms, the concept of governance means a diminishing of state powers, since the collective decision-making process entails stakeholders' involvement in all stages, and collective or public problems are transferred to non-governmental or private actors so as to improve the problem-solving ability of political systems (Hazenberg, 2015).

Based on the respondents' opinions on and ideas of effective crisis management, an ideal governance structure is seen as vital, the absence of which inhibits the generation of effective crisis management strategies and planning for stakeholders at a local level. This study proposes several recommendations to address

this situation. First of all, some stakeholders, who have a high level of interest but possess little power, need to be empowered (Jiang & Ritchie, 2017). Providing sustainable and maintainable tourism activities dealing with effective crisis management should be ensured and this is only possible by providing proactive strategies rather than reactive ones. In order to realize this objective, all actors should periodically come together to discuss such issues. Moreover, stakeholders need to be involved at all stages, especially in the development of predetermined strategies rather than emergent ones, in response to future challenges. Further, there needs to be a unique coordination unit whose control, coordination, and management activities should be independently endorsed by both public and non-government-led actors in order to provide an effective response in times of crisis. In order to realize this goal, networks of the different actors should be set up through which collaborative initiatives would lead to the sharing of policy-making authority, responsibility, and development at different levels, which would subsequently provide effective communication, cooperation, and coordination among actors (Scott & Marzano, 2015). Consequently, decisions to be taken need to be realized by collective action on the part of all stakeholders, including the local community (Hazenberg, 2015), which is seen as a *raison d'être* of effective tourism destination governance.

The limitations of the present research are twofold. First, due to time constraints, the implementation of a focus group could not be conducted with the main tourism stakeholders. Second, the case study is limited by the inclusion of only one tourist destination. Future research should concentrate on implementing a focus group discussion with local contributors in order to analyze more deeply the CSFs among stakeholders by utilizing a multiple-case approach from a comparative perspective within the concept of tourism governance.

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