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# Circular Tourism Perspectives for Oman

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## Abstract

In this study, it's aimed to introduce circular tourism and to get answer whether if circular tourism will be the leading tourism perspective for the future. As an innovative approach, it is so difficult to generalize the circular solutions for tourism economies in paradoxical context. On one hand, stimulating tourists to spend more, while minimizing wastes as low as possible on the other hand. Recent indicators of circularity performance based on energy, resources, commodities; localization, global relationships and regenerative product design, new business models, reverse logistics and enabling communication technologies. By reviewing best practices in global context, the study focuses on Omani tourism circularity performance.

**Keywords:** Circular tourism, circular economy, sharing destination, Oman



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## INTRODUCTION

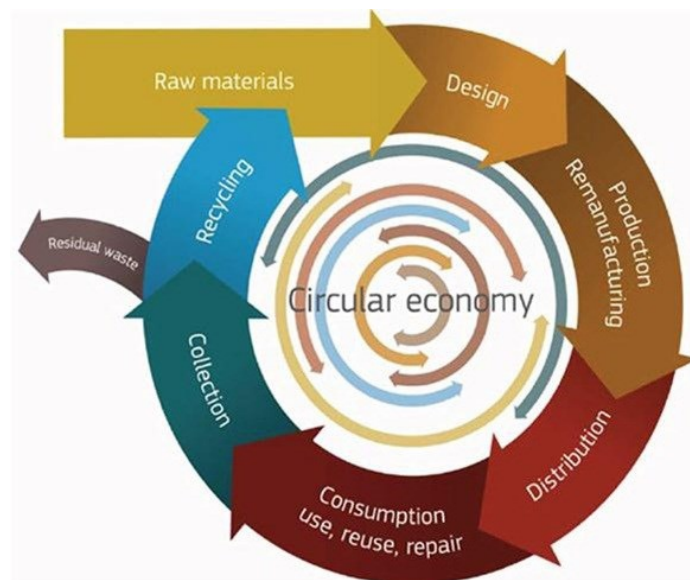
### *Circularity and Circular Economy*

Circularity has started to influence economical and managerial areas in the second half of the 20<sup>th</sup> Century. Similar concepts and reflections are sustainability, green economy, collaborative economy and sharing economy before circular economy in literature of economics.

Exponential, limitless economic growth continues, so environmental depletion, degradation, and pollution has now exceeded the planet's carrying capacity. There needs to be a focus on what called "Green GDP" – taking account of environmental degradation and resource depletion. This is particularly important in developing countries like Oman. There are ways that those can be adjusted to avoid depletion of natural resources and degradation of the environment (Stiglitz, 2009). This is despite new environmental accounting methodologies and the application of ethics in modern academic economics (Stern, 2006; Stiglitz, 2002). According to the UNDP 'Global Green New Deal'2 report, environmental policy actions and investments on 'green sectors' address not only the environmental crisis but also most importantly will provide high economic return (UNEP, 2009).

The collaborative economy is a term used to describe a range of more radical business models that represent a shift from product ownership towards rental, leasing or shared access to goods or services (Mearns, 2015). The sharing economy seeks to tap into and unlock idle assets in order to create new wealth and use resources more sustainably (Rinne, 2013).

The vision of a circular economy 'in which nothing is wasted and everything is a resource is as exciting as it is challenging' (Mearns, 2015). It is an approach that shifts the focus from the ever more efficient use of resources to *re-using* those resources across the economy (Figure-1). Such an approach not only boosts productivity, by reducing demand for and the cost of raw materials, but also stimulates innovation in terms of product re-design, re-use and re-manufacture (Mearns, 2015).



**Figure 1 Circular Economy**

European Commission (2014) *Towards a circular economy: A zero waste programme for Europe*, <http://ec.europa.eu/environment/circular-economy/pdf/circular-economy-communication.pdf> retrieved on 12.02.17

It is better to start to emphasize what the contributions of circularity would be to the economy and to businesses. These include:

1. By eliminating wasted materials and maximizing the value of products/services and materials, circularity increases productivity and competitiveness;
2. By working across supply chains to re-design products for a lifetime of disassembly and re-use, circularity stimulates product and service innovation;
3. By developing processes to enable product maintenance and refurbishment rather than disposal, and collaborative use rather than product ownership, circularity builds stronger customer relationships;
4. Circularity means greater resilience in relation to natural and historical assets;
5. By value-creation, customer co-creation, material re-use and recovery, circularity creates jobs, (Mearns, 2015).

When considered at micro level, measuring, understanding and subsequently minimizing resource consumption and waste is critical to the success of a sustainable business model (Lacy and Rosenberg, 2013). Circular thinking presents a vision for how businesses and nations could operate in the 21st century, a vision increasingly supported by leading economies, global businesses and institutions (Drewell and Rutqvist, 2013). It is part of a broader series of trends related to collaborative consumption, production, supply chain management and more that stand to evolve and revolutionize the way business is conducted around the world (Rinne, 2013). The recent study found one-third of global CEOs actively seeking to employ circular economy models (Accenture and UN, 2013).

The recent study (McKinsey, 2015) takes this a stage further and provides a helpful framework to analyze the kinds of business model and technological innovations that comprise the circular economy. The researchers used assumptions about technological and behavioral changes in the period to 2050 to understand where we might expect impacts to be greatest. The 'RESOLVE' framework in Figure-2 describes six broad areas of business opportunity, enabled by new technologies, behaviors and business models (McKinsey, 2015).

<b>REGENERATE</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Shift to renewable energy and materials</li> <li>✓ Reclaim, retain and restore health of ecosystems</li> <li>✓ Return recovered biological resources to the biosphere</li> </ul>
<b>SHARE</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Share assets (eg cars, rooms, appliances)</li> <li>✓ Reuse/second hand</li> <li>✓ Prolong life through maintenance, design for durability, upgradability etc.</li> </ul>
<b>OPTIMISE</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Increase the performance / efficiency of products</li> <li>✓ Remove waste in production and supply chains</li> <li>✓ Leverage big data, automation and remote sensing</li> </ul>
<b>LOOP</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Remanufacture products or components</li> <li>✓ Recycle materials</li> <li>✓ Digest anaerobically</li> <li>✓ Extract biochemicals from organic waste</li> </ul>
<b>VIRTUALISE</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Dematerialise directly (eg books, music, films, travel)</li> <li>✓ Dematerialise indirectly (eg online shopping)</li> </ul>
<b>EXCHANGE</b>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>✓ Replace old with advanced, renewable materials</li> <li>✓ Apply new technologies (eg 3D printing)</li> <li>✓ Choose new products/services (eg multimodal transport)</li> </ul>

**Figure 2 RESOLVE Framework**

McKinsey CBE & Ellen MacArthur Foundation. (2015). *Growth within: A circular economy vision for a competitive Europe*  
[https://www.ellenmacarthurfoundation.org/assets/downloads/publications/EllenMacArthurFoundation\\_Growth-Within\\_July15.pdf](https://www.ellenmacarthurfoundation.org/assets/downloads/publications/EllenMacArthurFoundation_Growth-Within_July15.pdf), retrieved on 12.02.17

McKinsey (2015) applied this framework to three areas of household expenditure, mobility, food and housing, which together account for 60% of average EU household spend and 80% of resource consumption. Informed by expert views on technologies to be available by 2020, they identified significant savings over the period to 2050: 60-80% for mobility, 25-40% for food and 25-35% for housing (Ellen MacArthur Foundation, 2012).

### Circular Tourism

Inevitably, the changes in paradigms of economic development influence on all sectors and subsectors. Although circular business literature has not been developed yet, there are leading examples in e-service sector including Uber Inc., Airbnb Inc. and Lyft Inc. among a growing field.

Based on the "5R" concepts-"rethink, reduce, reuse, recycle, repair" of recycle economy, circular tourism economy has been appeared as a necessary choice to be adopted new paradigms. As inspired from the service sector, tourism industry will find its own circular ways. Figure -3 illustrates briefly changing concepts in tourism sectors past 50 years. Initially, circular business model innovation was driven by small and medium-sized hotels and F&B businesses. However, bigger international chains are making serious moves.

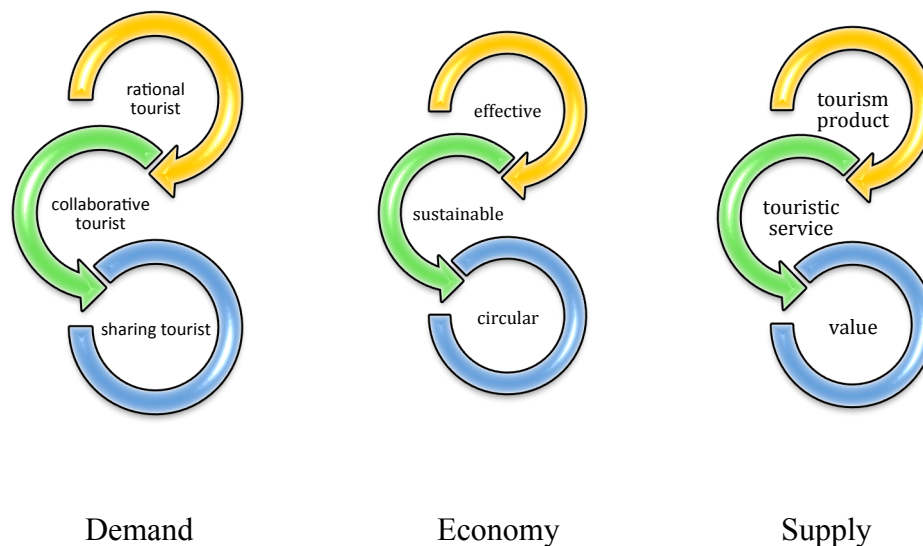


Figure 3 Changing Concepts toward Circular Tourism

As an insight of circular thinking, five fundamental queries can be considered for tourism sector:

- How can the products/services be designed with asset recovery in mind?
- How can the product lines be developed to meet demand without wasting assets?
- How can the material be sourced in regenerative loops rather than linear flows?
- How can a revenue model be developed that protects value up and down the chain?
- How to make the customers being cooperative? (Drewell and Rutqvist, 2013).

In order to adopt circular approaches into tourism businesses, these can be primarily considered by decision makers:



### ***Circular Supply-Chain Management for Tourism Business***

When a hotel needs resources that are scarce or environmentally destructive, it can either pay more or find alternative resources. The Circular Supply-Chain introduces fully renewable, recyclable or biodegradable materials that can be used in consecutive lifecycles to reduce costs and increase predictability and control.

### ***Recovery & Recycling***

The Recovery & Recycling model creates production and consumption systems in which everything that used to be considered waste is revived for other uses. For tourism businesses either recover end-of-life products to recapture and reuse valuable material, energy and components or they reclaim waste and by-products from a delivery process. Starbucks, for example, is actually aiming to turn thousands of tons of its waste coffee grounds and food into everyday products by using bacteria to generate succinic acid which can then be used in a range of products from detergents to bio-plastics and medicines.

### ***Tourism Product/ Destination Life-Extension***

Tourists discard destinations and or tourism products/services they no longer value—because the destinations are overcrowded, out of fashion or damaged. But many of those still hold considerable value, and this model seeks to recapture it. By maintaining and improving tourism products and touristic services through, redesigning, upgrades, remanufacturing or remarketing, destinations can keep them economically useful for as long as possible. It also means moving tourists from transactions to relationships, tailoring upgrades and alterations to specific needs.

### ***Sharing Platform***

The Sharing Platform model—increasingly assisted by new forms of digital technology—forges new relationships and business opportunities for tourists, companies and micro-entrepreneurs, who rent, share, swap or lend their idle assets. Tourism businesses may share their facilities to decrease using energy and other inputs at the same destination. For example especially for Small and Medium-Sized Hotels share laundries, swimming pools, restaurants, kitchens, pubs, as well as idle rooms of residents in the destination. Lastly, social media exchange platforms are rapidly transforming industries by collaborative consumption. Airbnb (the online service that matches people seeking vacation rentals with hosts who have space) now has over 200,000 listings in 26,000 cities.

For better understanding of the basis of circular tourism, those can be listed below:

- Create innovation that play a leading role in assisting tourism to adapt to new circular, sustained economic conditions,
- Reinforce tourism resilience and economic importance through stronger investment in human resources, better market knowledge and in technology.
- Encourage adaptation of innovative practices and increase the uptake of technology by all stakeholders.
- Maximize cooperation and synergy between all national, regional and international stakeholders;
- Coo-petition (cooperation in competition) can extend beyond traditional frameworks into economic, employment and development areas as well as among destinations.

## Tourism in Oman

Although the tourism industry in Oman is comparatively new and a relatively small part of the total economy, it has been growing quite rapidly. As given on Table-1, the direct contribution of Travel & Tourism to GDP in 2014 was OMR765.1mn (2.6% of GDP). This primarily reflects the economic activity generated by industries such as hotels, travel agents, airlines and other passenger transportation services. But it also includes, for example, the activities of the restaurant and leisure industries directly supported. The total contribution of Travel & Tourism to GDP including wider effects from investment, the supply chain and induced income impacts, was OMR1,697.5mn in 2014 (5.7% of GDP)(WTTC, 2015).

In 1995, the "Vision Oman 2020" stipulated the diversification of the national economy away from oil. For the first time, it also proposed serious policies encouraging the development of tourism (Wippel, 2015). The programme's aim is to increase non-oil GDP to 81% of GDP by 2020 (EHER, 2015). The direct contribution of Travel & Tourism to GDP is expected to grow by 6.1% per annum to OMR1,453.5mn (3.3% of GDP) and the total contribution of Travel & Tourism to GDP to rise by 6.2% per annum to OMR3,222.3mn by 2025 (7.3% of GDP) (WTTC 2015).

Besides direct and total contribution to GDP, direct and total contribution to employment also cannot be ignored. Travel & Tourism generated 44,500 jobs directly in 2014 (2.8% of total employment). This includes employment by hotels, travel agents, airlines and other passenger transportation services (excluding commuter services). It also includes, for example, the activities of the restaurant and leisure industries directly supported by tourists. The total contribution of Travel & Tourism to employment (including wider effects from investment, the supply chain and induced income impacts) was 90,500 jobs in 2014 (5.7% of total employment). By 2025, Travel & Tourism will account for 72,000 jobs directly, an increase of 3.8% per annum as well as, direct and indirect 143,000 jobs in total (7.5% of total employment), an increase of 3.8% per annum over the period (WTTC, 2015).

Domestic travel spending generated 39.3% of direct Travel & Tourism GDP in 2014 compared with 60.7% for visitor exports (ie foreign visitor spending or international tourism receipts) per annum to OMR769.0mn in 2025. International tourist arrivals are forecast to total 3,493,000, generating expenditure of OMR1,565.0mn, an increase of 7.1% per annum by 2025 (WTTC, 2015).

Omani Ministry of Tourism emphasizes its` mission in a sustainable frame and states *`tourism will facilitate economic diversification, preservation of cultural integrity and protection of the environment of the Sultanate of Oman,*` in the mission statement. Besides, The Vision is stated stronger expression and higher dedication of sustainability in tourism development as *'Tourism will be developed as an important and sustainable socio-economic sector of the Sultanate of Oman in a manner that reflects the Sultanate's historic, cultural and natural heritage and ethos of traditional hospitality,*` (Ministry of Tourism, 2010).

### Table 1 Summarized Facts and Figures of Omani Tourism

Oman	2014 US\$mn <sup>1</sup>	2014 % of total	2015 Growth <sup>2</sup>	US\$mn <sup>1</sup>	2025 % of total	Growth <sup>3</sup>
Direct contribution to GDP	1,989.7	2.6	5.2	3,779.8	3.3	6.1
Total contribution to GDP	4,414.4	5.7	3.8	8,379.6	7.3	6.2
Direct contribution to employment <sup>4</sup>	44.5	2.8	11.0	71.8	3.7	3.8
Total contribution to employment <sup>4</sup>	90.6	5.7	9.4	143.4	7.5	3.8
Visitor exports	1,934.2	3.7	6.0	4,070.0	5.7	7.1
Domestic spending	1,252.5	1.6	8.9	1,999.8	1.7	3.9
Leisure spending	2,273.0	1.8	10.2	4,605.8	2.5	6.3
Business spending	913.7	0.7	-0.5	1,464.0	0.8	4.9
Capital investment	694.5	3.6	10.3	1,407.0	3.9	6.3

<sup>1</sup>2014 constant prices & exchange rates; <sup>2</sup>2015 real growth adjusted for inflation (%); <sup>3</sup>2015-2025 annualised real growth adjusted for inflation (%); <sup>4</sup>000 jobs

World Travel & Tourism Council. (2015). *Travel & Tourism Economic Impact 2015 Oman*, London: page 11

Oman can improve her tourism product by monitoring trends in sustainable tourism. There are many special interest tourism types considerable for improving sustainable tourism product. It is a generally accepted opinion that ecofriendly, well-preserved, green-blue combined tourism products are always favored by worldwide tourism markets. Green-blue combined tourism product also extends the length of stay and increases tourism income indirectly. Mechanisms should be funded for the development of 'green' tourism products and services such as hiking, cycling, ecotourism, and rural tourism (Yuksel, 2014).

A major focus for tourism development over the forthcoming years is for Oman is to develop a whole range of tourism products that will widen its perceived tourism product portfolio. Examples of new products will include (Deloitte and Touche, 2008):

- Round the country Tours
- Yachting Ports, Marinas, Shelter Harbors
- Eco-tourism
- Health and Spas Tourism
- Adventure Tourism
- Diving
- Cultural tourism
- Event tourism
- Cruise shipping
- MICE (Meeting, Incentive, Conference, Exhibition) tourism
- Farm tourism

## CRITICAL APPROACH TO CIRCULARITY OF OMANI TOURISM

In this chapter, by using global data, Omani tourism circularity performance will be evaluated and compared with leading circular economies and similar contexts in Arabian Gulf. In order to evaluate circular performance of economy, despite there are many direct and indirect indicators and criteria, due to data availability, it will be preliminary comparison about followings:

- GDP
- GDP Per Capita
- Human Development Index
- Ranking of Happiness
- Easy of Doing Business
- Travel & Tourism competitiveness index

- Logistics Performance Index
- Knowledge based Economy
- Corruption perception Index
- Global sustainability Competitiveness Index

**Table 2 Comparison between Oman and Leading Circular Economies**

2015 Global Comparisons	Oman	NL	DK	SE	CH	FI
GDP	62	17	33	21	20	40
GDP Per Capita	40	12	7	8	5	16
Human Development	52	5	4	14	3	24
Ranking of Happiness	22	7	3	8	1	6
Easy of Doing Business	70	28	3	8	26	10
Travel & Tourism	65	14	27	23	6	22
Logistics Performance	59	2	17	6	14	24
Knowledge based	47	4	3	1	10	2
Corruption perception	45	87	91	89	86	90
Global sustainability	61	28	9	2	5	4

Adopted by Oman Global Standing Data (2016), <http://globalstanding.ncsi.gov.om/> retrieved on 10.01.2017

Table-2 shows the comparison between leading circular economies (NL for Netherland, DK for Denmark, SE for Sweden, CH for Switzerland, FI for Finland) and Oman by global ranking. As seen on the Table-2 Northern European Economies are leading on considerations directly and/or indirectly linked circularity. Except, *Corruption Perception Index*, descending numbers are better positions in global context.

**Table 3 Comparison between Oman and Other GCC Economies**

2015 Global Comparisons	Oman	KSA	UAE	Qatar	Kuwait	Bahrain
GDP	5	1	2	3	4	6
GDP Per Capita	6	5	2	1	3	4
Human Development	6	2	3	1	5	4
Ranking of Happiness	2	4	1	3	5	6
Easy of Doing Business	4	5	1	3	6	2

<b>Travel &amp; Tourism</b>	5	4	1	2	6	3
<b>Logistics Performance</b>	6	3	1	2	5	4
<b>Knowledge based</b>	3	4	1	5	6	2
<b>Corruption perception</b>	6	3	2	1	5	4
<b>Global sustainability</b>	2	1	5	3	4	6

Adopted by Oman Global Standing Data 2016, <http://globalstanding.ncsi.gov.om/> retrieved on 10.01.2017

Table-3 shows the comparison between GCC economies (KSA for Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, UAE for United Arab Emirates) and Oman by regional ranking. Regional ranking data have been modified from global data. As seen on the Table, despite Oman is not leading economy in the Gulf in any circularity symptoms, has relatively better ranks in *Happiness* and *Global Sustainability Competitiveness Index*.

Oman ranks 70 out of 189 countries rated by *the World Bank's Ease of Doing Business 2016 Survey*, and positive aspects include registration of property, the tax system from a business perspective and trading across borders. Economic freedoms are constrained by continuing state involvement in the private sector and the energy sector remains largely state-owned (EHER, 2015).

On the way of circular tourism, in order to evaluate and compare Omani tourism performance with other contexts, Table 4 gives indexes and pillars of competitiveness in travel and tourism. It can be said Oman is not far away to circularity in general.

**Table 4 Oman: Travel and Tourism Competitiveness Index and Pillars (2015)**

Value 1-7 highest

The Travel & Tourism Competitiveness Index	Business Environment	Safety and Security	Health and Hygiene	Human resources and labour market
3.79	5.29	6.38	5.37	4.27
ICT Readiness	Prioritization of T&T	International Openness	Price Competitiveness	Environmental Sustainability
4.83	4.51	2.07	5.33	4.07
Air Transport Infrastructure	Ground and Port Infrastructure	Tourist Service Infrastructure	Natural Resources	Cultural Resources & Business Travel
2.98	4.25	4.53	2.59	1.45

<http://globalstanding.ncsi.gov.om/bqwwyb/the-travel-and-tourism-competitiveness-index?lang=en> Retrieved on 2/7/2017

After comparing and evaluating Omani tourism circularity performance, seems to be more convenient to analyze by SWOT. Figure-4 is designed for SWOT Analysis of Omani circular tourism.

<p><b>Strengths</b></p> <p>Young population Higher computer literacy Higher happiness Unutilized and unpolluted fields Social solidarity Safety and security Sustainable competitiveness Emerging destination Hospitable society Unique and eccentric culture</p>	<p><b>Weaknesses</b></p> <p>Import-dependent production Lack of natural reserves Agricultural production capabilities Seasonality in tourism Poor productivity in both sector Public-dominant economy Innovative business ideas Poor performance in service sector Poor logistic infrastructure Supply chain management</p>
<p><b>Opportunities</b></p> <p>The increase of food demands Renewable energy potentials Regional investors Organic production</p>	<p><b>Threats</b></p> <p>Water resources Energy shortage Vulnerable hydrocarbon sector Unemployment Global and Regional conflicts Climate change</p>

Figure-4 SWOT Analysis of Oman Circular Tourism

## Milestones

In Oman, tourism needs to be integrated into national, regional and international legislation/regulations that encompass and encourage circular economy strategies. As preliminary steps, sustainable development strategies as well as green economy like green employment, green investment, planning, procurement, fuel efficiency and renewable energy programs must be prioritized at macro and destination level of tourism policy and planning in Oman. There are many ways that public and private sectors can learn about and get meaningfully involved in the sharing economy.

The first step is understanding the drivers and principles that enable new tourism business models and ways to create value to evolve. At this step for business and private sector leaders, recommendations below are intended to serve as guidelines for better understanding of:

- The potential effects of collaborative consumption models in tourism sector and business.
- Lessons and insights that incumbents have already learned, such as focusing on underlying drivers affecting why people opt for collaborative consumption models:
- The attractiveness, rationale and diversity of collaborative consumption funding options for investors and entrepreneurs

In order to promote innovation, seeking partnerships and joint ventures that enable leveraging of assets, inventory and expertise will be the second step. Thirdly, investigate non-monetary value creation, resilience strategy, and non-monetary and other qualitative performance metrics.

On the other hand, like in Oman, centralized and planned tourism policy-makers need to consider recommendations below for circular tourism economy:

- Identifying opportunities to create and promote a “shareable destination”
- working with municipal agencies to develop and implement appropriate legal and regulatory mechanisms for access based and collaborative forms of business, consumption, production and exchange

- collecting data on consumption and waste patterns within the destination, which gives a foundation for companies to build business models and attract funding (Rinne, 2013).

## CONCLUSION

The adoption of sharing economy principles, systems and drivers has the potential to reshape business models and create valuable opportunities for companies – large and small, start-up and established – who can understand and harness the advantages available (Rinne, 2013). Circular tourism could require a mixture of circular business models and a great deal of product and service innovation. Carefully choose the business model that is right for their business, recognizing there is no one “right” answer for all companies to succeed in the circular economy. In implementing new circular business models, they make sure to identify and capitalize on external enablers and business ecosystems (Dresdell & Rutqvist, 2013).

With its circular economy proposals, Government is taking a big step towards realizing its overarching purpose of making economic growth truly sustainable. Public authorities and destination groups have a key role to play in the full realization of what the sharing economy could become for circular and *shareable destinations* (Rinne, 2013). Tourists have a central role too. Given the interdependent strands of the circularity framework, success will depend on strong partnerships between Government, public sector partners and crucially, the private sector.

There is still a need for further, in-depth research on where the greatest opportunities lie and how they can best be realized in order to translate the vision into reality. Also required are more relevant statistics to track progress together with more consistent, economy-wide methodologies to be able to accurately assess the opportunities (Mearns, 2015).

The evidence of the broad benefits of a circular approach is clear, both at a national and destination levels in Oman. Though true circularity is not achievable in the short term, Oman is able to learn from others as their visions become reality. Macro economical forces will lead moreover shape circularity in Oman. Omani tourism should take GCC countries advantage, not only as competitors but also collaborator markets. Logistics and supply chain should be improved in circular way. Nationwide perspective should be circular economy, then tourism. The highest awareness and sustainable policies on water reserves, consumption and quality are vital important.

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# Niche Marketing And Tourism

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## Abstract

Tourism is an important sector contributing to the development of the country's economy. In order to get more share from this competitive sector, more profitable new tourism markets should be established and appropriate marketing strategies should be developed. In this study, the term of niche marketing and the determination of niche market are examined. The relationship between niche marketing and other marketing methods is mentioned and its advantages and disadvantages are stated. In addition, the applications of niche market in the tourism industry has been indicated and the reasons for increasing practice of niche marketing as a strategy by marketers are being identified. This paper is intended to present a concise status of niche marketing and thereby provide a basis for marketers and research persons.

**Keywords:** Niche marketing, niche marketing strategy, niche tourism, special interest tourism.



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## **INTRODUCTION**

With the 20th century, rapid changes took place throughout the world in social, cultural and economic life. People's needs and desires have increased with the rising prosperity. Consumers want to satisfy their demands and needs at the highest level with increasing welfare. All these changes and technological developments have brought many innovations to production and marketing methods. In order to meet the wishes and needs of the consumers in the best way, it is aimed to develop special products and services and present them to customers. All these changes and technological developments have brought many innovations to production and marketing methods. As order to meet the wishes and needs of the customers in the best way, it is aimed to develop special products and services and present to them (Choudhary, 2014). Therefore, requirements of our time and the changing of the customers' priorities have put the niche marketing on the agenda of companies. It could be argued that with the increase of competition in the global world, middle and small businesses are more likely to be in niche markets due to their weak position against the big businesses. Small and medium-sized enterprises have gone to great lengths to protect themselves by trying to obtain niche markets that do not attract the attention of large businesses. Niche market is a small market consisting of an individual customer or a small group of customers with similar characteristics or needs. The definition of niche marketing is that positioning into small, profitable homogeneous market segments which ignored or neglected by others (Dalgic and Leeuw, 1994).

Mass goods and services seem to be inadequate to meet the wants and needs of the consumers shaped in this age. The necessity of developing and marketing special goods and services in order to satisfy the changing demands and needs of consumers has increased the importance of niche marketing. This paper is significant as it could enlighten related companies in tourism industry about the niche marketing techniques. In addition, it is also notable as it might guide researchers who intend to study on a relevant subject.

### **Niche Marketing Framework**

Before the industrial revolution, production and marketing were carried out in accordance with the specific wants and needs of customers in small, remote and scattered niche markets. Along with the industrial revolution, mass production and marketing came out. But since World War II, the process has been reversed, especially the major American and European markets have begun to divide into small markets. In this segmentation, single-parent households, families with double income and no children, working women, technological advances, changing demographic characteristics and lifestyles, increasing spare time, the decline in brand loyalty, confronting with too many products, services, stores and spreading the promotional activities over large area, have been effective (Dalgic and Leeuw, 1994). Changing in customer preferences and wants/needs have created diverse markets, in contrast to the traditional mass market. Looking at the evolutionary process of niche marketing, it is seen that it emerged before the industrial revolution and although it was in the shadow of mass marketization, it was continued to be applied for a while and for the last 20 years it has been seen a very important (Yapraklı, 2004).

It is becoming increasingly difficult to maintain continuity in today's market where competition and the number of competitors entering the market is increasing day by day. In the eradicate competition conditions imposed by globalization, the reshaping of marketing policies is gaining importance (Soyuer, 2004). The changing needs of enterprises and organizational markets, increasing competition and structural changes, developments in production and information technologies, increasing diversification in consumer tastes and habits challenge the companies and consequently reducing the validity of traditional strategies (Dalgic, 2002). The increased diversity of markets and advanced technologies

enabling new marketing approaches and the deterioration of large companies and their traditional marketing approaches (Dalgic and Leeuw, 1994). In this circumstances, especially small and medium-sized enterprises have been turning to niche marketing in order to survive in a highly competitive environment and to maximize their marketing advantages (Demir and Şahin, 2000). Small businesses view niche marketing as an important way out of the competition of big businesses in protecting their assets, maintaining their profitability, having the potential to grow, and creating consumer dependence (Dalgic and Leeuw, 1994). Various definitions of niche marketing have been made. Kotler (2003) defined niche marketing as the process of addressing an unsatisfied small market segment. Another definition of niche marketing is identifying consumers' special wishes and then creating a product, action, situation or opportunity that fits their personality and wants (Brey, 1991; Allen etc., 2012). According to Dalgic and Leeuw (1994), niche is a small market consisting of a small number of customer groups with similar characteristic needs and they describe the niche market as a small market consisting of a small number of customer groups with similar characteristic needs. One of the most comprehensive definitions of niche marketing belongs to Collins. According to Collins (1994), niche marketing is a marketing technique that has made it compulsory to re-organize its goods and services in accordance with the customers, thus offer the best opportunity to come from above the competition. Therefore, it enables the companies to provide total customer satisfaction by fulfilling their special wants and needs and actualizing the quality revolution. Although the niche market is defined as a small market in real terms, it can sometimes be made up of millions of individuals. It is said that the number of citizens with disabilities in Turkey is around 8 million, and a product that deals with all the disability will be both a niche and a mass market. And although niche markets in general are really small markets, big markets often originate from niche markets (Dalgic, 2002). In niche marketing, instead of producing goods / services that everyone likes, it is about the production of goods / services that few people love very much (Noy, 2010). Moving from common points of definitions, niche marketing can be defined as a process of offering the products that are differentiated and do not have many alternatives to an individual customer or a narrowly defined group of customers with similar characteristics or needs (Albayrak, 2006; Friedman, Lopez-Pumarejo and Weiser Friedman, 2007) and the main features can be summarised as follow (Kotler, 2003):

- The customers in the niche have a distinct set of needs.
- They are willing to pay a premium to the firm that best satisfies their needs.
- The niche is not likely to attract other competitors.
- The nicher gains certain economies through specialization.
- The niche has size, profit, and growth potential.

There are different approaches to niche marketing and these approaches in the literature can be classified under three groups. The first group is the "push marketing" approach. This approach takes the "market segmentation" one step further by creating a distinct group of customers (Kara and Kaynak, 1997). The second approach is the "pull marketing" approach. Similarly, to the first group, it is closely related to the market segmentation. However, more attention is paid to the customer's point of view here. Niche marketing is simply defined as a form of concentrated marketing (Shani and Chalasani, 1992; Weinstein, 1994; Parrish, Cassill, Oxenham and Jones, 2005). Shani and Chalasani (1992) separated niche marketing from market segmentation. According to them market segmentation is characterized by the "top-down" approach, which breaking a large market into smaller and more manageable submarkets. On the other side niche marketing is characterized by "bottom up" approach which marketer begin from meeting the wants and needs of a few customers and gradually

builds up a larger customer base. In the third approach, both "push marketing" and "pull marketing" approaches are accepted. According to this approach, the niche market is to divide a market segment into subgroups or into smaller customer groups. The niche market divides the traditional market into smaller sub-markets and applies different marketing programs to each small sub-market segment or niches. The successes of the niches in these sub-markets are related to specializations and differentiations (Linneman and Stanton, 1991; Kotler, 2003).

### **Identifying a Niche Market**

In order to determine the niche market, firstly, the existing market needs to be well known and then it should be analysed whether this market will be divided into smaller niche markets. Therefore, some features that determine niche market are listed below (Dalgic and Leeuw, 1994):

- It should have sufficient size and profitability.
- There should be growth potential.
- Customers with purchasing power.
- A different approach should be needed.
- There must be competitive advantage for the new entrants companies.
- The market must not be noticed by other businesses.

However, to determine the potential niche market, the customers who are one of the most important power of the companies, needs to be well analysed. Therefore, the companies need to know the answers to the questions below (Linneman and Stanton, 1991; Parrish etc., 2005):

- Who are your heavy and light users?
- Which customers are expanding their purchases?
- Where are your customers located?
- Which customers can you most profitably serve?
- What do your customers really value?
- Do your customers purchase your product with the same frequency?
- What promotion best appeals to your various customers?
- Who makes the purchasing decisions?
- Do all your customers buy your whole line of products and services?

According to Dalgic and Leeuw, (1994), beside the determine the target customers some points must be taken into account when deciding on the niche market and achieving success. Some of them are listed below:

- Companies should know themselves. They should analyse their own structures and determine their strengths and weaknesses, their uniqueness, competitive advantages, distinctive competences, regional and traditional characteristics.
- Companies should know their customers well. They should offer them a high value added product.
- Companies should know their competitors. The definition of competitors is important in terms of creating differences and preventing possible attacks.

- Companies should develop a continuous information system. Present-day database techniques can provide comparatively cheap, efficient marketing tool. This database can register prospects and customer traits. Due to the fact that in niche marketing the decisions based on profit and not on sales volume, which is of secondary importance, the profit figures are needed. Also customer databases need to be linked to other marketing information systems and business intelligence systems in order to be responsive to the marketplace.
- Companies should apply differentiation. They should offer significant benefits to their customers, determine what customers real values are and appeal to these values better than anyone else. The position should taken by differentiation and segmentation. The position is better taken on their own strengths and the weaknesses of others. Also developing a clear product image for each niche is very important.
- Companies should not compete in the same market segments with themselves and avoid competing with their own products in the same market segments.
- Companies should cover all the bases to deter potential competitors. To do this, they create high entry barriers through building a close relationship with their customers, patents, copyrights, alliances and relationship marketing.
- Companies should stay flexible and make sure that you do not exceed their limit by expanding all their abilities and resources.
- Companies should develop a corporate marketing strategy as they cannot develop their niche markets as stand-alone markets.
- Companies should be alert and be in control as it is essential to watch constantly for shifts in the marketplace and take the necessary measurements.
- Companies should not be static but look for new pastures continuously and consider conglomerate diversification (be careful, watch your resources). They should also look at emerging markets.
- Companies should minimize their dependence on any one customer or product and try to increase alternatives.

### **The Steps to Implement Niche Marketing**

The steps to implement niche marketing are basically as follows (İslamoğlu, 1999: 272).

- Besides existing customer base and market, a market segment / segments is chosen by investigated the opportunities of the current market.
- Emerging markets and their trends are explored.
- Developments in publications related to the serving market niche are constantly monitored.
- The prospective customers who buy, show interest in, or tend to buy products and/or services of the companies should be detected with market researches.
- Existing and potential customers are grouped by taking into account their certain behaviour patterns.
- If there is another niche that is not targeted at the market, production or service can be tailored or modified to meet its needs.
- Marketing mix and promotional activities are planned and implemented.

## **Advantages and Disadvantages of Niche Marketing**

In the literature, both the advantages and disadvantages of niche marketing have been mentioned, but mostly their advantages are stated. Some them are given below.

### Advantages:

The fastest growth method for companies is niche marketing. Niche marketing provide the companies the high competition, high profit margins and strong market position (Byers, 1991). It is claimed that niche marketing provides the best opportunity to companies for overcoming the competition, making quality revolution and providing total consumer satisfaction (Collins, 1994). According to Parrish (2003) in niche marketing, as the companies have a small customer base, they have a chance to get to know them very well and satisfy their wants and needs properly. In return customer satisfaction and loyalty are established. Another advantage is that the market segment can be identifiable exactly and the customers are fit for one or more of the company's expertise areas (Noy, 2010). Besides, there is no need for a lot of funding to attract the attention of customers who are interested in the niche market's goods and services (Özcan, 1997).

Dalgic and Leeuw (1994) point out that companies can compete with their competitors by turning to niche markets and thus have a better chance of survival. Niche marketing also ensure expertise on a subject and also give the opportunity to transfer this expertise to other products, areas and niche markets. Kotler (2003) claims that niche marketing is profitable as the companies knows the business and their customers' needs so well they take the better position to meet their need; thus they can charge a substantial mark up over costs due to the added value, and earn higher accordingly. Besides the profitability another advantage offered by niche marketing is easy defence against potential competitors (Parrish vd., 2005). The customers targeted by niche market can be reached through easily identifiable distribution channels (media, commercial publications, unions, conferences, etc.) (Özcan, 1997). Niche marketing makes the marketing activities easier. Companies that focus on a specific industry or a certain geographical area can develop more effective marketing strategies. Instead of producing goods and services that will satisfy a wide range of customers and reaching them with a wide distribution network, it can be heavily focused on a small market segment with narrow marketing strategies and fewer resources (Demir and Şahin, 2000).

### Disadvantages:

Despite its many advantages, niche marketing includes some risks. The first risk is that the competitors will attack to get a share of the profitable market. The niche market does not make profit forever. Even if it is protected by patents or laws, a profitable niche will always attract competition, and when competition is on the rise, the companies will have difficulties to differentiate themselves from other companies (Brodsky, 2004). The second risk is cannibalization. When a company introduces a new product to the market, one of its own established markets is "eaten away" by it. This is called "cannibalization" (Parrish etc., 2005). The third risk is that changing of the preferences of the customers. When this preferences change the niche markets wear down easily as it may probably be not tolerated this sudden changes (Shani and Chalasani, 1992).

### Relation of Niche Marketing to Other Marketing Methods (A Comparison of Niche Marketing and Mass Marketing)

Niche marketing has evolved as an alternative marketing method to mass marketing (Kotler, 2003). While some researches highlight niche marketing, others highlight mass marketing.

Table 1. Mass Marketing vs. Niche Marketing

	Mass Marketing	Niche Marketing
<b>Market</b>	Large market	Small market
<b>Product</b>	Generic or broad product	Focused or specialized product
<b>Customer</b>	Fickle customers	Loyal customers
<b>Organization</b>	Central and bureaucratic	Centrifugal and flexible
<b>Target</b>	All market	A small group that have not been met their needs
<b>Competition</b>	Intense competition	No competition or weak competition
<b>Marketing</b>	Product focused	Modern marketing approach
<b>Production / Profitability</b>	High production quantity	High profit margin

**Source:** Parrish, 2003: 26; Albayrak, 2006:223.

As in table 1, mass market is characterized as a big market, no brand, general product and customers with low loyalty. In niche market, there are small markets, customized products and loyal customers. There is intense competition in mass marketing and there is little competition in niche marketing. There is high volume production in mass market but high profit margins in niche marketing.

When looking at the product life cycle shown below in figure 1, an interesting picture emerges. In the introduction stage (entry stage) the product is the niche. At times, this niche product becomes a mass market. When the product reaches maturity the market becomes saturated, innovation occurs and eventually the mass market tends to turn niche markets (Parrish, 2003; Allen, Parrish, Cassill and Oxenham, 2012). In niche marketing, instead of producing goods and services that everyone likes, the goods and services are produced that few people like very much. In mass markets, a single product is made for the whole market and many people are satisfied a little (Kotler, 2003).



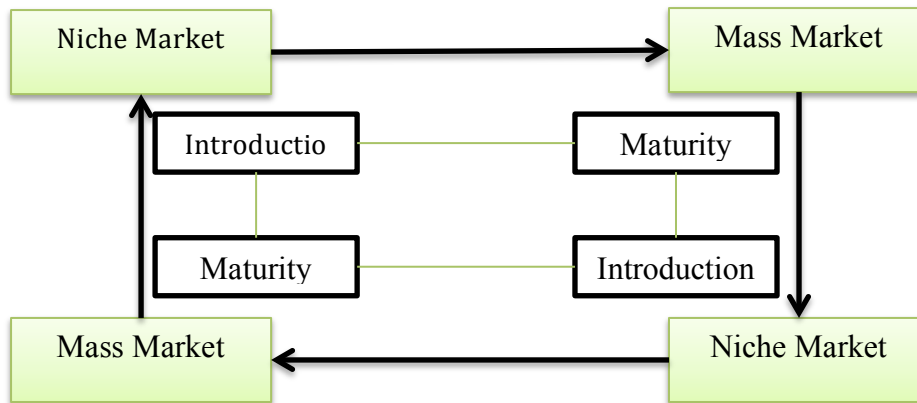


Figure 1: Evolution Cycle of Niche Markets and Mass Markets (Parrish, 2003:27).

Although market segmentation and niche marketing consider analogous and even interchangeable, they are actually different. Market segmentation is done from top to bottom. A big market divides in to smaller and easily managed segments. It is called a top-down approach. On the other hand, niche marketing is a bottom-up approach where the marketer starts from the needs of a few customers and gradually builds up a larger customer base. This is in contrast to breaking up a market into smaller markets. In this respect niche marketing may be termed as inverted or reversed segmentation (Dalgic and Leeuw 1994).

Table 2. Market Segmentation vs. Niche Marketing

Market Segmentation	Niche Marketing
Top-down approach	Bottom-up approach
The outpoint is differences	The outpoint is similarity
All slice elements are considered similar	Even a single customer can be a goal
Relatively large	Relatively small
The output point is an existing product	The output point is unmet wants and needs
Focus on a so-called homogeneous group	Focuses on individuals or small group
The objective is to manageable small group	The objective is to meet special needs

Source: Albayrak, 2006:223

As shown in Table 2, niche marketing benefits from relational marketing and database marketing. To achieve success in niche marketing, it is necessary to develop long-lasting and strong relationships between companies and customers and thus to provide customer loyalty (Dalgic and Leeuw, 1994). Relationship marketing establish, maintenance and enrichment the relationship with customers and other business partners for ensuring the companies achieving their objectives. The companies should also take advantage of database marketing to implement relationship marketing.

Database marketing is a strategy that describes how to communicate with, act on, and maintain current and prospective customers using customer databases and other databases (products, suppliers, resellers). With using the relationship marketing and database marketing in a harmonious, the protective walls against competitors, that is the most important advantages of niche marketing, could be set up (Albayrak, 2006).

## Niche Marketing in Tourism Sector

As a growing segment of the industry, niche tourism has recently begun to gain importance in the modern tourism sector which has high competitiveness. Instead of trying to cater to the needs of all guests, the niche tourism has a sophisticated process to distinguish and differentiate tourists. The tourists interested in niche tourism can be described as a tourists who have very specific individual interests, needs, desires and priorities and try to achieve them with the experience or activity they will experience in a particular destination (Novelli, 2005).

While many companies operating in classical tourism have difficulties in finding customers in intense competition environment; the companies that organize tours for special interest tourism can find customers easily. For small businesses to survive in the sector; it is becoming compulsory to prepare travel programs targeting special interests, and to specialize in congress and meeting etc. tourism and to appeal to customers who are inclined to create their own vacation by staying outside mass tourism (Küçükaslan, 2009). Tourism managers and planners who see tourism as a dynamic tool in terms of economic development, consider the niche marketing as a means to attract the tourists who are more profitable, less harmful and most importantly long staying (Novelli, 2005). For example, Marriott used to be an upscale hotel chain. Today, besides the Marriott Hotels (the company's major business), there are Marriott Suites, Residence Inns by Marriott, Courtyards by Marriott, and Fairfield Inns – each serving a smaller, targeted segment of the market and competing with niche firms like Noble House Hotels on one end and small luxury hotels on the other (Noy, 2010).

It is estimated that in the tourism industry where intense competition is experienced due to globalization, big businesses will grow bigger, medium-sized businesses will disappear and small businesses can survive only in niche markets. Therefore, in today's competitive environment, doing things that are not done and entering the markets (eg. underwater tourism, ecotourism types, etc.) that have not yet been entered but have certain potentials, enables small businesses to survive (Tekeli, 2001). The types of tourism that niche marketing can be applied to are very diverse. The types of special interest tourism are suitable for niche marketing. For example, farm tourism, bird watching, dark tourism, hunting tourism, adventure tourism etc.

Table 3. Classification of Special Interest Tourism Types

Types Based on Nature	Types Based on Culture	Types Based on Education	Types Based on a Hobbies
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Botanical Tourism</li> <li>• Farm Tourism</li> <li>• Mountain Tourism</li> <li>• Nature Tourism</li> <li>• Air Sports Tourism</li> <li>• Winter / Ski Tourism</li> <li>• Village Tourism</li> <li>• Bird Watching</li> <li>• Water sports Tourism</li> <li>• Agricultural Tourism</li> <li>• Highland Tourism</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Dark Tourism</li> <li>• Ethnic Tourism</li> <li>• Festival Tourist</li> <li>• Silk Road Tourism</li> <li>• Faith Tourism</li> <li>• Cultural Tourism</li> <li>• Third Age Tourism</li> <li>• Cultural Heritage Tourism</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Educational Tourism</li> <li>• Youth Tourism</li> <li>• Congress tourism</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Shopping Tourism</li> <li>• Hunting Tourism</li> <li>• Golf Tourism</li> <li>• Gambling Tourism</li> <li>• Adventure Tourism</li> <li>• Cave Tourism</li> <li>• Rafting Tourism</li> <li>• Wine Tourism</li> <li>• Yacht Tourism</li> </ul>

Source: Kozak and Bahçe, 2006:137.

As shown in table 3, there are types of niche tourism for tourists who demand more specific products and services other than mass tourism that is defined as sea-sand-sun can offer. Some of these tourism types require less investment and financial resources. Village tourism and agricultural tourism are some of them.

## **CONCLUSIONS**

At the present time, globalizing has changed the rules and techniques of the traditional marketing that is not sufficient enough any longer. As the customers prosperity have increased, they try to satisfy their wants and needs at the highest level, but the mass products are inadequate to meet this demand. Today's consumer with individualistic approach will demand individualized products and services because of intending to differentiate himself.

This is the case within the tourism industry. Studies to investigate changes in the expectations, wants and needs of tourists reveal that tourists now prefer different types of tourism activities instead of just sea, sand and sun. Therefore, countries should plan and develop tourism types that will meet differentiated and high-level expectations, desires and preferences in order to increase share in the tourism market.

Tourists are the most important part of marketing planning. The number of tourists is so high, the countries where they come are so diverse and their needs and buying habits are so different that companies do not have the opportunity to satisfy all tourists. For this reason, every company is confronted with the obligation to identify areas where they can serve in the best and most efficient way. Moreover, it is unimaginable that a particular tourism product has all the qualities that are appropriate to the expectation and needs of all the tourists. Therefore, instead of spending marketing efforts for trying to please all tourists, it would be right to identify those that are particularly important for companies, and to direct marketing efforts solely on the needs and desires of this particular segment. Tourism marketers would be better think small rather than big. Smaller market shares, small advertising budgets, but premium prices. In accordance with the niche marketing principle, producing and marketing goods and services that few people like very much, instead of goods / services that everyone likes a little, will contribute to grow the tourism industry.

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# Individual Innovativeness of Chefs\*

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## Abstract

The purpose of this study is to evaluate individual innovativeness of chefs. Data were collected through a questionnaire developed based on Hurt, Joseph and Cook's (1977) "Individual Innovativeness Scale", from the chefs attending to the 15<sup>th</sup> *International Istanbul Gastronomy Festival* organized by the *Federation of Turkish Chefs* in Istanbul in *TUYAP Fair and Exhibition Center* between the dates 2<sup>nd</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> February 2017, through the convenience sampling technique. In return, among 103 questionnaires, 101 of them were usable for statistical analysis. The reliability analysis of Cronbach's Alpha showed highly acceptable result ( $\alpha=.96$ ) and explanatory factor analysis extracted two factors; (a) resistance to innovation and (b) familiarity (tendency) to innovation. These two factors have similar mean values indicating the midpoint level of individual innovativeness of chefs both in resistance and tendency to innovation. Further to that, resistance and tendency to innovation differ by business type, term of employment in the current business and total term of employment in the sector.

**Keywords:** Chefs, Individual Innovativeness, Survey

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## **Introduction**

Globally increasing competition and rapidly changing technologies make businesses more open to failure in an unprecedented manner. Therefore, being innovative and adaptive to changes is gaining more and more importance in today's competitive business environment. In the future, the only way to grow as a successful business is related with innovativeness, which, in fact, makes significant contribution to the performance and competitiveness of businesses (Tajeddini and Trueman, 2014: 62). As any other businesses, tourism businesses also act in a completely competitive business environment and therefore competitiveness of tourism enterprises depends on satisfying the potential customers' new product needs with the ability of producing high quality and low cost products (Zehrer, Pechlaner and Reuter, 2013: 12). The most significant benefit of innovation for the food and beverage enterprises is its contribution to increase the business competitiveness. However, innovation in food and beverage sector can easily be replicated by competitors. When innovation is considered as a continuous business process in food and beverage sector, it is expected to make a contribution to increase the barriers against me-tooism in competition. By this way, innovation helps food and beverage enterprise to gain competitive advantage in the long run (Ottenbacher and Harrington, 2007: 444). Today professional human resources management applications, as being source of organizational success, lead a business to be long term innovation oriented (Balazs, 2002: 248). As being one of the most important segments of human resources for food and beverage operations, chefs play significant roles in innovativeness and successful innovation applications of food and beverage operations. Although there is a quite number of studies on innovation and innovativeness and also their benefits to businesses, there is a lack of focus on innovation and innovativeness in tourism businesses (Erdem, Gökdeniz and Met, 2011: 79; Coşkun, Mesci and Kılınç, 2013: 103; Küçük and Kocaman, 2014: 38), particularly studies on innovation and innovativeness focusing on food and beverage operations are very limited (Ottenbacher and Harrington, 2009: 236; Çakıcı, Çalhan and Karamustafa, 2016: 53). Some researchers studying innovation in food and beverage operations (Ottenbacher and Harrington, 2007; Stierand and Lynch, 2008) believe that studying chefs' innovativeness, innovation behaviors, beliefs on and perceptions of innovation in different samples, places and market segments will make contribution to the related body of knowledge representing the importance of the study. In this context, the aim of this study is to evaluate individual innovativeness of chefs.

## **1. Literature Review**

The importance of innovation and its necessity in gaining competitive advantage by the businesses have been emphasized by both the academic environments and practitioners. In this respect, businesses focus on development in products, processes, techniques and procedures, and change managerial systems continuously. Activities of businesses considering innovation are not only to satisfy continuously changing needs and wants of consumers but also to facilitate increase of product quality and reduction of costs (Tüzünkan and Albayrak, 2015: 447). The word innovation has its roots in Latin which is "innovare" meaning doing new things; it is also seen as a process of transforming opportunities into ideas and putting these ideas into practice (Tidd, Bessant and Pavitt, 2005: 66). Organization of Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) Oslo Manual (2005: 46) defines the term innovation as "the implementation of a new or significantly improved product (good or service), or process, a new marketing method, or a new organizational method in business practices, workplace organization or external relations". The concept of innovativeness is defined as supporting and adoption tendency to new ideas, originality, experiments and creative processes which result in new goods, services or technological processes (Lumpkin and Dess, 1996: 142). Innovativeness is discussed and defined by Garcia and Calantone (2002: 113) both from the macro and micro perspectives. From the macro perspective,

innovativeness is seen as the capacity of creation of innovation geared to changes in science, technology and or an industrial market structure while it is described as the capacity of creation of innovation which is expected to affect a business' existing marketing and technologic sources as well as its capabilities, knowledge and capacity or strategies from the micro perspective.

Gebert, Boerner and Lanwehr (2003: 42) define the innovativeness concept as the capacity of a firm to improve its existing products and or processes and also its ability to benefit from its creative resources. According to Hult, Hurley and Knight (2004: 430), innovativeness can be expressed as the capacity of a firm to develop new products, processes or ideas. Another definition of innovativeness is that it is an organizational culture which represents openness to new ideas and willingness and adoption of innovations by the owners particularly in small businesses (Verhees and Meulenbergh, 2004:138). Based on these definitions, it can be said that innovativeness is defined from the business perspective and seen as the capacity and adoption of innovation. Within the context of food and beverage sector, in terms of innovativeness it is possible to say that the individual innovativeness of employees determines the innovation capacity of a business. In fact, as Crotts and Gupta (2013: 25) argue, in labor intensive sectors such as tourism, having highly qualified human resources is significantly important for innovativeness; hence the importance of individual innovativeness is apparent.

### **1.1. Individual Innovativeness**

While some individuals tend to take experience risk of an innovation more, others can be skeptical to new ideas and reluctant to any change in the current applications. Because of various differences each person has, people react differently to a new idea, application or object, or adopting an innovation. In the case of an innovation an individual acts in accordance with his or her personality, culture and personal situation (Yi, Fiedler and Park, 2006: 394). In this context, the concept of individual innovativeness is seen as a period of willingness to change, and its adoption within the limits of personal situation (Hurt, Joseph and Cook, 1977: 58). Rogers (1983: 22) defines individual innovativeness as an adoption level of new ideas by one person in advance of comparing to others. Agarwal and Prasad (1998: 206) define the concept of individual innovativeness in the context of technology; according to them individual innovativeness is individual's willingness to try out a new information technology.

In fact, the roots of individual innovativeness go back to the Rogers' (1962) Diffusion of Innovations Theory. According to this theory, as Rogers argues in his later study (1983: 241), all individuals within a social system do not adopt an innovation at the same time. Moreover, adoption occurs within a time span and depending on the individuals' time to start to use an innovation. Individuals' level of innovativeness can be classified by adoption categories. Defining each individual one by one based on their innovation adoption levels is impossible; therefore, grouping them based on their similarities on innovativeness adoption levels is a requirement. For this purpose, based on their innovativeness levels, Rogers (1983) distinguishes individuals into five groups as follows; innovators, early adopters, early majority, late majority and laggards. Innovators (2.5%) are the self-confident and aggressive ones who are eager to try out new ideas and new things. Early adopters (13.5%) are seen as opinion leaders in a social system, and potential adopters value their knowledge and recommendations on innovations. Early majority (34%) and late majority (34%) are the critical mass that ensures adoption. The former group looks for productivity and practical benefits more than coolness and reputation; they adopt innovations earlier than average level of adoption. The latter group (34%) is similar to early adopters but also expects a lot of help and support before they are willing to commit; they are suspicious and they do not tend to adopt any innovation before seeing others adopted. Laggards (16%), as the term implies, are slow to



adopt. They are the most resistant group to change; and they do so only when forced to adopt because everyone else has (already adopted innovation). In other words, they are the last individuals to adopt an innovation. They generally take the past as reference and they make decisions based on traditional values and communication with others such as reference groups (Rogers, 1983: 248-250). Rogers' (1962) classification of individual innovativeness was used by Hurt, Joseph and Cook (1977) who developed a scale consisting of 20 statements to measure individual innovativeness. They indicate that this scale is found to be consistent to measure the individual innovativeness. In this study, the scale developed by Hurt, Joseph and Cook (1977) has been adapted and applied to measure the individual innovativeness of chefs.

## **1.2. The Importance of Innovativeness of Chefs**

To create successful food and beverage products and sustain them, it is inevitable to make adjustments and improvements based on technical capabilities of food and beverage operations and of course businesses, and most importantly chefs' experiences, knowledge and ideas consistent with continuously changing customer expectations and wants (Presenza, Abbate, Casali and Perano, 2017: 82). Chefs are qualified employees who give an opportunity of tasty and unexpected experiences to their customers and they can also be called as artificers and creators due to their qualifications (Hu, Horng and Teng, 2016: 194). Chefs affect gastronomic customs by creating new food innovations with their ideas and accumulation of knowledge and also act as charismatic leaders to their subordinates (Stierand and Lynch, 2008: 3). Chefs' charismas play an important role in forming business strategy and innovation culture in the organization (Balazs, 2002: 249). Chefs' leadership, innovativeness and motivation are the determinants of food related innovations in food and beverage operations. The main element of chefs' innovativeness is related to their search of new things to differentiate from the competitors (Albors-Garrigos, Barreto, García-Segovia, Martínez-Monzó and Hervás-Oliver, 2013: 33). Food and beverage enterprises, seeking to be successful both in the short-run and long-run, have to act with the chefs who are adaptable to changes and innovations. In addition to this, for chefs to be successful it is a need to develop innovations systematically (Ottenbacher and Harrington, 2007: 444). Innovative chefs have common characteristics of professionalism, loyalty, curiosity and willingness to learn, foresightedness, ambitiousness, trustiness, risk taking, decisiveness, determination and charisma (Horng and Lee, 2007: 7).

## **2. Methodology**

In this section, objectives, sampling and data collection techniques, data analyses and results are presented.

### **2.1. Objectives**

It is possible to distinguish the objectives of this study into two: (a) conceptual objectives and (b) empirical objectives. In the case of the former, as mentioned before, while the aim is to make contribution to the body of knowledge (current knowledge accumulation), in the case of the latter, as this study is carried out to evaluate the individual innovativeness of chefs working through primary data, it is expected to provide some practical implications.

### **2.2. Sampling and Data Collection**

By using convenience sampling technique, primary data was collected from the chefs attending to the 15<sup>th</sup> *International Istanbul Gastronomy Festival* organized by the *Federation of Turkish Chefs* in Istanbul in *TUYAP Fair and Exhibition Center* between the dates 2<sup>nd</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> February 2017. Primary data collection tool was a questionnaire consisting of 20 items developed by Hurt, Joseph and Cook (1977). However, these items were adapted to chefs and appropriate questions on demographics were also added. According to De Vellis (2014: 157), a healthy data analysis requires a sample size that equals to five to ten fold of each item on

the scale. In this context, since the scale used in this study has 20 statements, it was calculated that a sample of 100 chefs would be satisfactory for the data analysis. Considering the non response rate, 150 questionnaires were distributed, in total 103 of them returned, and 101 of which were usable for the data analysis, representing approximately 67% response rate.

### 2.3. Analysis and Findings

Data were analyzed by a statistical package program. Mainly descriptive statistics, analysis of variances and explanatory factor analysis were used in the data analysis. Before applying appropriate statistics, *Shapiro-Wilk* and *Kolmogorov Smirnov* tests as normality tests of distribution were used.

**Table 1. Shapiro-Wilk, Kolmogorov Smirnov Significance Levels and Skewness and Kurtosis Values**

Individual	n	Skewness	Kurtosis	ShapiroWilk (p)	Kolmogorov Smirnov (p)
Innovativeness	101	-1,004	-,466	,000	,000

The results indicate that the data is not distributed normally and it is also argued that Likert type ordinal scales produce nonparametric data (Karamustafa and Biçkes, 2003). However, as normality tests can be affected by the sample size, before deciding to use nonparametric tests, skewness and kurtosis values were calculated. As given in Table 1, skewness and kurtosis values are between  $\pm 2$  indicating normal distribution of the data (George and Mallery, 2010), hence it is more appropriate to apply parametric tests to the primary data collected from the chefs through the questionnaires. Considering this issue, parametric tests of two independent samples of *t-test* and ANOVA were used to indicate the differences among demographics if any, and explanatory factor analysis was applied to explore the dimensions related to individual innovativeness of chefs. Reliability analysis results are given in Table 2.

**Table 2. Reliability Analysis**

Methods	Value
Cronbach's Alpha Method	.96
Split-half Method: (a) First Half	.92
Split-half Method: (b) Second Half	.94
Guttman's Method	Lambda 1: .91 Lambda 2: .96 Lambda 3: .96 Lambda 4: .92 Lambda 5: .94 Lambda 6: .97
Parallel Method	.96 Unbiased: .96
Strict Parallel Method	.96 Unbiased: .96

Reliability analyses of Cronbach's Alpha, Split-half, Guttman's, Parallel and Strict Parallel methods were calculated and all reliability values are above 0.80. Given this, it is possible to say that the scale is highly reliable (Kalaycı, 2010: 405-406). In order to evaluate if the data is appropriate for factor analysis or not, *Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy test* and *Bartlett's sphericity test* were applied. The KMO coefficient (0.93) of the scale is greater than 0.90 which shows excellent sampling adequacy (Kalaycı, 2010: 322). According to *Bartlett's sphericity test*, another test of appropriateness for factor analysis, the value for this test is found to be 1742.143 at  $p \leq .000$  level of significance. Based on these appropriateness results, explanatory factor analysis was carried out. The results of factor analysis for the scale consisting of 20 items are given in Table 3.

Table 3. Explanatory Factor Analysis

Factors / Items	Factor Loading Values		Extraction	Eigenvalue	Variance Explained	Mean	Cronbach's Alpha
	1	2					
Familiarity (Tendency) to Innovation							
I consider myself to be creative and original in my thinking and behavior.	.823		.730	11.198	62.211	3.54	.961
I enjoy trying new ideas.	.819		.819			3.48	
I feel that I am an influential member of my peer group.	.813		.760			3.52	
I enjoy taking part in the leadership responsibilities of the group I belong to.	.791		.779			3.60	
I am challenged by unanswered questions.	.790		.696			3.64	
My peers often ask me for advice or information.	.789		.830			3.44	
I am an inventive kind of person.	.775		.758			3.57	
I seek out new ways to do things.	.770		.738			3.53	
I am receptive to new ideas.	.738		.676			3.65	
I am challenged by ambiguities and unsolved problems.	.669		.688			3.49	
I find it stimulating to be original in my thinking and behavior.	.588		.599			3.55	
Resistance to Innovation							
I rarely trust new ideas until I can see whether the vast majority of people around me accept them.		.775	.693	1.239	6.882	3.49	.895
I tend to feel that the old way of living and doing things is the best way.		.756	.667			3.50	
I am suspicious of new inventions and new ways of thinking.		.714	.539			3.50	
I am aware that I am usually one of the last people in my group to accept something new.		.686	.598			3.39	
I must see other people using new innovations before I will consider them.		.675	.604			3.36	
I am generally cautious about accepting new ideas.		.637	.605			3.51	
I often find myself skeptical of new ideas.		.612	.657			3.56	
Factor Extraction Method: Principal Components Method; Rotation Method: Varimax Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy: %93.500 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 1742.143; sd: 153; p<0.000 Total Variance Explained: %69.094 Cronbach's Alpha (Whole Scale): .96 Scale Values: 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither Agree Nor Disagree, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree.							

Principal component analysis (PCA) was chosen as a method of data reduction (factor analysis) to determine factor structure and identify significant interpretable factors, varimax which is one of the orthogonal rotation methods was used and factor loadings above 0.50 are given in Table 3. As a result of the factor analysis the scale consisting of 20 items gathered under two different dimensions: "familiarity (tendency) to innovation" and "resistance to innovation". The statement of "I am reluctant about adopting new ways of doing things until I see them working for people around me" was loaded to "familiarity (tendency) to innovation"

dimension and the statement of "I frequently improvise methods for solving a problem when an answer is not apparent" was loaded to *"resistance to innovation"* dimension. The factor analysis was carried out based on 18 items excluding the abovementioned statements of "I am reluctant about adopting new ways of doing things until I see them working for people around me" and "I frequently improvise methods for solving a problem when an answer is not apparent" since they were thought to be loaded to incorrect dimension.

According to the results of factor analysis, dimension of *"familiarity (tendency) to innovation"* consists of 11 statements and explains 62.211 of total variance with the eigenvalue of 11.198; dimension of *"resistance to innovation"* consists of seven statements and explains 6.882% of total variance with the eigenvalue of 1.239. Explained variance ratios between 40% and 60% are expected satisfactory in the analysis carried out in social sciences (Tavşancıl, 2010: 48 quoting Scherer, Luther, Wiebe and Adams, 1988). In this research, the ratio of total variance explained of the scale is 69.094% which is above the expected level.

**Table 4. Demographics**

Characteristics	n	%	Characteristics	n	%
<b>Gender</b>			<b>Business Type</b>		
Female	14	13.9	Hotel	48	47.5
Male	87	86.1	Restaurant	34	33.7
Total	101	100	Other (Public/Private Sector)	19	18.8
<b>Age</b>			Total	101	100
35 years old and less	22	21.8	<b>Position</b>		
36 to 40 years old	22	21.8	Executive Chef	34	33.7
41 to 45 years old	13	12.9	Sous Chef	37	36.6
46 to 50 years old	24	23.8	Chef de Partie	30	29.7
51 years old and more	20	19.8	Total	101	100
Total	101	100	<b>Number of Staff</b>		
<b>Marital Status</b>			Less than 10	32	31.7
Married	72	71.3	10 to 19	40	39.6
Single	29	28.7	More than 20	29	28.7
Total	101	100	Total	101	100
<b>Education Level</b>			<b>Term of Employment in the Current Business</b>		
Secondary school	18	17.8	Less than 5 years	50	49.5
High school	64	63.4	5 to 9 years	27	26.7
Associate's degree	8	7.9	More than 10 years	24	23.8
Bachelor's degree	9	8.9	Total	101	100
Graduate degree	2	2	<b>Total Term of Employment in the Sector</b>		
Total	101	100	10 years and less	25	24.8
<b>Vocational Training/Education</b>			11 to 20 years	33	32.7
Hygiene-sanitation-cleaning	30	29.7	21 to 30 years	35	34.7
Work safety	49	48.5	31 years and more	8	7.9
Presentation-decoration	18	17.8	Total	101	100
Academy/Chef training	2	2	<b>Overseas (Abroad) Experience</b>		
In house training	2	2	Yes	26	25.7
Total	101	100	No	75	74.3
<b>Efforts for Professional Career Development</b>			Total	101	100
Attend a seminar or course	40	39.6			
Internet research	34	33.7			
Literature review	1	1			
Get service from competitors	4	4			
All	22	21.8			
Total	101	100			

Most of the participating chefs are male (87 out of 101 representing 86.1%), between the ages of 46 and 50 (24 out of 101 representing 23.8%), married (72 out of 101 representing 71.3%) and high school graduate (64 out of 101 representing 63.4%). Around half of the participating

chefs attended a work safety course (49 out of 101 representing 48.5%) and a career development seminar or course (40 out of 101 representing 39.6%). Most of the participating chefs are working at hotels (48 out of 101 representing 47.5%), as *sous chefs* (37 out of 101 representing 36.6%); and the number of staffs working in their department is between 10 and 19 (40 out of 101 representing 39.6%). They have been working in the current business for less than five years (50 out of 101 representing 49.5%), have professional work experience of 21 to 30 years (35 out of 101 representing 34.7%) and do not have any overseas experience (75 out of 101 representing 74.3%).

In order to understand whether the dimensions of chefs "*familiarity (tendency) to innovation*" and "*resistance to innovation*" differentiate in terms of demographics and other personal features or not, two independent samples of *t-tests* and ANOVA tests were applied as appropriate. As the results of the statistical tests imply, these two dimensions of chefs do not differentiate significantly in terms of gender, age, marital status, education level, career development, work position, number of staff and overseas experience. Tables 5, 6 and 7 indicate the two dimensions of chefs, i.e. "*familiarity (tendency) to innovation*" and "*resistance to innovation*", differentiate in terms of three personal features.

**Table 5. Results of ANOVA regarding Type of Business\***

Individual Innovativeness	Type of Business		n	Mean	s.d.	F	p	Multiple Comparisons
Familiarity (Tendency) to Innovation	A	Hotel	48	3,79	,720	3,608	,031	<u>Tukey HSD</u> A > B
	B	Restaurant	34	3,28	1,056			
	C	Other (Public/Private Sector)	19	3,42	,865			
Resistance To Innovation	A	Hotel	48	3,61	,815	1,740	,181	<u>No difference</u>
	B	Restaurant	34	3,41	,860			
	C	Other (Public/Private Sector)	19	3,23	,582			

\*: n= 101; Confidence Interval: %95; Significance Levels: p<0.05; Scale Values: 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither Agree Nor Disagree, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree.

In order to understand whether chefs' innovativeness differentiates in terms of their business type or not, an ANOVA test was carried out. As the results given in Table 5 indicate, chefs' "*familiarity (tendency) to innovation*" dimension differentiates considering their business type, though "*resistance to innovation*" dimension does not. In this context, it can be stated that chefs working at hotels are more innovative than those working at independent food and beverage enterprises (restaurants).

**Table 6. Results of ANOVA regarding the "Term of Employment in the Current Business"**

Individual Innovativeness	Term of Employment at Current Business		n	Mean	s.d.	F	p	Multiple Comparisons
Familiarity (Tendency) to Innovation	A	Less than 5 years	50	3,49	,926	1,858	,162	<u>No difference</u>
	B	Between 5 to 9 years	27	3,82	,673			
	C	More than 10 years	24	3,37	1,009			
Resistance to Innovation	A	Less than 5 years	50	3,38	,779	4,026	,021	<u>Tukey HSD</u> B > A and C
	B	Between 5 to 9 years	27	3,83	,754			
	C	More than 10 years	24	3,26	,797			

\*: n= 101; Confidence Interval: %95; Significance Levels: p<0.05; Scale Values: 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither Agree Nor Disagree, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree.

In order to understand whether chefs' innovativeness differentiates regarding the “term of employment in the current business type” or not, an ANOVA test was carried out. As the results given in Table 6 indicate, chefs' “*resistance to innovation*” dimension differentiates regarding the “term of employment in the current business”, though “*familiarity (tendency) to innovation*” dimension does not. In this context, it can be stated that chefs employed in the current business between 5 and 9 years are more resistant to innovation than those employed less than 5 years and more than 10 years.

**Table 7. Results of ANOVA regarding Total Term of Employment in the Sector\***

Individual Innovativeness	Total Term of Employment		n	Mean	s. d.	F	p	Multiple Comparisons
<b>Familiarity (Tendency) to Innovation</b>	A	10 years and less	25	3,55	,824	2,915	,038	<u>Tamhane's T2</u>  C > B
	B	Between 11 to 20 years	33	3,21	1,037			
	C	Between 21 to 30 years	35	3,81	,749			
	D	31 years and more	8	3,78	,732			
<b>Resistance to Innovation</b>	A	10 years and less	25	3,30	,671	1,140	,337	<u>No difference</u>
	B	Between 11 to 20 years	33	3,40	,894			
	C	Between 21 to 30 years	35	3,66	,749			
	D	31 years and more	8	3,46	,950			

\*: n= 101; Confidence Interval: %95; Significance Levels: p<0.05; Scale Values: 1= Strongly Disagree, 2= Disagree, 3= Neither Agree Nor Disagree, 4= Agree, 5= Strongly Agree.

In order to understand whether chefs' innovativeness differentiates regarding the “total term of employment” in the sector or not, an ANOVA test was carried out. As the results given in Table 7 indicate, chefs' “*familiarity (tendency) to innovation*” dimension differentiates regarding the “total term of employment”, though “*resistance to innovation*” dimension does not. In this context, it can be stated that chefs employed in the sector between 21 and 30 years are more innovative than those employed between 11 and 20 years.

### 3. Conclusion

Food, as a tourist product, is important for those travelling for the purpose of gastronomy. Quality of gastronomy tourism depends on food culture, appropriate climate for food cultivation, technology and qualified human resources as known chefs. Chefs are the decision makers in the creation, preparation and even serving food. Innovation is important for food and beverage enterprises as in any other businesses. However, individual innovativeness of chefs are more important in creating attractive and competitive food menus. In this context, the aim of this study was to evaluate individual innovativeness of chefs. Statistical analyses were carried out on the data collected through a questionnaire developed based on Hurt, Joseph and Cook's (1977) “Individual Innovativeness Scale”, from the chefs attending to the 15<sup>th</sup> International Istanbul Gastronomy Festival organized by the Federation of Turkish Chefs in Istanbul in TUYAP Fair and Exhibition Center between the dates 2<sup>nd</sup> and 5<sup>th</sup> February 2017, by using the convenience sampling technique. In return, among 103 questionnaires, 101 of them were usable for statistical analysis. The reliability analysis of Cronbach's Alpha showed highly acceptable result ( $\alpha=.96$ ) and explanatory factor analysis extracted two factors; (a) resistance to innovation and (b) familiarity (tendency) to innovation. These two factors have similar

mean values indicating the midpoint level of individual innovativeness of chefs both in resistance and tendency to innovation. Further to that, resistance and tendency to innovation differ by business type, term of employment in the current business and total term of employment in the sector. For rigorous analyses, the number of questionnaires is not adequate, therefore replication of this study can be done in larger samples in different places and a comparative study can be more productive for the individual innovativeness knowledge available in the current literature.

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# Analysing The Relationship Between Job Satisfaction And Life Satisfaction In Terms Of Demographic Variables: An Research in Accommodation Businesses

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## Abstract

The aim of the study is to determine the correlation between job satisfaction and life satisfaction of employees, also, to reveal this relation's differentiation through demographic variables. The study is carried out through employees who work in 4-5 star hotels in Ankara. The sample size was determined as 384 employees by using Yamane's formula (2001). A questionnaire was used to collect data from sample group. Mann-Whitney U Test, Kruskal-Wallis H Test and Spearman Correlation Coefficient were used in the analysis of obtained data. According to analysing of collected data, it was ascertained that job satisfaction and life satisfaction influence one another positively. In term of demographic variables, concerning age and gender, life satisfaction differs significantly; whereas job satisfaction does not show much differentiation. Concerning marital status and the experiences in the field, it is confirmed that there is no significantly differentiation for both. Once and for all, the variables of education, monthly income shows a significantly differentiation in the levels of life satisfaction and job satisfaction.

**Key Words:** Job satisfaction, Life satisfaction



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## **INTRODUCTION**

Nowadays, human resource is the primary factor for service businesses to gain sustainable competitive advantage over their rivals. Since production in service businesses mostly depend on labor, workers have a considerable effect on the consumer satisfaction regarding the service. All the attraction and beauties might become meaningless in the hands of a bad service. In this regard, psychological states of the workers who are psychological entities become more of an issue. Job satisfactions is one of the key factors that widely affects the behaviors employees display in the business. The more the employees are satisfied, the more motivated thus the happier they become. It is likely that a service provided by a happy employee will satisfy the consumer. In this context, it is vital for both the employer and the employee to determine the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction which is one of the major elements affecting the employee's happiness.

## **JOB SATISFACTION**

Job satisfaction can be defined as the positive attitudes regarding the work and the state of contentedness which occurs when the employee adapted himself to his work environment (Karcıoğlu v.d., 2009:59).

Job satisfaction indicates the employee's physical and mental state regarding the work (Bingöl, 1986: 227). Each individual has different qualities that are unique to themselves. Likewise, job satisfaction factors vary from individual to individual and culture to culture.

The factors affecting employees' job satisfaction can be explained under two main headings as individual factors and organizational factors. In the framework of these factors, management should protect both the executives and the employees' benefits. Such act is essential for the welfare of the employees and the executives. The individual factors affecting job satisfaction can be listed as; personality traits, age, gender, marital status, educational status, job, seniority, position and socio-cultural environment. Apart from individual factors, organizational factors such as the workplace and conditions determine job satisfaction. Organizational factors can be listed as; the work itself, wage, work safety, promotion, workplace and conditions, management style, co-workers, organization culture and stress.

Job satisfaction signifies that an employee is content with his job and that he feels peaceful and safe in his workplace, which is crucial for businesses. Cases in which job satisfaction is not obtained results in behavioral disorders. Many disorders such as emotional breakdowns, fatigue(as a result of lack of sleep), loss of appetite and inattentiveness results from job dissatisfaction (Baştumur, 2006: 48).

## **LIFE SATISFACTION**

The concept of life satisfaction, coined by Neugarten in 1961 , is the consequence of the relationship between what the individual expects and what he has. Life satisfaction is obtained when the individual evaluates his/her own life and finds out that he is in a favorable status. (Diener, Emmons, Larsen ve Griffin, 1985). The perception of life satisfaction is stated through the individual's self-assessment of life and subjective judgements of himself/herself (Pavot and Diener, 1993). Life satisfaction derives from one's reactions towards work and leisure times (Sung-Mook and Giannakopoulos, 1994). According to Özdevicioğlu (2003) life satisfaction is the emotional attitudes outside of one's working life. According to Dikmen (1995) life satisfaction is to achieve subjective well-being and the goal of spending quality time in regard to the facts of life.

Once the individual strikes a work-life balance, it is easier for him/her to achieve life satisfaction. Besides, it enables the development of processes such as reaching a high-productivity level, long-term working life, qualified business process, decreasing

impediments and increasing motivation and commitment, which will lead the business to success. Once some time is allocated for activities such as vacation and sleep -which are the sources of motivation- performance increases accordingly, and it is easier to achieve work-life balance. Factors that affect life satisfaction can be listed under four main headings as individual, occupational, environmental and social factors.

According to Keser (2005) factors that affect life satisfaction are as follows;

- Feeling content in the daily life
- Determination in achieving goals
- Positive individual identity
- Being physically at peace with oneself
- Well being in terms of economics, safety and social relations

Although there are ongoing debates on the measurability of life satisfaction due to its subjective nature it is known that scales aimed at measuring life satisfaction are developed. Scales developed for life satisfaction often evaluate the individual's emotional and living conditions. Satisfaction with Life Scale developed by Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985) is one of these scales. It is a 7 point likert scale consisting of 5 items that measure the life satisfaction of all age groups from adolescents to adults.

## **THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN JOB SATISFACTION AND LIFE SATISFACTION**

Life satisfaction, in general, signifies the combination of the satisfaction achieved in one's working life and social life. As Keser (2005) states, the relationship between the satisfaction regarding working life and the satisfaction of life was first investigated in the works of Brayfield, Wells and Strate in 1957. Aforementioned works put forth the fact that occupational satisfaction affects the individual's whole life outside of work in a positive way.

Since the working life has a vital sphere of influence in one's life it is quite normal that it penetrates his/her whole life. Inadequate job satisfaction, thus, the unhappiness, disappointments, and reluctance affects the overall living conditions and decreases the satisfaction one gets from life. By affecting the individual's relations concerning the environment, family and friends in a negative way, this condition results in physical and mental disorders (Çetinkanat, 2000:48).

Various studies on the relationship between job and life satisfaction are available. (Chacko, 1983; Lee, 1991; Ulguç v.d., 1998; Vara, 1999; Özdevecioğlu, 2003; Özdevecioğlu, 2004; Keser 2005; Baştumur, 2006; Braynt et al., 2006; Heler et al., 2006; Hayes and Weathington, 2007; Aşan and Erenler, 2008; Eren, 2008; Mazerolle et al., 2008; Karimi, 2009). In some of these works done in various branches of business a positive relationship between job and life satisfaction is determined. (Chacko, 1983; Lee, 1991; Özdevecioğlu, 2004; Keser 2005; Baştumur, 2006; Braynt et al., 2006; Heler et al., 2006; Hayes and Weathington, 2007; Aşan and Erenler, 2008; Eren, 2008; Mazerolle et al., 2008; Karimi, 2009). Whereas in some works no relationship was found between job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Vara, 1999; Şener and Acuner, 2002). Researchers stated that employees who are satisfied with their wages, who receive psychological support and have the chance to participate in social activities, and who have their own choice of job can achieve higher levels of job and life satisfaction (Eren, 2008). On the other hand, Lee (1991) stated that due to their low wages, inability to work within the scope of their knowledge and skills workers' job and life satisfaction decreased. Karimi (2009) whereas stated that job and life satisfaction decreased due to the excessive amounts of overtime.

In their work investigating the interaction between job burnout and life satisfaction Hayes and Weathington (2007) determined ,again in line with the literature, that employees working free from stress have increasingly higher levels of individual success which affects life satisfaction positively.

Current research aims to put forth the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction of employees working in hospitality establishments which constitute a great part of the tertiary industry, and to determine differentiations with regards to demographic variables (gender, marital status, age, working time, education, monthly income). The datas this research will put forward are thought to be important for executives of hospitality establishments to develop policies and practices to enhance the performances of establishments at the macro level, and employees at the micro level, and to determine tools of motivation.

## METHOD

The aim of this study is to put forth the relationship between the job satisfaction and life satisfaction of hospitality establishment employees and to determine whether it differentiates in terms of demographic variables. Population in this resarch is constituted by approximately 5000 employees who work in 4 and 5 star hotels located in Ankara province (ÇSGB,2015). When determining the sample size the minimum sample determination formula developped by Yamane (2001, p.116-117) is used. In accordance with the formula the minimum is determined as 384. When choosing the sample group the convenience sampling method is preferred. The prepared survey consists of two sections. In the first section of the survey questions regarding the participants' demographic qualities appear, and in the second section a job satisfaction scale comprised of 20 items and a life satisfaction scale comprised of 5 items appear. Minnesota Job Satisfaction scale developped by Weiss, Dawis England and Lofquist (1967) and Life Satisfaction scale developped by Diener, Emmons, Larsen and Griffin (1985) is used. By using survey form research data is collected from the employees working in 4 and 5 star hotels located in Ankara province. While analyzing the obtained data Mann- Whitney U Test, Kruskal-Wallis H Test, and Spearman's Correlation Coefficient is used. The obtained datas' confidence is analyzed. Cronbach's alpha value for the life satisfaction scale is found as 0,86 whereas Cronbach's alpha value for job satisfaction scale is found as 0,93. Research model is given in Figure 1.

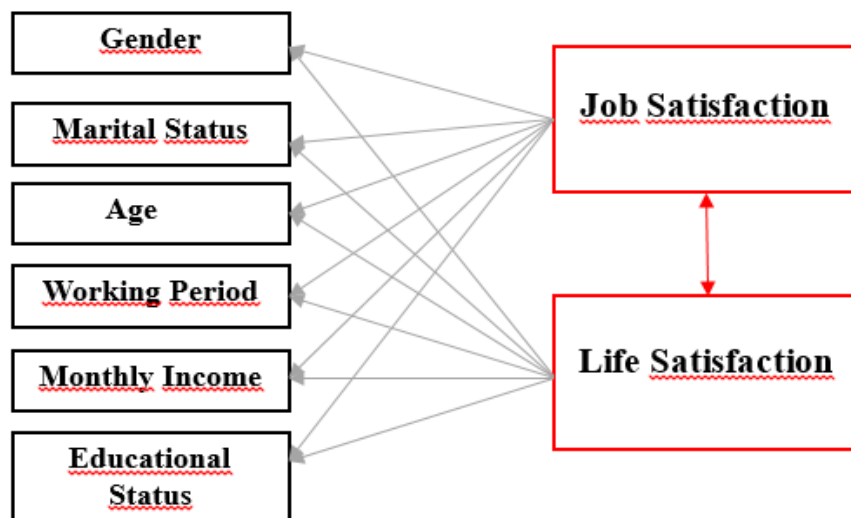


Figure 1. Research Model

Hypotheses in accordance with the research model are as follows;

*H<sub>1</sub>: A meaningful relationship exists between the employees' job satisfaction and life satisfaction.*

*H<sub>2</sub>: Employees' job satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the gender variable.*

*H<sub>3</sub>: Employees' life satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the gender variable*

*H<sub>4</sub>: Employees' job satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the marital status variable.*

*H<sub>5</sub>: Employees' life satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the marital status variable.*

*H<sub>6</sub>: Employees' job satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the age variable.*

*H<sub>7</sub>: Employees' life satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the age variable*

*H<sub>8</sub>: Employees job satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the working period variable.*

*H<sub>9</sub>: Employees life satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the working period variable..*

*H<sub>10</sub>: Employees job satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the monthly income variable.*

*H<sub>11</sub>: Employees life satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the monthly income variable.*

*.H<sub>12</sub>: Employees job satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the educational status variable.*

*H<sub>13</sub>: Employees life satisfaction significantly differentiates according to the educational status variable.*

## FINDINGS

Demographic qualities of the participants are given in Table 1.

**Table 1. Demographic Qualities of the Participants**

<i>Gender</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Marital Status</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>			
Male	263	69,2	Single	160	41,8			
Female	117	30,8	Married	223	58,2			
<i>Age</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Educational Status</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>			
18-25 years	83	21,8	Primary Education	45	11,7			
26-30 years	78	20,5	Highschool	174	45,3			
31-35 years	95	24,9	Associate degree	61	15,9			
36-40 years	56	14,7	Bachelor's Degree or upper	104	27,1			
41 years and older	69	18,1						
<i>Çalışma Süresi</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Monthly Income</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Department</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>%</i>
0-1 year	45	11,7	0-1000 TL	83	22,1	F & B	83	22,8
2-5 years	112	29,2	1001-1500 TL	163	43,5	Front Office	125	34,3
6-10 years	93	24,2	1501-2000 TL	77	20,5	Housekeeping	42	11,5
11-15 years	60	15,6	2001-2500 TL	23	6,1	Technic	22	6,0
16 years and more	74	19,3	2501 TL and more	29	7,7	Security	27	7,4
						Other	65	17,9

As seen in Table 1, males constitute 69,2% and females constitute 30,8% of the participants. When the marital statuses examined married participants constitute 58,2% and singles constitute 41,8% of the participants. When the ages are examined the highest rate belongs to participants aged between 31-35 years with 24,9%, whereas the lowest rate belongs to the participants aged between 36-40 with 14,7%. When educational statuses are examined high school graduates constitutes the majority with 45,3%. In terms of working period by a ratio of 29,2% employees who work for 2-5 years, in terms of monthly income by a ratio of 43,5% employees who have 1000-1500 TL income, and in terms of work departments by a ratio of 34,3% front office workers outnumber.

In Table 2 standard and average deviation values of the answers given to the items in Job Satisfaction Scale appear. According to Table 2 it is seen that highest average belongs to the expressions "In terms of getting along with co-workers" and "in regard to being given the chance of bearing conscientious responsibility" and the lowest average belongs to the expressions "in terms of the sense of achievement as the result of the work done" and "in terms of the fee for the work done"

**Table 2. The Average and Standard Deviation Value of Job Satisfaction Scale Items**

	<b>LIFE SATISFACTION SCALE</b>	<b>average*</b>	<b>s.d</b>
1	"In many aspects my life is close to my ideals."	3,61	1,92
2	"My life conditions are excellent."	3,54	1,76
3	"I am satisfied with my life"	4,14	1,76
4	"So far I have got the things I want in life."	3,82	1,83
5	"If I could live again my life, I would change almost nothing."	3,24	2,00
	* Questions asked in 7 point likert style indicate, 1 <i>Strongly disagree</i> , 2 <i>Disagree</i> , 3 <i>Slightly disagree</i> , 4 <i>Neither agree nor disagree</i> , 5 <i>Slightly agree</i> , 6 <i>Agree</i> , 7 <i>Strongly agree</i> .		

In the research the relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction is examined and in order to put this relationship forth the correlation analysis is given in Table 4.

**Table 4. Spearman Correlation Test and Analysis of Job and Life Satisfaction Relationship**

			<b>Life Satisfaction</b>	<b>Job Satisfaction</b>
<b>Spearman's rho</b>	<b>Life Satisfaction</b>	<i>rho</i>	1,000	,591*
		<i>p</i>		,000
		<i>n</i>	384	384
	<b>Job Satisfaction</b>	<i>rho</i>	,591*	1,000
		<i>p</i>	,000	
		<i>n</i>	384	384

\*p<0,05



According to the correlation analysis given in Table 4 a correlation which is at 5% level of significance ( $p < 0,05$   $\rho = ,591$ ), positive, and moderate exists between the level of life satisfaction and the level of job satisfaction. According to this, as the job satisfaction levels of employees increase life satisfaction levels increase, and as their life satisfaction levels increase, their job satisfaction levels increase.

**Table 5. Differentiations In The Participants' Job and Life Satisfaction In Regard To Gender and Marital Status Variables**

Gender	Male (n=263)	Female (n=117)	U	p
	Mean Rank	Mean Rank		
JOB SATISFACTION	180,86	212,17	12,850	,676
LIFE SATISFACTION	188,93	194,03	14,972	,010
Marital Status	Single (n=160)	Married(n=223)	U	p
	Mean Rank	Mean Rank		
JOB SATISFACION	182,09	199,11	17,474	,732
LIFE SATISFACTION	189,71	193,64	16,254	,137

According to Table 5 whereas the job satisfaction levels do not differ significantly in terms of gender variable ( $p > 0,05$   $U = 12,850$ ), life satisfaction levels significantly differ ( $p < 0,05$   $U = 14,972$ ). It is understood that females life satisfaction levels are higher compared to males'. In terms of differentiation with respect to the marital status variable no differentiation is observed. In other words, marital status is not a determining factor in job and life satisfaction.

**Table 6. Differentiation in Job and Life Satisfaction of the Participants According to Age and Working Period Variables**

Age	18-25 years (n=83)	26-30 years (n=78)	31-35 years (n=95)	36-40 years (n=56)	41 years and older (n=69)	$\chi^2$	p
	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank		
JOB SATISFACTION	176,81	212,96	202,64	184,91	172,17	7733	,102
LIFE SATISFACTION	182,33	201,44	209,55	198,54	157,97	10402	,034
Working Period	0-1 year (n=45)	2-5 years (n=112)	6-10 years (n=93)	11-15 years (n=60)	16 years and more (n=74)	$\chi^2$	p
	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank		
JOB SATISFACTION	188,68	170,96	213,72	204,11	191,34	8,342	,080
LIFE SATISFACTION	205,20	171,75	205,85	202,73	191,09	6,385	,172

The results of Kruskal Wallis test done to understand whether the job and life satisfaction of the employees change according to age and working period variables are given in Table 6. According to Table 6 job satisfaction levels of the participants do not differ significantly ( $p > 0,05$   $\chi^2 = 7,733$ ) whereas their life satisfaction levels significantly differ ( $p < 0,05$   $\chi^2 = 10,402$ ).

The age group of 26-30 has the highest rank of job satisfaction. On the other hand age group of 31-35 has the highest rank of life satisfaction. When differentiation is considered in terms of working period no significant differentiation is seen in the employees' job and life satisfaction levels (job satisfaction:  $p>0,05$   $\chi^2=6,385$ ; life satisfaction:  $p>0,05$   $\chi^2= 6,385$ ). According to this, it can be said that age variable is not a determining factor for job and life satisfaction.

**Table 7. Differentiation of Participants' Job Satisfaction and Life Satisfaction According to Monthly Income and Educational Status Variables**

Monthly Income	0-1000 TL (n=83)	1001-1500 TL (n=163)	1501-2000 TL (n=77)	2001-2500 TL (n=23)	2501 TL and more (n=29)	$\chi^2$	$p$
	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank		
JOB SATISFACTION	174,90	169,52	230,73	140,63	253,47	32,913	,000
LIFE SSATISFACTION	168,50	171,29	205,71	197,22	283,41	31,325	,000
Educational Status	Primary Education (n=45)		Highschool(n=174)	Associate degree (n=61)	Bachelor's degree and upper (n=104)	$\chi^2$	$p$
	Mean rank		Mean rank	Mean rank	Mean rank		
JOB SATISFACTION	136,71		167,47	235,55	233,26	43,450	,000
LIFE SATISFACTION	135,90		167,67	190,30	259,83	58,836	,000

The results of the analysis done to determine the differentiation of job satisfaction and life satisfaction of the employees according to monthly income and educational status variables are given in Table 7. According to Table 7 it is seen that the job and life satisfaction levels of the participants significantly differ according to their income and educational background görülmektedir ( $p<0,05$   $\chi^2=32,913$ ,  $p<0,05$   $\chi^2=31,325$ ,  $p<0,05$   $\chi^2=43,450$ ,  $p<0,05$   $\chi^2=58,836$ ). The group with 1501-2000 TL income has the highest rate of job satisfaction and life satisfaction. In terms of education variable the highest rate of job satisfaction is seen in associate degree graduates whereas the highest rate of life satisfaction is seen in master's graduates.

## CONCLUSION AND DISCUSSION

According to the resarch results a significant, moderate positive relationship exists between the participants' job satisfaction and life ssatisfaction levels. As job satisfaction level increases life satisfaction level increases and as life satisfaction level increases job satisfaction level increases. According to this the hypothesis **H<sub>1</sub>** is accepted.

While life satisfaction level of females is significantly higher than males', they have a similar level of satisfaction in terms of job satisfaction. When marital statuses are examined no significant differentiation is found in the life and job satisfaction levels of the single and married participants. According these datas while Hypothesis **H<sub>3</sub>** is accepted, Hypotheses **H<sub>2</sub>**, **H<sub>4</sub>** and **H<sub>5</sub>** can not be accepted.

While significant differentiations occur in life satisfaction according to age, no significant differentiation is found in the job satisfaction level. While age is a distinctive factor for life

satisfaction level, it is not a distinctive for job satisfaction level. Age group of 41 and over has the lowest average of life satisfaction; age group of 31-35 has the highest average of life satisfaction. The participants' working periods in the industry do not make significant differentiations in job and life satisfaction. The life and job satisfaction levels of employees of different working periods are similar. As a consequence, hypothesis **H<sub>7</sub>** is accepted while hypotheses **H<sub>6</sub>**, **H<sub>8</sub>** and **H<sub>9</sub>** can not be accepted.

Life satisfaction and job satisfaction levels of the employees of different income groups show significant differentiation. When income-based life satisfaction levels are examined it is determined that as the income increases the level of life satisfaction increases. In the income group of 2001-2500 TL, however, life satisfaction level remains in a lower level compared to the previous level of income. Participants with 0-1000 TL income have the lowest average of life satisfaction; those with 2501TL income and more have the highest average of life satisfaction. When job satisfaction levels are examined it is seen that as income increases the level of job satisfaction increases likewise in life satisfaction level. However, employees of 2001-2500 income group showed a lower level of job satisfaction compared to the preceding level of income. Participants with 2001-2500 TL income have the lowest average of job satisfaction; those with 2501 TL income or more have the highest average of job satisfaction. Based on these datas; hypotheses **H<sub>10</sub>** and **H<sub>11</sub>** are accepted.

Employees with different educational background have different levels of job and life satisfaction. In terms of life satisfaction levels it is determined that as the level of education increases the level of life satisfaction increases. Primary school graduates have the lowest average of life satisfaction; Bachelor's graduates and Master's graduates have the highest average of life satisfaction. Employees with a Associate, Bachelor's and Masters degree have similar levels of job satisfaction. According to these datas hypotheses **H<sub>12</sub>** and **H<sub>13</sub>** are accepted.

Results obtained in the research supports the previously determined relationship between the level of life satisfaction and the level of job satisfaction. Individuals with high levels of job satisfaction have high levels of life satisfaction. Previous researches usually put forth the existence of a relationship between job satisfaction and life satisfaction (Baştumur, 2006; Özdevecioğlu 2003; Chacko,1983; Lee, 1991; Aydıntan and Koç, 2016). Although it is stated that a large number of studies accept the fact that due to role differences gender does not make any sense in terms of life satisfaction (Keser, 2003:199) according to the research conducted by Özdevecioğlu(2003) female employees are observed to have a higher level of life satisfaction compared to male employees. Again in the same research no significant differentiation in life satisfaction is determined in terms of marital status. This result confirms Özdevecioğlu(2003)'s study.

In Herzberg(1968)'s research on the relationship between the individuals' life satisfaction and age variable it is determined that while life satisfaction is higher at early and old ages, it is lower in middle ages. In the research he conducted on job satisfaction a higher job satisfaction level is observed in young employees which decreases towards the middle ages and increases again in later ages with experience (Aksayan, 1990:15). However Koç et al. (2009:19), Koç and Yazıcıoğlu (2011:54) suggested that job satisfaction does not show a significant differentiation according to age and this result corresponds to the result of the study. According to İşcan and Timuroğlu (2007)'s study a positive relationship between the working period in industry and job satisfaction is determined. While the relationship between age and job satisfaction is confirmed, it does not show any similarities in its relationship with other variables.

In a research done in England it is observed that employees with a master's degree experienced job dissatisfaction more compared to those with lower educational backgrounds (Baştumur, 2006). Likewise, Koç et al. (2009:154) suggested that job satisfaction in terms of

education variable does not show a significant differentiation. In the framework of this research results it is seen that contrary to current studies levels of job and life satisfaction increase as the level of education increases.

In a general sense it is known that the relationship between life satisfaction and job satisfaction is positive. Keser (2003) states this as: the higher the individual's income, the higher life satisfaction he/she has and the happier he/she is as long as the income fulfills the demands and expectations. Results confirm this expression as employees with the highest income have a higher life satisfaction compared to the other income groups.

Results of the research show that a positive relationship exists between job satisfaction and life satisfaction and business executives need to take steps to enhance the levels of employees' job satisfaction and life satisfaction.

# Italian Cuisine: Characteristics and Effects

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## Abstract

It is suggested that today's kitchens seem to interact with each other in the historical process. Italian cuisine is one of the most well-known cuisines of Europe and interacts with a wide variety of cuisines. The effect of the outstanding Italian cuisine with regional diversity can be seen in many kitchens. In this study the historical development of the Italian cuisine is discussed. Regional richness of Italian cuisine and the reasons for this wealth is examined. Also the products that the Italian cuisine introduced to the world are stated.

**Keywords:** Italian Cuisine, Pizza, Pasta, Coffee.



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## **Introduction**

The roots of the Italian cuisine, that is one of the oldest cuisines in Europe, are based on the heritage of ancient cultures. The Italian cuisine was influenced by the civilizations that invaded Italy. The influence of Ancient Greece and Etruscans is still felt today (Volpi, 2003). The Etruscans' farming methods, the Romans, Phoenicians, the Goths, the Normans, the French, the Spaniards, the Arabs and the Austrians, who had invaded the country, influenced this cuisine (Sarışık, 2014). Nowadays, considering how much pizza and pasta are loved and widely used, it is seen that Italian cuisine also influences other cuisine as well.

The geographical location and climate of Italy influenced the culinary culture. Products such as wheat, grapes, wine, olives, olive oil, corn, rice, sugar beet, tobacco, soybean, sunflower, potatoes, tomatoes, apples, pears, peaches, oranges, lemons and mandarins are produced in Italy where the Mediterranean climate dominates. In addition, olive oil, wine and cheese are some of the most important and widely used products identified with Italian traditions. Italian cuisine shows great differences by regions. In Italy it is possible to talk about different culinary styles belonging to each region. Local traditions and customs consist of the long and complex historical developments, and local habits influenced by these developments. Beside in Italy, significant and the rooted values of cultural and social differences continue to exist today, while mass marketing try to equalize the differences.

## **Feature and Effects of Italian Cuisines**

Italy is a country with hundreds of cities, thousands of bell-towers and hundreds of recipes. Mirroring a history shaped by political divisions, provincial commitment and a wide range of gastronomic traditions makes Italian cuisine heritage so rich and appealing today than all the other countries. This attractiveness is due to the fact that the Italian cuisine is very rich in terms of regional diversity (Capatti ve Montanari, 2003). As it is stated by Belge (2001) "Italian dishes" is actually an abstraction, and according to Italians, there is no single Italian dishes, on the contrary there are Florence, Genova, Milano, Naples, Sicily and so on dishes (David, 1999). It may suggested that the reason for this diversity is due largely to the geographical structure and history of Italy.

Italy is separated from European continent by the highest mountain range of Europe, and in this narrow country the mountains stretch from north to south. This has led to the formation of regions with different geographical characteristics. In the country, on one side, fertile valleys, mountains covered with forests, bare rocks, arid plains and on the other side is the Mediterranean coast. Different climates resulting from the geographical situation have created unique geographical and historical areas. Nevertheless, this geographical diversity alone is insufficient to explain the richness of the culinary culture. In order to explain the richness and diversity in the culinary culture, it is necessary to look at the history as well. Instead of central authority, there were dukes, princes, small kingdoms and states that could not get along well in the country. The political union was not formed until 1861. However, for the last three thousand years, it has been occupied by many nation and civilizations. Many of them had added something from their own culture. The influences of the Etruscans and the Ancient Greeks, who were the hosts, are still felt. Central authority was not established in the Middle Ages and instead there were strong and free city states. In these cities, which were very advanced in the arts and trade, different culinary cultures had developed. After the collapse of these city-states, Northern Italy was occasionally invaded by France and Austria, and their cuisine were influenced by this invading. The wealthiness of the northern Italian cities created the "fresh pasta" culture. Fresh pasta is made with eggs, cheese, cream and other expensive materials. It is no coincidence that Bologna in the north is Italy's gastronomic capital. Florence has been enriched since the 13th century. A very wealthy

trader family the Medici dominated Florence, supported art and accelerated the Renaissance. Renaissance effected many field and made the revolution in art and mirror it to culinary culture as well. Thereby a richer food culture had been formed in Italy (Capatti ve Montanari , 2003).

While there were many independent cities in the north, the situation in the south was different. The south lived as united for long time. The South, separated from northern Europe by major trade routes, is isolated and living in poverty. People in the South had tried to do the best with what they had in their hands. For example spaghetti and pizza whose homeland is Sought, was born as a food for poor people and spreading around the world with Italian immigrants and became very popular. Another one of the greatest contributions South has made to Italian cuisine is "dry pasta". Dry pasta is suitable for hiding, selling, and transporting, and in Sicily in Naples it has been popular since the Arabian invasion in 1700s, and from there it spread to the world. The south was occupied by different civilizations at different times and all of them had different effects. The Muslims who remained here for two centuries had the greatest effect. Muslims have influenced Western culinary culture with rice, oranges, lemons, peaches, sugar and more. This effect is still strong in the south, especially in Sicily (Volpi, 2003).

When comes back further, it is seen that taking advantage of ancient Greek traditions, the Romans have improved Italian culinary cultures. Before the Romans, the food is supposed to be quite salty because of the necessity of the food conservator. It is also estimated that they were not very fresh. For the purpose of hiding these unpleasant tastes, the Romans added honey, sweet wine, dried fruit and vinegar to the fish and meat. They also tried to change the smell of food by adding musk, amber, pepper and coriander. The situation was similar for all Europe till the 19th century, when the rapid transport developed and the food did not need to be salted and preserved to a great extent. Roman flavour in Italy manifests itself in the *bagrodolce* or the sweet-sour sauces that Italians like to use in wild boar, rabbit and deer. With the Renaissance in the 15th century, interest in classical cooking methods had increased again. The first book about culinary culture containing recipes of Maestro Martino is the book titled "*Platina de honest voluptate et valetudine vulgare*" which was prepared by Bartolomeo Sacchi in 1474. Twenty years later, the book of Apicius written by Marcus Apicius was published. Apicius has taken the information in his book from the ancient Greek cuisine. In fact, the notes of Apicius were lost and the book is estimated to be compiled from the notes of a student of him (David, 1999).

In 1533, Catherine who was an Italian noblewoman from the Medici family married with the prince of France II. Henri. This marriage was the beginning of the influence of Italian cuisine on the European cuisine. When she went to Paris, Catherine took her new vegetables, Italian culinary arts and table layout with herself. Thus she brought her Italian culinary art to France (Sarıışık, 2014). In fact, this influence began in the previous century with the king of France VIII. Charles (1483-1498) and Catherine's father-in-law I. Francois. During the unsuccessful expedition to invade Napoli in 1495, I. François brought gardeners from Italy to France for raising green vegetables, cauliflower, spinach, artichokes and other vegetables. This effect of the Italian cuisine continued increased in the 1600s when Maria, the second bride from the Medici family married with France King IV. Henri and became the Queen. Such that the Venetian chronicler Zanetti complained about mixing everything with spices, sauces and herb and being garlic and onions in all the plates (Parasecoli, 2004).

During the periods when imports and exports are not improving, in London or Paris it was possible to find the best of everything which England or France produces. In Italy the best fish is actually to be eaten on the cost, the finest Parmesan cheese in and around Parma, the tenderest beef in Tuscany, where the cattle are raised (David, 1999). With the discovery of the

New World in the 18th century, the Italian cuisine has been altered and enriched by the arrival of potatoes, tomatoes, peppers and corn which are known as the basis of Italian cuisine (Del Conte, 2001). Because of the poverty experienced in 19th and early 20th centuries, peasant and factory workers had an unchanging diet habits based on corn, rice, chestnuts, potatoes, legumes, a little greenery, and at least a diluted wine. In fact, all parts of society were affected by this poverty. Foods that were considered “heavy” were the foods traditionally consumed by the lower classes because their high calories and cheapness. For example, the beans were known as poor meat. Chestnut flour was used instead of wheat flour (Helstosk, 2008).

### Characteristics of Italian Cuisine

With the discovery of America, potatoes and red peppers entered in to Italian kitchens and this made important changes. The Italian cuisine is very simple one. Although many meals consist of four to eight ingredients, this cuisine is very famous in the world. However regional differences are evident and almost every city has its own flavours (Capatti ve Montanari, 2003). For example, in Bologna the *mortadella* sauce, in Florence the *bistecca alla Fiorentina* steak cooked in wood fire is famous. Flavours and dishes vary according to the season. Each season has its own unique dishes. The ones cooked in the winter is Lombardi's *polenta pasticciata*, Bologno's *lasagne verdi al forno* and Veneto's brown bean soup. After Easter, lighter foods are preferred and *Pastry in brood* and *crostini* which is fried bread with anchovies and cheese are popular. In summer, all in Italy, *vitello tonnato* that is the cold veal with tuna fish sauce is widespread. Another point is the food names are a bit confusing. For example, the same pasta is named *tagliolini* in Florence, *trenette* in Genoa, and *tonnarelli* in Rome.

The Italian cuisine has an international reputation for its rich and varied Italian pizzeria and pastry and for other products. Some reasons for this recognition are as follows (Meiselman, 2009):

- The contribution of the country to the culinary arts and gastronomy,
- The international recognition of some typical Italian dishes (pizza, pasta etc.),
- Contrary to many other modern countries, the preservation of regional and local gastronomic traditions and customs in Italy,
- Compared to other European countries, in Italy, the characteristic of dishes has not changed much over the last 60 years,
- For Italians, eating is a social and enjoyable activity.

Various vegetables, plants and cheeses alongside pizza and pasta has also influenced the reputation and acceptance of Italian cuisine. Fish, olive oil, coffee, ice cream and tiramisu can also be added to this list.

- Some plants used in Italian cuisine are stated here (Davis, 1999).

*Basil*: It is popular in the South and used in tomato sauces, salads and soups, especially in the Genoa Pesto.

*Mint*: Widely used. It is used with meat, chicken, salad, sauce and desserts.

*Marjoram*: It is used in soup, dessert, stew and fish. Wild marjoram is also used in the Napolitana pizza. Sweet marjoram can be used instead of oregano, and in Italy goes into soup, stews, and fish dishes.

*Celery*: It is mainly used in vegetable soups. It is rarely served raw, possibly because it appears to be mostly of a rather stringy and thin growth.

*Daphne*: It is used in soups.



*Sage*: It is widely used in Italian cuisine, especially with veal and calf's liver.

*Garlic*: According to David (1999), it is a mistake to suppose that all Italian dishes are heavily garlic flavoured. In the South, especially in Naples, garlicks are used with the tomato sauce and fish soups. Spaghetti with oil and garlic is much beloved of the Neapolitans.

*Potatoes*: Significant changes occurred with the discovery of the New World and the introduction of potatoes, tomatoes, bell peppers and corn, which are known to be the basis of today's Italian cuisine but which had not been brought to the masses until the 18th century (Del Conte, 2001). However, wheat, corn, rice, potatoes, tomatoes as well as zucchini, eggplant pepper, artichokes, etc. are farmed in Italy, have a Mediterranean climate feature. As fruit, apples, pears, peaches, grapes, citrus fruits etc. are produced (Capatti ve Montanari, 2003).

- Cheeses in Italian Cuisine (David, 1999) :

*Mozzarella*: It can be used on all kinds of pastries.

*Parmaggiano*: It is also can be used on all kinds of pastries as well.

*Ricotta*: Fresh must be consumed. When it is chopped and mixed with spinach, gnocchi is made. It is also used in the desserts.

*Mascarpone*: Used in all desserts.

*Bel paese*: Blue mould cheese.

*Provoloni, pecorino*: These cheeses becoming spicy when they are getting dry up.

- Olive oil

Mediterranean is an olive and olive oil paradise. According to Belge (2001), the best olives are produced in Italy. It is put forward that especially Tuscany and Abruzzi olive oil is very good ([www. italiafoodforever](http://www.italiafoodforever)). The colour of this olive oil is green and its consistency is dark (Belge, 2001). The first olive grove in Italy was planted in southern Italy in 1000 BC. Due to the commercial value of the olive oil, the Romans made the olive cultivation in all Italy in a short time. In 1500 AD, with the Medici family giving lands to the families who want to grow olives, all Tuscany was covered with olive trees ([www. italiafoodforever](http://www. italiafoodforever)). Olive oil is indispensable for Italian cuisine. Olive oil that is seen as a cooking tool and as a condiment and flavouring, is used in various forms (Whiteman, 2000).

- Coffee

Coffee is the most preferred hot drink in Italy. The special Italian coffees are widely used in the world. The espresso coffee which is a thick and hard, is identified with Italy. It is made of a special machine. Cappuccino is made from espresso, hot milk and milk foam made from steam (Morris, 2010).

- Ice cream

Ice cream is an important contribution Sicily made to the world. Sicilians made the first "ice cream" by carrying the ice down the mountains (Belge, 2001).

- Tiramisu

It was last added to the traditional Italian cuisine. It was first made in the town of Treviso in northern Italy in the 1970s and became a world famous dessert within 10 years. Tiramisu is made of sugar, eggs, sweet wine, mascarpone cheese and espresso coffee. It is served cold (Volpi, 2003).

- The Fish

The fish is very important for the Italian cuisine and thus there are various fish dishes. Some of them are Pesce Spada Agghiotta, Guazzetto di Crostacei, Cape Sante alla Veneziana, Pesce all' Acqua Pazza and Baccala' alla Romana (Volpi, 2003).

Pesce Spada Agghiotta: It is a stew made of the fish and shellfish.

Cape Sante alla Veneziana: It is a typical dish of the Venetian region. It is made of clam. Clams are found a lot in the Adriatic Sea.

Pesce all' Acqua Pazza: This dish is an old recipe that belongs to old fishermen in the Naples region. In the 1960s, it became popular on the luxury tourist attraction Capri island. The fish must be fresh. It is made of parsley, garlic, tomatoes, lemon, white meat and olive oil.

Baccala' alla Romana: Baccala is salted and dried morino fish imported from Norway. It's called as a food for poor. It is a favourite dish for those who cannot get fresh fish or live away from the sea. This fish steep in water for one day before cooking and during that time the water is changed several times.

### **Pizza**

The pizza is cosmopolitan as it is consumed all over the world. The physical and linguistic similarity between pizza and lahmacun (meat dough), pizza and pide shows that there are many cultural influences in the Eastern Mediterranean, probably from east to west. In the Mediterranean, yeast and unleavened bread were made. The pizza was made as flatbread like pide. The ancient pizzas were little cakes made from a mixture of flour, water and olive oil, baked on a stone and topped with more oil, honey or herbs, and sometimes with a rich sauce. In Italy the Etruscans made bread that was seasoned with toppings then used to sop up gravy or soup. The ancient Greeks baked the toppings directly onto bread itself and resulting bread, called as *plakuntos*, took the place of a main course. The Ancient Romans united both the Ancient Greek and Etruscan pizzas and combined sweet with savoury toppings. Roman *placenta* was a pie made from wheat flour, topped with cheese mixed with honey, bay leaves and oil. As the Roman Empire spread across to Italy and Europe, they also made practise of making and eating these topped breads. These ancient flatbread can be called "pizzas" as it is embodied the basic concept of having one's meal on an edible plate or using one's bread as a plate and utensil. This flatbread (pizzas) was used as a plate because it's convenient for mobility and economic necessity. In short this ancient flatbread could be consider as precursors to the pizza as it topped with mushrooms, herbs or sauces. It is suggest that pizza is a word used by ancient Greeks, Arabs or Hebrews for pide, and others suggest that it came from Latin word *picea*, meaning 'of pitch', a term which may have referred to the texture or colour of baked bread or the bottom of the ancient pizza (Helstosky, 2008). In the middle ages the Italians ate flatbread or focaccia with whatever toppings they could get their hands on such as salt, herbs, olive oil, mushrooms, rarely some fish and meat. They also made the *torta* that is the most similar to the current pizza. *Torta* was consumed by all social classes in middle ages. During the Renaissance, the cooks began serving the *torta* with an edible crust. Like so many other Italian culinary specialties, the *torta*, and later the pizza relied on ease of preparation, a variety of flavours and the blending of only a few ingredients, either within or on top of the crust (David, 1999; Helstosky, 2008).

In the 1790s, the word "pizza" was used for a thin flatbread topped with various materials. Over the time the nobles also discovered this flavour. According to the anecdotes, some of the Neapolitan Bourbon kings secretly employed pizzeria in spite of their chef. Even II. Ferdinando, ordered to be made a special pizza oven in the palace. But, pizza had failed to

enter the daily food menu of nobles. The Neapolitans claim that this is because of Ferinando's Austrian mother, Mana Carolina as she put a tough reaction on the efforts of her husband and son of making the pizza a palace dish. The one of the reason Mona Carolina resisted the pizza was that she believed it was not suitable for ceremonial dishes in the palace. Actually for pizza, neither plate nor fork was being used, it was eaten by hand. However this food was ideal for bakers as no special saloon needed to be settled by the customers. The little space was enough for an oven and pizzas' dough. Also pizzas could be sold by street vendors like *bagel (simit)* ([www.pizzatat.com](http://www.pizzatat.com)).

Today, almost every pizza shop in the world has the "Margarita" pizza on its menu. This pizza was named after the Queen Margarita who was the king II. Vittorio Emanuele wife's. One day, a pizza contest was held and the Queen would choose the best pizza. Because of its resembles the Italian flag with its tomatoes and green peppers on white mozzarella cheese, the Queen chose this pizza. Since then, this pizza has been called as Margarita, the queen's name (Belge, 2001). For the most part, ancient and medieval pizzas relied on local materials and were produced locally. However, today's pizzas consist of a global mix. Wheat comes from the Middle East, olive oil and oregano from the Mediterranean, tomatoes from South America, basil from India, the water buffalo (used to make mozzarella cheese) come from Asia (Helstosky,2008).

It was not thanks to Italy that the pizza was spreading all over the world and reaching all cultures. Pizza knocked the doors of other cultures in a very different country. This country was America. Millions of Italians, mostly from the south, migrated to America in the 19th century and pasta and pizza were important elements that reminded them of their homeland. The first pizzeria opened in New York in 1895. Their first customers were Italian-Americans. This crunchy pita was a very filling meal for Italian workers and also attracted the attention of business colleagues from other cultures ([www.pizzatat.com](http://www.pizzatat.com)).

The word "pasta" comes from the Italian word "maccarruni" which means "made into a dough by force". In Italian language maccarruni (macaroni) called as "pasta". The word of pasta is used for dishes whose main ingredients is pasta. Pasta is available in hundreds of different shapes and local names. Especially in southern Italy, pasta is consumed very much and eaten in the accompaniment of rich sauces prepared. There are two theories about the birth of the Italian pasta, which are made in two forms, dry and fresh. The first theory is the "nationalist". This theory bases the pasta on the Etruscans. It is claimed that some of the tools found in the Etruscan graves were used for making pasta. The other theory suggests that Marco Polo brought the pasta from China (Belge, 2001). On the side, although it was said that the noodle that would become the national dish of Sicily and southern Italy, was brought by Arabs during the wars of the 9th century, it is believed that the cooking the pasta-type pastries, both fresh and dry, was well known in Greek and Roman times. However, those who developed the dried pastry types in the 9th century, were probably Arabs. There is also a mention of "bariscella plena de macaronis" in a Genoa warehouse dated 1279. According to the information given by geographer Al-Idrisi (1099-1166), the first real dry pasta (pasta secca) named "itrija" from Trabia near Palermo was made in 12th century that was at least a century before Marco Polo and it was sent from there to the other countries with the ships.

Dry pasta is made from durum (hard) wheat. Durum wheat is important in terms of better protection of texture and taste when it is cooked compared to soft wheat and preventing the raw pasta from breaking down. (Tez, 2012). Dry pasta can last for a long time but fresh pasta should be consumed immediately. At the end of the Middle Ages, the pasta began to evolve to its present state. The tomato pasta's best friend, was brought to Italy by the Spaniards, and it was seen to have been grown in Siena and Napoli in about 1600s. It was initially used as an ornamental plant, with high curiosity value, than a source of food. Tomato began to

become popular in the 18th century. Pasta was not an important meal in Neapolitan diet until the 17th century and tomato sauce did not become fashionable for another hundred years. In the 19th century, political unification in Italy occurred, but strong regional differences remained unchanged. Like almost everything else in Italian, the forms and shapes of pasta have strictly local origins (Alexander, 2000).

Some of them are: like long lasagna *Mafelde* with curved edges, narrow or medium thickness *Nocchette* refers to a small "bow-ties", a stuffed pasta forming a triangle shape *Pansotti*, radiator-like, rectangular and grille-shaped *Radiatori*, small, flat square *Quadrettini*, large tube cut into slices, *Zitti*. *Fettuccine* is a macaroni cut into flat strips, coloured green with spinach, little rings *Anellini*, wheel-shaped *Ruote*. *Bigol* is the larger type of spaghetti; in small tube shape *Tubettini*. Pasta with international recognition are: *Farfalle* in the form of a butterfly or bow tie. *Lasagne* are wide, flat-shaped, jagged edges pasta, and possibly one of the oldest types of pasta. *Linguine* is long thin flat pieces of pasta. Thin, long, curly *Fusilli*, also known as twisted pasta; diagonal cut tubular *Penne*; small square shaped *Ravioli* filled with varied stuffing such as full of mince, spinach or cheese. *Tortellini* is small rounds of pasta, filled, as with a meat or cheese stuffing, and then shaped into rings (Sarışık, 2014).

## Conclusion

Italian cuisine is a rich cuisine that varies from region to region. The Italian cuisine, which has been influenced by Etruscan, Ancient Greek, Ancient Roman, Byzantine and Arabic cuisines, has developed with the history and, social and political changes for many years. Today it is known and loved all over the world. Food and dishes and the supplies used for cooking are vary by region. Many of the main dishes of the national cuisine were originally local, then spread all over Italy. There had been some changes during this expansion. Pizza and pasta are essential for the Italian cuisine. In addition to pizza and pasta, cheese and wine make up a large portion of the cuisine with many varieties. Coffee, and especially espresso, is one of the important elements of the Italian cuisine (Volpi, 2003). The distinction could be made between rich and poor cuisine in Italian cuisine. The poor cuisine is only aimed at feeding and at this point it is difficult to talk about the cuisine art.

Unlike England, Germany and the United States, when wealth and urbanization increased in Italy, the fast food was not in demand and the interest in traditional meals and small-scale food producers had increased. Home-made meals continued to occupy an important place in the Italian cuisine (Helstosky, 2008). The Italian cuisine has now become a heritage that all Italians have carefully guarded and is trying to be protected from globalization. Unlike European neighbours, Italian cuisine is resisting fast food restaurants (Helstosky, 2004).

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