

**THE IMPACTS OF INVOLVEMENT IN THE PEER TO PEER
ACCOMMODATION ON DESTINATION FAMILIARITY, IMAGE
AND BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS OF TOURISTS: A RESEARCH
ON COUCHSURFERS VISITED TURKEY**

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SALAR KUHZADY

**MERSİN ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**

**TURİZM İŞLETMECİLİĞİ
ANABİLİM DALI**

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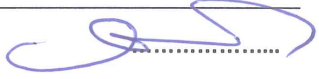



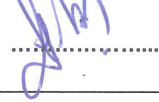
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ONAY

Salar KUHZADY tarafından, Prof. Dr. A. Celil ÇAKICI danışmanlığında hazırlanan, "The Impacts Of Involvement In The Peer To Peer Accommodation On Destination Familiarity, Image And Behavioral Intentions Of Tourists: A Research on Couchsurfers Visited Turkey" başlıklı bu çalışma aşağıda imzaları bulunan jüri üyeleri tarafından oy birliği ile Doktora Yeterlik tezi olarak kabul edilmiştir.

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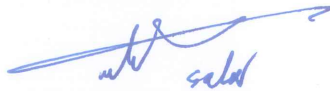
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ÖZET

Turizmde kişiler arası konaklama paylaşımı (Peer to peer-P2P) konaklama eğilimi, geleneksel konaklamaya göre daha baskın bir eğilim haline gelme potansiyeline sahiptir. Bu doğrultuda, eşler arası konaklama konusunda daha önce yapılan çalışmaların güven ve motivasyon üzerine odaklandığı görülmüştür. Ancak bu çalışmada Couchsurfing deneyimine katılımın destinasyon bilinirliği, genel destinasyon imajı ve davranışsal niyet üzerindeki etkilerinin ortaya konulması amaçlanmaktadır. Aynı şekilde çalışmada, Türkiye ziyareti sırasında Couchsurfing uygulamasını kullanan seyahatçilerin kişiler arası konaklama deneyimleri ile davranışsal niyetleri arasındaki ilişkide genel destinasyon imajı ve destinasyon bilinirliğinin aracılık etkisi incelenmektedir. Veriler internet üzerinden oluşturulan bir anket ile toplanmıştır. Ayrıca, verilerin analizi ve önerilen hipotezlerin test edilmesi için yapısal eşitlik modellemesinden yararlanılmıştır. Çalışmanın sonucunda, ileri sürülen modelin verileri doğruladığı ortaya koyulmuştur. Bulgular, Couchsurfing kullanımında güvenin inşası için en temel ölçütün referans olan kişi sayısının ($\bar{x}=3.93$) olduğunu göstermiştir. Bulgular arasında ayrıca, kültürlerarası alışverişin ($\bar{x}=4.17$) sağlanmasında bir fırsat olarak Couchsurfing kullanımının öncül faktör olduğu ortaya koyulmuştur. Bunlara ek olarak, Couchsurfing'e katılımın destinasyon imajı, destinasyon bilinirliği ve davranışsal niyetler üzerinde doğrudan etkiye sahip olduğu bulgular arasında yer almıştır. Tüm bunların yanında, kişiler arası konaklama deneyimleri ile davranışsal niyetleri arasındaki ilişkide, genel destinasyon imajı ve destinasyon bilinirliği değişkenlerinin kısmi aracılık etkisine sahip olduğu da saptanmıştır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Paylaşım ekonomisi, Kişiler arası konaklama paylaşımı, Couchsurfing.

Danışman: Prof. Dr. A.Celil ÇAKICI, Mersin Üniversitesi, Turizm İşletmeciliği Anabilim Dalı, Mersin.

ABSTRACT

Peer to peer accommodations have potential to become the dominant trend in tourism and shacked up the traditional accommodations. Accordingly, while the most of the previous studies on P2P accommodation have focused on trust and motivation this study was aimed to reveal the impacts of involvement in Couchsurfing experience on destination familiarity, overall destination image and behavioral intentions. Likewise, it explores the possible mediating effects of overall destination image and destination familiarity on the relation between involvement in peer-to-peer accommodation and behavioral intentions of the travelers who used Couchsurfing during visit Turkey. A self-administrated survey via the internet was conducted to collect the data. Additionally, structural equation modeling was adopted to analyze the data and testing the proposed hypotheses. The results of this study revealed that the proposed model fits the data. The findings regarding the Influencing features in trust building on Couchsurfing showed that number of references ($\bar{x}=3.93$) was the main feature for trust building. Results also reveal that finding an opportunity for intercultural exchange ($\bar{x}=4.17$) was the first drivers of travelers to use Couchsurfing. Additionally, findings also indicating that involvement in Couchsurfing has a positive direct effect on destination image, destination familiarity, and behavioral intentions. Moreover, findings were identified the partial mediating effect of overall destination image and destination familiarity on the relation between involvement in peer-to-peer accommodation and behavioral intentions.

Keywords: Sharing economy, P2P accommodation, Couchsurfing

Supervisor: Prof. Dr. A. Celil ÇAKICI, Department of Tourism Management, University of Mersin, Mersin.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
COVER PAGE	i
APPROVAL PAGE	ii
ETHICAL DECLARATION	iii
ABSTRACT (TURKISH)	iv
ABSTRACT (ENGLISH)	v
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT	vi
TABLE OF CONTENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	ix
LIST OF FIGURES	x
ABBREVIATION	xi
1 . INTRODUCTION	1
1.1. Introduction	1
1.2. The statement of problem	3
1.3. Purpose of the research	4
1.4. Research hypotheses	5
1.5. The importance of research	9
1.6. Scope of study	10
1.7. Definition of terms	11
1.8. Research originality	12
1.9. Thesis plan	13
2 . THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW	15
2.1. Introduction	15
2.2. Sharing economy	15
2.2.1. Motivations to participation in the sharing economy	17
2.2.2. The Sharing economy drivers	18
2.3. Sharing economy in tourism	20
2.3.1. Peer to Peer accommodation	25
2.3.2. Host's motivations to contribution in P2P accommodation	29
2.3.3. Barriers of peer to peer accommodation	29
2.4. Tourism experience	30
2.4.1. Experiential marketing	34
2.4.2. Tourism experience co-creation	36
2.5. Involvement	38
2.5.1. Definition of involvement	38
2.5.2. Theories related to involvement	38
2.5.3. Literature review related to involvement	42
2.6. Destination familiarity	46
2.6.1. Definition of destination familiarity	46
2.6.2. Theories related to destination familiarity	46
2.6.3. Literature review related to destination familiarity	48
2.7. Overall destination image	51
2.7.1. Definition of Overall destination image	51
2.7.2. Theories related to overall destination image	53
2.7.3. Literature review related to overall destination image	55
2.8. Behavioral intentions	56
2.8.1. Definition of behavioral intentions	56
2.8.2. Theories related to behavior intentions	57
2.8.3. Literature review related to behavior intentions	58
2.9. Literature review on relationships among variables	59
3. METHODOLOGY	62

3.1. Introduction	62
3.2. Research model	62
3.3. Designing data collection tool	63
3.4. Population and sample	67
3.5. Implementation of questionnaire	68
3.6. Data analysis techniques	70
3.7. Clarity	72
3.8. Reliability	72
3.9. Validity	72
3.9.1. Construct validity	73
3.10. Assessment of model fit indices	77
4. FINDINGS	79
4.1. Introduction	79
4.2. Tripographics of couchsurfers	79
4.2. Hypothesis Testing (Direct effects)	83
4.3. Mediating effect Testing (Indirect effects)	84
5. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION	87
5.1. Introduction	87
5.2. Discussion of results	87
5.3. Implications	94
5.3.1. Theoretical Implications	94
5.3.2. Managerial Implications	94
5.4. Recommendation for future study	95
5.5. Limitations of research	96
REFERENCES	98
QUESTIONNAIRE	124
MODEL OUTPUT	128
CV	129

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 1.1. Criteria for research originality	13
Table 2.1. Sharing economy definitions	16
Table 2.2. Sharing economy drivers	20
Table 2.3. Sharing economy in the tourism literatures	22
Table 2.4. Sharing economy based platforms in tourism	23
Table 2.4. Sharing economy based platforms in tourism (Continued)	24
Table 2.5. Thesis related to peer-to-peer accommodation	25
Table 2.6. Peer to peer accommodation related articles	26
Table 2.7. Peer to peer accommodation in the media	27
Table 2.8. Typology of sharing economy platforms	28
Table 2.9. Concepts investigated in the tourism experience related studies	32
Table 2.10. Traditional vs modern marketing	35
Table 2.11. Involvement definitions	39
Table 2.12. Involvement dimension	40
Table 2.13. Studies related to customer involvement	43
Table 2.14. Literature review related to involvement in tourism	44
Table 2.14. Literature review related to involvement in tourism (Continued)	45
Table 2.15. Literature review related to destination familiarity	49
Table 2.15. Literature review related to destination familiarity (Continued)	50
Table 2.16. Definitions of destination image	52
Table 2.17. Relationships among involvement, familiarity, image and intentions	61
Table 3.1. Scales and their items used in questionnaire	66
Table 3.2. Tips and strategies for increase response rate	70
Table 3.3. Terms and criteria in EFA	71
Table 3.4. The results of exploratory factor analysis	75
Table 3.5. The results of confirmatory factor analysis and convergent validity	76
Table 3.6. The results of discriminant validity	77
Table 4.1. Distribution of respondents based on demographics (n: 609)	79
Table 4.2. Couchsurfing and traditional accommodation experiences (n: 609)	80
Table 4.3. Number of visit Turkey and accompanied person(s)	80
Table 4.4. Means and standard deviations of items of trust building scale (n: 609)	83
Table 4.5. Couchsurfing motivations	83
Table 4.6. Hypothesis testing	84
Table 4.7. Mediating effect testing	86

LIST OF FIGURES

	Page
Figure 1.1. The sharing economy in tourism	2
Figure 1.2. The symbolic model of the research	9
Figure 1.3. Scope of the collaborative economy in this study	10
Figure 2.1. Honeycomb 3.0	17
Figure 2.2. Factors influencing tourist experiences.	31
Figure 2.3. The 4E's of Experience Economy	33
Figure 2.4. Strategic experiential modules	36
Figure 2.5. Familiarity types	47
Figure 2.6. Image types	54
Figure 3.1. Research model	63
Figure 3.2. Multi-sited ethnography of Couchsurfing	64
Figure 4.1. The main destinations in Turkey for couchsurfers	81
Figure 4.2. Couchsurfers by country of origin	82
Figure 4.3. Mediators' types	85

ABBREVIATION

Abbreviation	Terms
ICT	Information Communication Technology
P2P	Peer-To-Peer Accommodation
DF	Destination Familiarity
DOI	Destination Overall Image
BI	Behavioral Intention
ME	Memorable Experiences
PWC	Pricewaterhousecoopers
WTM	World Travel Market
SE	Sharing Economy
TE	Tourism Experience
WTTC	World Travel And Tourism Council
CE	Customer Engagement
CP	Customer Participation
CI	Customer Involvement
SI	Situational Involvement
EI	Enduring Involvement
CIP	Customer Involvement Profile
WOS	Web Of Science
MSE	Multi-Sited Ethnography
CFA	Confirmatory Factor Analysis
EFA	Exploratory Factor Analysis
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

Given the intangibility of tourism products (Berry, 1995: 237; Dixit, Belwal, and Singh, 2006: 9; Pride and Ferrell, 2008: 365) which are “amalgam of all goods, activities and services” (Mok, Sparks, and Kadampully, 2013: 8), providing and availability of information is important in the decisions making process (Berne, Garcia-Gonzalez, and Mugica, 2012: 206). In other words, it can be said that information is “the lifeblood” of the tourism (Buhalis, 1998: 409). In a such sector which is “highly information-intensive” (Benckendorff, Sheldon, and Fesenmaier, 2014: 297) adoption of information and communication technologies (ICTs) for getting competitive advantages are widely suggested (Buhalis, Leung and Rob, 2011; Sirirak, Islam, and Khang, 2011). Based on this need, ICTs has become an integrated part of tourism (Neuhofer and Buhalis, 2012: 2). In the early stages of integration, the most attention was given to the digitalization of information and e-distribution channels (Page and Connell, 2006:115). This situation was coincided with the first phase of world wide web developments which is called “Web 1.0” (Hsu and Han Woo Park, 2011: 44).

Web 1.0 as the first generation of the web, was Static and is used only for reading and getting information on the internet (Firat and Köksal, 2017: 45). In the Web 1.0, users are solely receiver and could not interact with the contents. In generally it can be said that, Web 1.0 doesn't support two-way communications (Nath, Dhar, and Basishtha, 2014: 86).

However, by introducing Web 2.0, the obstacle to public engagement was decreased. Offering motivations for creating and sharing of information and contents (Hopkins, Hare, Donaghey, and Abbott, 2014:3), facilitating information sharing, user-centered, collaboration and interaction (Power and Phillips-Wren, 2011: 252) shaped new culture known as “participatory culture” (Jenkins and Deuze, 2008: 7). In this level, one-step communication or “hypodermic needle model of communications” in which information and messages directly sent to individuals by mass media (Cooper, 1999: 42) became obsolete. In this new situation, individuals do not only act as consumers; but also by actively participate in different social media act as contributors or producers of information, service and product (Aaron Alan and Jacobs Henderson, 2013: 5). This situation, especially in tourism, is obvious, because “tourism consumption often takes place in social contexts, in which interactions form a crucial part of the service experience” (Rihova, Buhalis, Moital, and Gouthro, 2014: 1). In generally, it can be said that web 2.0 and social media were strengthened the relationship between ICT and tourism. Introducing concepts in tourism such as “E-trust” (Wang, Law, Guillet, Hung, and Fong, 2015: 108), “E-WOM” (Ladhari and Michaud, 2015: 36), and “online-reputation” (McGuire, 2015: 108)

can be evidences. Based on these new trends, changes and transformation of activities, approaches, strategies, structure of businesses (Buhalis, Leung, and Law, 2011: 205; Taruté and Gatautis, 2014: 1218) and even behavior of people who involved in tourism are in process.

ICT developments offer new opportunities for openness by giving access to social media (Bertot, Jaeger, & Grimes, 2010: 266). This shift has changed the traditional meaning of ownership from private to shared (Weber, 2015: 4874). In addition to the first waves which limited to information sharing, individuals can actively participate in the production of service (Perren and Grauerholz, 2015: 139) and physical resources sharing (e.g., car, bake, house, etc.). “The share economy” (Martin, Upham, and Budd, 2015: 240), “collaborative consumption” (C2C) (Karmann, 2013: 4), “alternative economy for capitalism” (Richardson, 2015: 121), peer-to-peer consumption (Philip, Ozanne, and Ballantine, 2015: 1310) are main concepts for this new trend. Sharing economy is a socio-economic ecosystem model based on sharing, renting, swapping, lending, exchanging, collective purchasing, co-creation, and borrowing (Piscicelli, Cooper, and Fisher, 2014: 21). ICT has facilitated sharing economy and it’s global diffusion.

Tourism and hospitality are one of the main marketplaces for this new model of business, fueling by startups such as Couchsurfing, Airbnb, Uber, Mealsharing, and BlaBlaCar. Today, individuals by support of technology are able to offer their knowledge of their home city as a tour guide, their skills of cooking for tourists, renting their homes and cars (Figure 1.1).

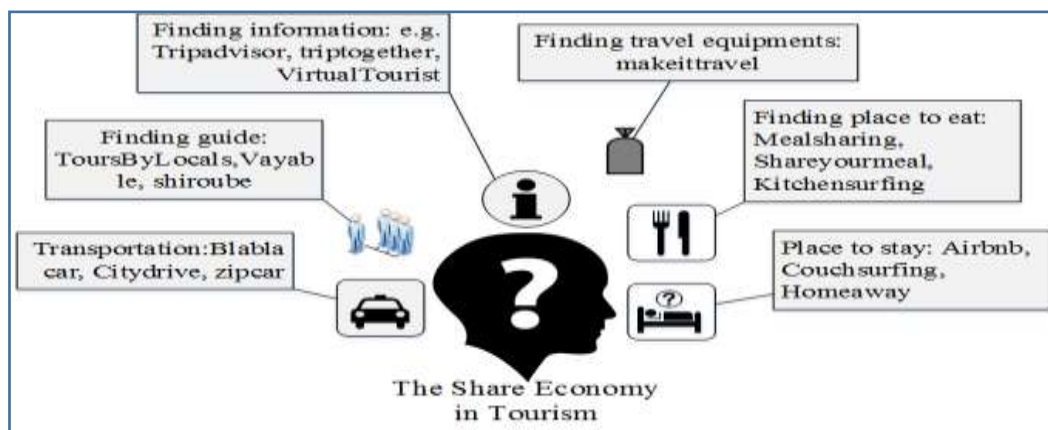


Figure 1.1. The sharing economy in tourism

Source: Ert, Fleischer, and Magen (2016a: 65), Pizam (2014: 118), makeittravel.com

Build upon what said this chapter provides a brief overview to the thesis. It starts with the statement of problem and purpose of the research and followed by hypotheses, importance of study and scope of research. The chapter concludes with a discussion on research originality and thesis plan.

1.2. The statement of problem

Accommodations as a vital sector of tourism supply and “the largest and most ubiquitous subsector within the tourism economy” (Sharpley, 2000: 275) over the past few years, have been shaken up by the sharing economy (Whitlock, 2015). Startups such as Airbnb, VRBO, HomeAway, FlipKey, Roomorama, and Couchsurfing by their innovative business model have made great opportunities for individuals to rent out their entire home or bedrooms to travelers seeking alternatives to traditional accommodation. For example, AIRBNB as one of the leading startup in peer-to-peer accommodation “with over 1,5 million listings- homes, apartments, guest rooms, even houseboats and tree houses- in more than 34,000 cities in over 190 countries” (Somerville, 2015) is going to become bigger than Marriott and Hilton (Morrow, 2015). In addition, Couchsurfing with missions of providing free accommodations for travelers and interact with local people (Luo and Zhang, 2016: 107), by 20 December 2015 has reached 10 million members in more than 200 thousand destinations (Couchsurfing, 2017).

Like any phenomena, attitude toward peer-to-peer (P2P) accommodation is divided into two groups. The first group saw P2P as a threat to tourism. Generally, accommodation sectors and governments support this thought. “Provides unfair competition, reduces job security, avoids taxes and poses a threat to safety” are among the main criticisms of P2P accommodation (JUUL, 2015:1). At the other side, there are startups and travelers. They advocate P2P for its abilities for creating employment opportunities (Schor, Fitzmaurice, Carfagna, and Attwood-Charles, 2015: 12), low price accommodation and extend tourists' length of stay (AIRBNB, 2014). While these new types of businesses provide opportunities to individuals by offering new conveniences and insights of services as well as to tourists, many called it as a “disruptive” (Bones and Hammersley, 2015: 14; Kjaer, 2014: 40; Sioshansi, 2014: 457) for traditional tourism business models.

Whether it is related to the millennial travelers that are looking for destination authenticity and simply a cheap accommodation (Swig, 2014) or potential of P2P models to giving individuals the opportunity to “become businesspeople on a part-time, temporary and flexible level” (French, 2015), this is a growing model of business and can affects travel patterns and bring challenge for accommodation sector. Accordingly, the number of authors who introducing P2P as a powerful competitor, threat or even “disruptive” for accommodation

sector are increasing (Andersson, Nickerson, Sundararajan, Alstynne, Verhoeven, 2014; Farinha, 2015; Guttentag, 2013).

As a soaring business, P2P accommodation cannot be ignored – even if in the preliminary steps limited to mid-market and budget travelers. Given the growth and success of this trend, it can be expected that they will continue to flourish. Actually, as Pizam (2014: 118) indicated it has potential to become the dominant and widespread trend in hospitality and tourism. The most of the previous studies on P2P accommodation have been focused on trust (Shapiro, 2012; Cherney, 2014) and motivation (Liu, 2012; Liu, 2012). By raising the importance of P2P, research on its impacts has just been begun. For example, the effects of sharing economy on tourism industry employment (Fang, Ye, and Law, 2016), the impacts of P2P on sustainability (Martin, 2016a) and impacts of P2P on travel patterns (Tussyadiah and Pesonen, 2015) were investigated by different authors. Accordingly, in the lack of research on impacts of P2P accommodation on destinations, this study was aimed to reveal the impacts of involvement in Couchsurfing experience on destination familiarity (DF), destination overall image (DOI) and behavioral intention (BI).

1.3. Purpose of the research

This study attempts to find out the impacts of involvement in Couchsurfing (IC) experience on destination familiarity (DF), destination overall image (DOI) and behavioral intention (BI). In this research, dimensions of Couchsurfing involvement will be mainly discovered and then the impacts of the dimensions of Couchsurfing involvement on destination familiarity, destination overall image and behavioral intention will be revealed. Specifically, the research aims to:

1. Identify the travelers' motivation for using Couchsurfing.
2. Identify the most important trust building factors in Couchsurfing.
3. Explore the main destinations in Turkey for Couchsurfers.
4. Explore the country of origin of couchsurfers who visited Turkey.
5. Examine the influence of involvement in the peer-to-peer accommodation on destination image, familiarity and behavior intentions.
6. Investigate the impacts of destination familiarity and destination image on behavioral intentions.

7. Explore the mediating role of destination familiarity and destination image in the relationship between involvement and behavior intentions.

1.4. Research hypotheses

As Pizam stated, “creating memorable experiences (ME) is the essence and the *raison d’être* of the hospitality industry” (Pizam, 2010: 243). In the earlier studies related to memorable experience, scholars have suggested that seven experiential elements “(i.e., hedonism, novelty, knowledge, meaningfulness, involvement, local culture, and refreshment) lead to strong memorability” (Kim, 2014: 35). In this relation, Mathis et al., (2016a) suggested that in creating memorable experiences for traveler, “co-creation is key”. They have shown that increasing involvement of travelers in the co-creation of their experience, not only delivers ME to traveler but also enhance the overall satisfaction. In addition, the literature has indicated that tourist involvement in the experience has a positive effect on revisit intention (Tan, 2016). Lee et al. (2008), have approved the relationship between involvement and loyalty-behavioral intentions.

Some scholars have introduced involvement as the antecedent for behavioral intentions (Sun, Geng-Qing Chi, and Xu, 2013). Hu (2003:5) identified the relationship between involvement and repeat visit intentions. He suggested that involvement can offer a theoretical framework for describing the main facets of experiences “by examining travelers’ psychological state towards a destination and entailing the consequent behaviors”. Prayag and Ryan (2012: 344) stated that involvement “between people and between people and place” accelerate the formation of emotional attachment toward a destination. These situations can boost traveler’s behavioral attentions toward a specific destination. Therefore, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H1: Involvement in collaborative Couchsurfing experience has a positive influence on behavioral intentions.

Collaborative experience allows travelers to actively participating in the co-creation of their experience in the collaboration with locals. It can increases the information of travelers about different dimension of a certain destination and result in familiarity with destination. Previous studies widely indicated the positive relationship between the travel involvement and information search (Chung and Koo, 2015; Jun and Park, 2016; Kim, Lehto, and Morrison, 2007; Money and Crotts, 2003; Tseng and Wang, 2016). However, according to Mittal (1989: 167) this relationship is more meaningful when “the product is functional or utilitarian; when the product serves psycho-social or expressive goals, the consumer would not seek much information, a

high level of involvement notwithstanding". It has been accepted that the increased information ultimately accelerate destination familiarity (DF)(Lee, Scott, and Kim, 2008). Indeed, the relationship between participating in the various activities and familiarity with the destination (Lee et al., 2008), conversation with local people and DF (Jeong, 2009), and the importance of the length of stay and DF are also investigated. Recently study by Tussyadiah and Pesonen, (2015) shows that P2P accommodation has a positive effect on length of stay in the destination, number of participated activities in the destination and stay and contact with local people. More or less all of above-mentioned results can be achieved by using of Couchsurfing. According to the Couchsurfing website, by making connection between travelers and local people aims to help travelers to travel like a local. In other words, it is a way to see a specific destination with a local perspective by staying with locals, meet up with locals and having them as travel mate and local guide during travel. It is a novel way to make local friends and deeply experience the real local culture. By using Couchsurfing, any traveler will have a chance to do what locals do and enjoy like a local. The outcome of these first hand experiences would be awareness, knowledge development and destination familiarity. Accordingly, following hypothesis is supposed:

H₂: Involvement in collaborative Couchsurfing experience has a positive influence on destination familiarity.

Regarding the influence of involvement on the image, Sun et al. (2013) by review of the literature have shown the positive relations between involvement and positive image; traveler who have high level of involvement with destination have more positive image. In other words, involvement in tourism experiences has a meaningful impact on destination image (Lu, Chi, and Liu, 2015: 85). Srivastava and Kamdar (2009: 84) have indicated that image formation is closely related to the level of involvement. Other scholars such as Prayag and Ryan (2012: 41) have also confirmed the positive relationship between involvement and destination image. Indeed, the results explored by Frías, Rodríguez, and Castañeda (2008: 163) show that message involvement meaningfully moderate the impact of pre-visit image. While previous studies have frequently focused on cognitive, affective and conative image, some scholars explored the importance of overall image. For example, Han and Hwang, (2016: 2) introduced overall image as a result of cognitive, affective and conative image. Based on their study cognitive image has a positive effect on affective image; affective image shapes conative images, and conative image positively influence on overall image. Indeed, Girish Prayag, Hosany, Muskat, and Del Chiappa (2017: 41) found that, overall image has a positive effect on tourist satisfaction and behavioral intentions (destination recommendation). Build upon on these, following hypothesis is proposed:

H₃: Involvement in collaborative Couchsurfing experience has a positive influence on overall destination image.

Familiarity with a brand/product has been suggested to play important role in the consumer decision-making. For instance, in the field of online shopping, there are various study which found out that familiarity by decreasing perceived risk drives behavioral intentions (Nepomuceno, Laroche, and Richard, 2014: 620). In fact, familiarity by increasing trust to the product/brand act as a powerful heuristic cue that positively affect the future purchasing intention (Benedicktus, Brady, Darke, and Voorhees, 2010: 322). In the field of tourism and destination, previous literature approved that the high level of familiarity with a destination positively affects the intention to visit the destination (Carneiro and Crompton, 2010: 1). For example, Milman and Pizam (1995: 21) found that familiar travelers with Central Florida are more interested to revisit. Familiarity by enhancing knowledge of travelers about destination positively contributes in “providing them a feeling of security and comfort, which leads to increased confidence in their destination choice” (Lee et al., 2008: 816). Therefore, it is reasonable to propose that intention to revisit certain destination can increase if the travelers perceive risks have been decreased by familiarity.

H₄: Destination familiarity has a positive influence on behavioral intentions.

The positive and critical role of destination image (DI) on travelers decision making has been widely approved in the previous destination image studies (Deng & Li, 2014; R. Govers, Go, & Kumar, 2007; Lee, Lee, & Lee, 2014a; Michaelidou, Siamagka, Moraes, & Micevski, 2013a; Ryan & Cave, 2005; Tasci & Gartner, 2007; Tasci, Gartner, & Tamer Cavusgil, 2007a; Zhang, Wu, Morrison, Tseng, and Chen, 2016a). There is an agreement on the positive impacts of destination image on different behavioral attentions. For instance, in the study by Chiu, Zeng, and Cheng (2016: 223) the positive relationship between destination image and loyalty was confirmed. In addition, Chi and Qu (2008: 624) in a study about the impact of destination image on destination loyalty (revisiting and word of mouth) found that DI has a positive effect on traveler satisfaction and finally on destination loyalty. In other words, they confirmed that DI has a positive influence on travelers’ intention to repeat their visit and recommend destination to others. In another study Al-Kwafi (2015: 174) based on neuro-marketing and using of “functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI)” confirmed the positive effect of DI on intention to select a destination for future vacation. Additionally, there is enough evidence on the significant relationships between DI and travelers’ revisit intentions and intentions to distribute positive WOM (Lu et al., 2015: 87). According to the previous findings, the following hypothesis is suggested:

H₅: Overall destination image has a positive influence on behavioral intentions.

Due to the importance role of destination familiarity on destination selection and visit or revisit intentions, it has become one the main stream in the destination marketing literature (Baloglu, 2001:129). In this relation, the relationship between familiarity and image have been widely acknowledged in the previous studies (Lee & Tussyadiah, 2012: 135). Generally, it is suggested that “increased familiarity provides a more favorable destination image” (Tan & Wu, 2016: 217). In the studies related to the relation between familiarity and destination image, some scholars by defining familiarity based on the previous experience showed that familiarity has a positive impact on destination image (Ahmed, 1991; Milman & Pizam, 1995). Additionally, some other studies suggested that previous experience is not the only source of the destination familiarity. They believe that travelers “may become familiar with a destination by receiving information about a destination and by communicating with other people who are familiar with the destination”(Yang, Yuan, & Hu, 2009: 174). Despite this disagreement on familiarity, but the higher the familiarity, the more positive destination image is the accepted principal of all the related studies.

Peer-to-peer accommodations (especially the free one such as Couchsurfing) by enabling travelers to visit more destinations around a country, not only can increase awareness and familiarity with a destination but also build a more positive image toward a country as tourism destination (by offering first hand experiences and information from local people). Based on this, following hypothesis is suggested:

H₆: Destination familiarity has a positive influence on Overall destination image.

As proposed in the second hypothesis, it may be a direct and positive relationship between involvement and behavioral intentions. Indeed, it can be reasonable that relationship between involvement and behavioral intentions might be mediated by destination familiarity. While there is lack of study about the mediating role of familiarity between involvement and behavioral intentions, but by supporting of the following arguments it seems that it can be suggested. At the first glance, familiarity will be resulted in perceive more personal relevance and emotional connection to a destination. It will motivate travelers to high involvement in experiences and drive behavior intention. Secondly, familiarity can change travelers’ risk perception. By decreasing perceived risk travelers’ behavior intentions will be accelerated to visit more destination in a country. Thus, following hypothesis is suggested:

H₇: The relationship between involvement and behavioral intention is mediated by destination familiarity.

As proposed in the second hypothesis, it may be a direct and positive relationship between involvement and behavioral intentions. Additionally, due to probably positive relationship between overall destination image with involvement and behavioral intentions, it can be reasonable that relationship between involvement and behavioral intentions might be mediated by overall destination image. Thus, following hypothesis is suggested:

H₈: The relationship between involvement and behavioral intention is mediated by overall destination image

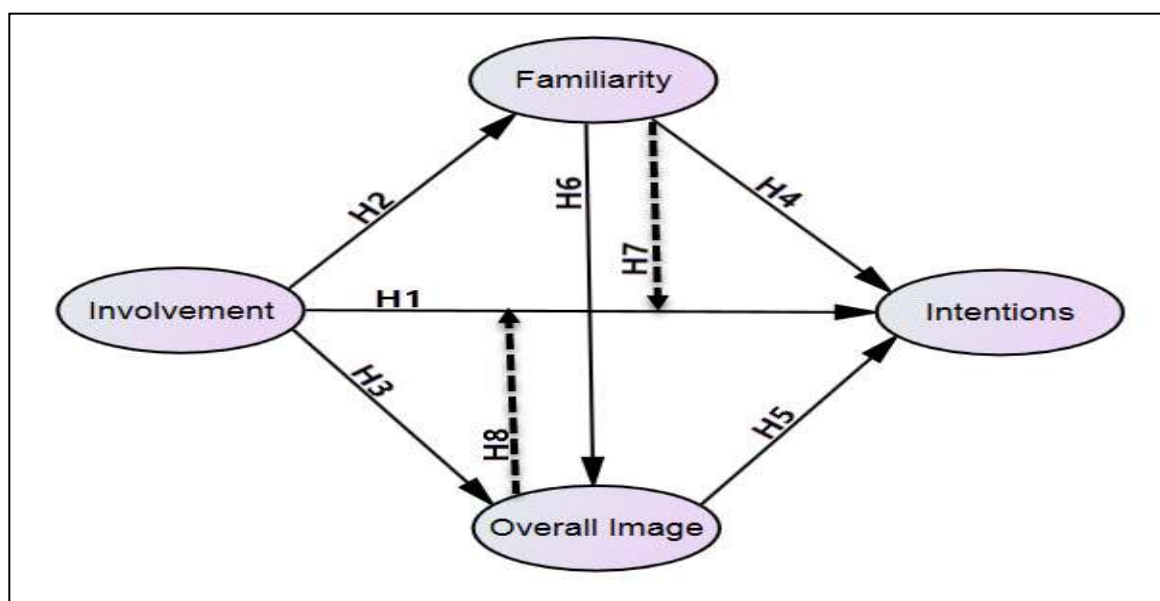


Figure 1.2. The symbolic model of the research

1.5. The importance of research

Sharing as a new economic model with the support of startups is starting to grow at a remarkable rate. For example, according to PricewaterhouseCoopers (PWC) by 2025, the globe revenues of share economy from \$26 billion in 2013 will rise to \$335 billion (Kerr, 2015; Marshall, 2015). “It has the potential of becoming a mainstream phenomenon in travel” (Pizam, 2014: 118) and bring phenomenal changes to tourism. According to World Travel Market (WTM) (2014), alternative accommodation and peer-to-peer sharing will continue to dominate the global travel market.

To proactive planning and effective management of this growing phenomenon, destinations and traditional accommodation need to be sensitive about it. Successful reaction toward sharing economy and specially P2P accommodation will require deeper understanding of their impacts

and dimensions. In this direction, the results of this study can provide direction to policy makers, destination marketers and practitioners to get deeper insights about the different dimensions and importance of sharing economy in tourism. In addition, the final recommendations of this study can be useful for traditional accommodation to redesign or develop their business model and marketing strategies. Further, as the first or one of the very few studies on the investigation of impacts of P2P accommodation on destination, by integration of four variables, namely, involvement, destination familiarity, overall destination image and behavior intentions it can help to fill the gap, shed more light on the literature, and contribute to knowledge development about the impacts of sharing economy and especially P2P accommodation.

1.6. Scope of the study

Generally, collaborative economy in tourism includes seven businesses; food, transportation, equipment, accommodation, finance, information, and local guide. Among these businesses, accommodation was selected as the main setting for this study. Normally, accommodation in collaborative economy are three types, namely; free (e.g. Couchsurfing), for profit (e.g. AIRBNB), and reciprocal (e.g. homeexchange). In this study, free Couchsurfing was selected (Figure 1.3).

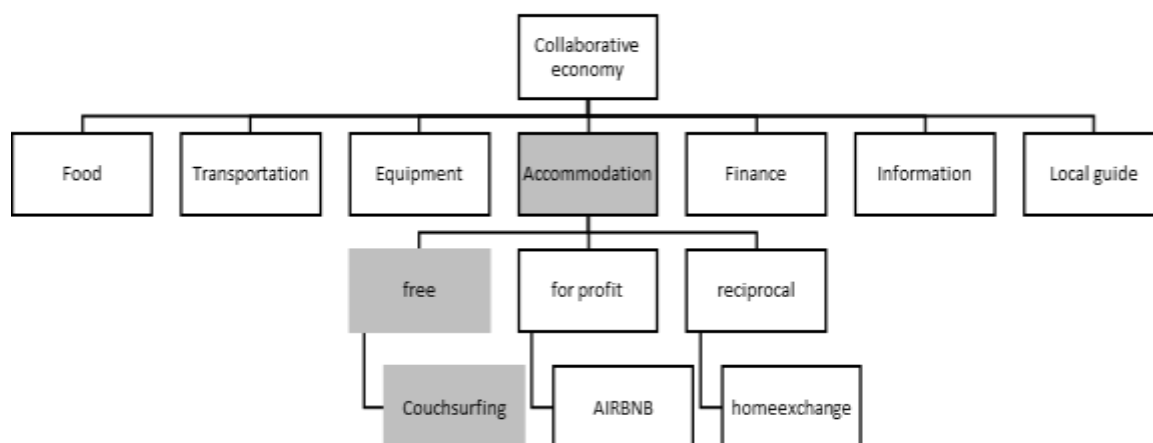


Figure 1.3. Scope of the collaborative economy in this study

Source: Zvolska (2015: 44), and Decrop, Del Chiappa, Mallargé, & Zidda (2017: 1)

In addition to the general scope of study that mentioned above, in the field of theoretical scope each variable has its own scope. Based on the aim of this study, self-described familiarity was selected to measure the impacts of involvement in Couchsurfing experience on familiarity

with Turkey. Moreover, destination image in this study involves overall image and not encompasses other types of destination image, namely, cognitive, affective, and conative. The main reason for adopting overall image was the tendency of Couchsurfers to visit multi cities in a country. Finally, behavioral intention is identified as the likelihood to revisiting Turkey or the more destinations in Turkey, positive e- word-of-mouth about Turkey, invite friends to visit Turkey and continue using Couchsurfing.

1.7. Definitions of terms

1.7.1. Sharing Economy

“The sharing economy refers to forms of exchange facilitated through online platforms, encompassing a diversity of for-profit and non-profit activities that all broadly aim to open access to under-utilized resources through what is termed sharing” (Richardson, 2015: 121). “The Sharing Economy encompasses the following aspects: exchanging, collective purchasing, collaborative consumption, shared ownership, shared value, co-operatives, co-creation, recycling, trading used goods, renting, borrowing, lending, peer-to-peer, collaborative economy, circular economy, pay-as-you-use economy, peer-to-peer lending, micro financing, micro-entrepreneurship, social media, crowdfunding, crowdsourcing, user generated content (UGC)”(Matofska, 2015).

1.7.2. Peer-to-peer Accommodation

It is a concept under the umbrella of the sharing economy. As an “alternative to traditional accommodation” (Baden and Mangematin, 2015: 78) allows people to rent out their empty home or spare room to travelers. It can be for profit , and non-profit.

1.7.3. Involvement

Involvement is “unobservable state of motivation, arousal or interest toward a recreational activity or associated product” (Shafaei and Mohamed, 2015: 6). In the tourism setting, involvement can be defined as the “extent to which tourists are interested in an activity and their affective responses aroused from the activity. Involvement in leisure research is conceptualized from three perspectives: attraction, self-expression, and centrality to lifestyle (Lu, Chi, and Liu, 2015: 88).

1.7.4. Destination familiarity

Familiarity, can be defined as “how much an individual knows about a visited area” (Han and Yamana, 2016: 24). Therefore, it can be said that “a tourist's feeling of familiarity is associated with the affective evaluation that he/she makes of the tourist destination”.

1.7.5. Overall Destination Image

The word image normally refers to a “compilation of beliefs, and impressions based on information processing from a variety of sources over time, resulting in an internally accepted mental construct” (MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997: 538). Based on this, a commonly accepted definition of destination image is “the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination”(Crompton, 1979: 18).

The overall image can be considered as the result of interactions between destination image components. Actually, it can be identified as an overall attitude toward a destination which is formed based on “cognitive beliefs (i.e. knowledge regarding to destination attitudes) and affective emotions (i.e. feelings toward the destination)” (Shafiee, Tabaeian, and Tavakoli, 2016: 2).

1.7.6. Tourism experience

Tourism experience is identified as “an individual perception generated in the context of interactions and resource integration”(Mathis et al., 2016: 63).

1.7.7. Experience co-creation

A process by which travelers generally by support of information communication technology and in the interaction with local people, service providers, tourism attractions and other tourists can design their own experiences (Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009: 317-318).

1.8. Research originality

Originality has been an important factor for doctoral dissertation. While the concept of originality remained more or less “intact and unquestioned until recently” (Clarke and Lunt, 2014), new researches have indicated that the concept of originality in the Ph.D. is a “subjective” (Edwards, 2014: 8) , “complex and multi-faceted” concept (Clarke and Lunt, 2014:

5). Accordingly, when researchers submit articles for publication in journals or Ph.D. proposal typically receive comments such as: “The main problem with this essay is that much of the ground it deals with has been covered before”, “This article offers nothing new to our readers”, “There is nothing really original in the ideas presented in this paper” (Gordon, 2007:197). Based on these comments, it can be said that being original means discovering the special method; create a unique concept, or articulate theory that had never existed before. Gordon (2007) criticized these ideas and indicated that they are too narrow and limiting. For solving this problem, Phillips and Pugh (2010) suggested nine different criteria (Table 1.1).

Table 1.1. Criteria for research originality

Originality Criteria	
Undertaking empirical research that has not been done before.	Trying out something in the UK that has only been undertaken abroad.
Interpreting existing material in a new way.	Undertaking an original synthesis.
Using a particular technique in a new way.	Producing new evidence about an old issue.
Being cross-disciplinary and using alternative Methodologies.	Researching unexplored areas in a discipline.
Providing knowledge in an original way.	

Source: Phillips and Pugh (2010: 69)

During last decade, sharing economy has attracted considerable attention in the different settings. For instance, education (Nygren and Carlson, 2017), technology (Kini, 2002), financing (Tomczak and Brem, 2013), transportation (Watanabe, Naveed, and Neittaanmäki, 2016), marketing (Herbert and Collin-Lachaud, 2016) and tourism (Cheng, 2016b; Richard and Cleveland, 2016). The most of these studies, especially tourism related studies have mainly concentrated on motivation/drivers, and trust (Ert, Fleischer, and Magen, 2016b; Liu and Mattila, 2017). By passing the first waves of sharing economy in tourism, the focus of new studies are going to shift toward its impacts (M. Cheng, 2016a). Among the studies on the impacts of sharing economy development on tourism, the impacts of P2P accommodation on hotels, travel patterns and employments are main trends. It seems that research on the impacts of P2P on destination has not been investigated yet. By using of keywords such as sharing economy and destination, peer-to-peer accommodation and destination and searching on the databases (e.g., Scencedirect, Tandfonline, Emeraldinsight, sagepub, web of science and Proquest, no document was retrieved. This initial search was conducted on 5 November 2016.

In addition, while each of the variables (involvement, destination familiarity, overall destination image, and behavioral intentions) have been gained remarkable attention but the conceptual model and empirical studies relating to relationships among those constructs

and especially, the mediating role of overall destination image and familiarity have not been thoroughly examined in the field of P2P accommodation.

1.9. Thesis plan

This thesis is structured in five chapters: In the first chapter, an overview of the study was presented. After a short background on the problem, chapter followed by purpose of the study, research hypotheses, importance of research, scope of study, definitions of terms, research originality and finally thesis plan were discussed.

In order to provide more detailed insights about variables, namely; involvement, destination familiarity, overall destination image, and behavioral intentions, Chapter 2 outlines prior studies, in the form of a literature review. Based on this, a variety of studies were extensively reviewed and discussed. In addition to the four main variables, sharing economy, sharing economy in tourism, and tourism experience also more deeply were presented. In generally, it can be said that this chapter was looking to show up how this thesis is theoretically positioned.

Chapter three, methodology, describes the approaches of the thesis to design research and methodology. It offers an in depth description of issues relating to how data is collected and applied techniques to analyze the data. This chapter also includes the detailed insights about population and sampling and validity and reliability. This chapter ends with a summary of conditions and influences that can impose restrictions on this study.

In the fifth chapter, the main findings will be presented, followed by an analysis of the seven hypotheses. The last chapter, discussion and results, summarizes the discussions about the main results, and provides recommendations for further research

2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

While studies specifically on the impacts of sharing economy and peer-to-peer accommodation are limited owing to the recentness of the phenomenon, some studies and concepts can be helpful to describe the impacts of peer-to-peer accommodation on destinations. Thus, this literature review focuses on some of the related concepts, including: sharing economy, its motivations and drivers, sharing economy in tourism, peer-to-peer accommodation, motivation to participate and its barriers, tourism experiences and co-created experiences and finally main concepts of this study include; involvement, destination familiarity, overall destination image and behavioral intentions.

2.2. Sharing economy

The sharing economy (SE) is originated from Web 2.0 and customer-to-customer communication developments. However, John (2013: 113) emphasizes that it is not just a type of communication, but also an economic activity which can be a combination both production and consumption. Sharing is not a new phenomenon. It has recently shifted from traditional forms which were among family members and close friends (Belk, 2010: 715) to sharing, lending, renting, and exchanging goods and services among strangers (Schor, 2014: 3). This shift is enabled and supported by startups and peer networks (Voytenko Palgan, Zvolaska, and Mont, 2016: 1). The initial aims of SE were not-for-profit, such as couchsurfing. Gradually, the success of Airbnb and Uber as the two successful output of Silicon Valley changed the initial aims. Today's SE based startups have gained wide public attention and became big business in the world by taking a fraction of the sharing fee (Codagnone and Martens, 2016: 4).

Emerging new concepts in the consumer researches can be good witness to show the flourishing of recent attention to SE for example: "the mesh" (Gansky, 2010: 1), "experience co-creation" (Mathis, Kim, Uysal, Sirgy, and Prebensen, 2016: 62), "co-production" (Pacheco, Becker, and Brei, 2017: 95), "prosumption" (Fox, 2014: 18; Lucyna and Hanna, 2016: 212), "access-based consumption" (Lawson, Gleim, Perren, and Hwang, 2016: 2615), and "cyber volunteering" (Raja-Yusof, Norman, Abdul-Rahman, Nazri, and Mohd-Yusoff, 2016: 388).

It can be said that the sharing economy is a "floating signifier for a diverse range of activities" (Richardson, 2015: 122). This has resulted in introducing the SE as an umbrella term with a range of synonym include, but not limited to "collaborative consumption" (Herbert and Collin-Lachaud, 2016: 1), "collaborative economy" (Gruszka, 2017: 1), "peer-to-peer economy"

(Weber, 2016: 573), “gig economy” (Carr, Hall, Mason, and Varney, 2017: 1; Webster, 2016). Based on this nature of SE, a variety of definitions are available and there is no definitive definition (Cockayne, 2016: 73)(Table 2.1).

Table 2.1. Sharing economy definitions

Author(s)	Definition
(Habibi, Davidson, and Laroche, 2017: 113)	“Umbrella term for a wide range of no ownership forms of consumption activities such as swapping, bartering, trading, renting, sharing, and exchanging”.
(Cockayne, 2016: 73)	“The on-demand or ‘sharing’ economy is a term that describes digital platforms that connect consumers to a service or commodity through the use of a mobile application or website”.
(Chen, Phang, and Zhang, 2016: 6)	“Sharing economy is a new socioeconomic groundswell in which traditional sharing, bartering, lending, trading, renting, gifting, and swapping are redefined through technology and peer communities”
(Stephany, 2015: 9)	“The value in taking under-utilized assets and making them accessible online to a community, leading to a reduced need for ownership”
(Schor, Walker, Lee, Parigi, and Cook, 2015: 14)	“Economic activity that is Peer-to-Peer, or person-to-person, facilitated by digital platforms”
(Richardson, 2015: 121)	“The sharing economy refers to forms of exchange facilitated through online platforms, encompassing a diversity of for-profit and non-profit activities that all broadly aim to open access to under-utilized resources through what is termed sharing. The sharing economy constitutes an apparent paradox. It has been framed both as part of the capitalist economy and as an alternative: simultaneously neoliberalism on steroids”

Based on these definitions, it can be concluded that SE is a phenomenon that is facilitated by Web 2.0 technology. It can be non-profit or for profit. There is so many businesses fall under the definition of the share economy. Collaborative economy-honeycomb of Owyang (2014) can clearly shows the industries and startup within the share economy. The first version of honeycomb included six industries which were goods, transportation, food, services, space and money. In the honeycomb 2.0 he added six new hexes which are health and wellness, logistics, corporate, utilities, municipal and learning (Green, 2015: 47).

Recently, by emerging new trends in the sharing economy Owyang has introduced honeycomb 3.0. Two new categories (“Worker Support”, “Analytics and Reputation”), subcategories and “three re-organizations of previously established categories” were added. Honeycomb 3.0 includes 280 startups (Owyang, 2016) (Figure 2.1).

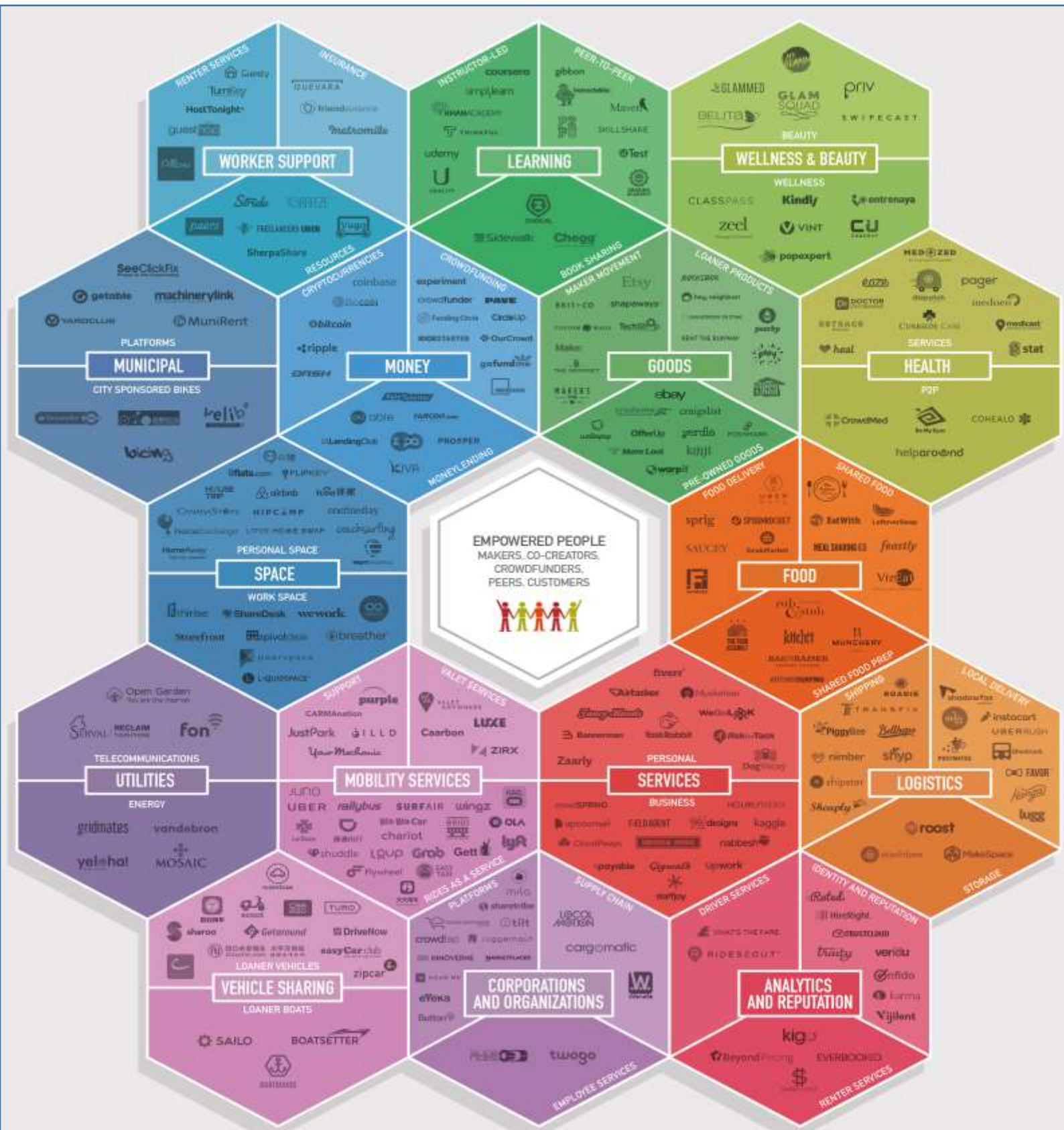


Figure 2.1. Honeycomb 3.0.
Source: Owyang (2016)

2.2.1. Motivations to participation in the sharing economy

Term of motivation that is used to explore the reasons “why people do what they do” (Reeve, 2014: 7) will be studied. In this step, exploring of what motivates tourists to participate in the sharing economy is the main aim. Generally, motivation can be divided into two, namely; “internal and external motivation” (ACA, 2015: 344; Klock et al., 2015: 596). “Internal motivation is driven by interest or enjoyment in the task itself and exist in the individuals” (Pia Nielsen, 2014: 200). External motivation refers to external factors that inspire one person to do something (Chao-ying Tang, 2013: 427).

Traditionally, extrinsic motivation has been seen as the main driver of a behavior (Heinzmann, 2013). In contrast with the past studies, Deci and Ryan (1985) suggested one of the “leading” and the most “comprehensive” theories about motivation; self-determination theory (SDT) (Joetze, 2011: 5; Velliotis, 2008: 141). In this theory, the main attention is on three intrinsic drivers, namely: “autonomy, competency, and relatedness” (Deci and Ryan, 2000: 227). Based on SDT, Pink (2011) suggested autonomy, mastery, and purpose as the three elements of true motivation (Pink, 2015).

In addition to these general views about motivation, some studies focused on the sharing economy. Botsman and Rogers (2011) suggest that participation in the sharing economy can be boosted by economic, practical, social and idealistic factors. Reputation among peers (Tussyadiah, 2015a: 818), enjoyment and sustainability (Hamari, Ukkonen, and Sjöklint, 2015: 10–11) and curiousness (Glind, 2013: 19), are among other incentives that have been suggested for SE.

2.2.2. The Sharing Economy Drivers

Sharing economy is introduced as a disruptive business model which can shift our way of consumption and bring a challenge to the traditional businesses. Accordingly, understanding how it has grown and what factors empower its existence can be helpful. There are different drivers for rising sharing economy. Financial factor is one of the main drivers. Economic recession makes customers more conservative. They prefer to live with less. Rising in SE can be a reaction to economic crisis because it helps customers to meet their wants without the need to individual ownerships. So, they can save money (Caudron and Peteghem, 2014).

Technological developments and especially emerging web 2.0 are other important factors in the share economy development. From this perspective, by development web 2.0 the effects of traditional models of communication (B2C) were limited. The main assumption in the traditional model was the one-step flow or “hypodermic needle model of communications”

which in it information and messages directly send to individual by mass media (Cooper, 1999: 42). “The content, frequency, timing, and medium of communication” controlled by the communicators (Mangold and Faulds, 2009: 359). Just the word-of-mouth happened outside the control of marketers which had minimal effect on marketplace (Bulut, 2013: 64). However, in the era of web 2.0 and social media, marketers’ control is being decreasing. In new communication, “the distinction between consumer and producer tends to blur” (Quan-Haase and Young, 2010: 351). Communication model has shifted from One way to many to many communication. Consumers can generate information and messages about goods, events, or services and share them in a second with others. Therefore, people have moved from only being consumers to more active roles. Some new terms such as “prosumers” or even “prodsumer” reflect this change. As consumers become both producer and consumer of information this is called prosumer (Han, Song, and Han, 2013: 164).

The success of sharing economy based startups mostly lies on the web 2.0, which makes sharing possible at large scale (Cohen and Kietzmann, 2014). Social Media and peer-to-peer technologies make sharing more convenient. People more quickly can exchange, resell and rent even with strangers. The result is flourishing and development sharing platforms worldwide with huge listings. For example, couchsurfing user from December 14, 2014 to April 28, 2017, has been risen from 9 million members in more than 120,000 cities (Luo and Zhang, 2016: 108) to 12 million people in more than 200,000 cities worldwide (Couchsurfing, 2017). Airbnb also has “over 1,5 million listings- homes, apartments, guest rooms, even houseboats and tree houses - in more than 34,000 cities in over 190 countries” (Somerville, 2015).

Being environmental friendly and more sustainable in contrast to the currently unsustainable economy, is another important factor that the sharing economy has been praised for it (Voytenko Palgan et al., 2016: 1). The sharing economy can increase the re-using of already produced but underutilized goods and extends products’ life span through facilitating their distribution among people. Actually, “By shifting the paradigm away from individual ownership to collectivity and sharing, less demand for consumer goods may give way to a new economy that could help take on problems such as pollution and excessive energy usage”(Prothero et al., 2011: 36). While above mentioned drivers are general, table 2.2 can indicates drivers in more details.

Table 2.2. Sharing economy drivers

Author	Drivers
Andersson et al. (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Internet based platforms • Post crisis antidote to materialism- Cost -saving • Environmental concerns
Avital et al. (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spare capacity exchange • Re-engineering of consumption. Access over ownership
Botsman and Rogers (2011)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Idling capacity- Critical mass • Environmental concerns - Cost consciousness • Trust between strangers - Belief in the commons • Resurgence of community • P2P technologies
Cusumano (2015)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Underutilized assets • Social media
Gansky (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Information networks • Distrust of old companies • People reconsider what's valuable • Growing population and urbanization • Climate change
John (2013)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Technology as driver • Technology as enabler
Malhotra and Van Alstyne (2014)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Spare resources and Two-sided platforms

Source: Green (2015: 31)

2.3. Sharing economy in tourism

During the first nine months of 2016 global tourism grew by 4% and reached 956 million. "This is 34 million more than in the same period of 2015" (UNWTO, 2016a). "The total contribution of Travel and Tourism to GDP was 7,170,3 billion dollars (9,8% of *GDP*) in 2015, and is forecasted to rise by 4,0% to 10,986,5 billion dollars (10,8% of *GDP*) in 2026". According to the latest annual report of World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC) tourism "now supports 284 million people in employment – that's 1 in 11 jobs on the planet" (WTTC, 2016). In addition, the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) forecasts that global tourism will be reached to 1,8 billion by 2030 (UNWTO, 2016b). By taking these trends into account, it can be said that "tourism is one of the fastest growing industries in the world and a leading driver of economic growth and socio-economic progress" (Shahzad, Shahbaz, Ferrer, and Kumar, 2017: 223).

In order to get more share of high competitive market of tourism, destinations and stockholders need to pay attention to the drivers that are going to change tourism markets. Various factors underpin this shift. Firstly, for quite a long while, the reasons that affected a

traveler's choice to arrange an occasion have remained the same: a wish to visit new destination, to rest and take a break from daily and working pressures. Until now, mass tourism has met this need by giving tourists chances for enjoying new experiences as spectators (Forno and Garibaldi, 2015: 204). Actually, it can be said that in the mass tourism vision is addressed as the main factor for tourist experiences (Urry and Larsen, 2011: 187). As Small, Darcy, and Packer (2012: 941) indicated, "the holiday has been portrayed as a sensory void".

Recently, tourism literature spotlight the importance of the sensory component of tourist experiences. These studies indicate that for attracting contemporary travelers destinations should focus on multisensory (visual, sounds, smells, tastes and touch) (Agapito, Pinto, and Mendes, 2017; Kastenholtz, Carneiro, Peixeira Marques, and Lima, 2012; Kirillova, Fu, Lehto, and Cai, 2014). Accordingly, it can be said that being spectator no longer accepted for contemporary travelers. Actually, they are looking for unique experiences and a first-hand co-created experience. This tendency to "authentic, individualized, and intimate embodied experiences with the people and places they visit reflects dissatisfaction among primarily middle-class tourists who are tired of plastic rooms, McDisneyized experiences and the serial reproduction of culture" (Germann Molz, 2013: 213).

Secondly, the development of information communication technologies (ICTs) and particularly web 2.0 give travelers to go beyond the conventional intermediaries/operators. As Buhalis and Law (2008: 610–611) indicated "the development of ICTs and particularly the internet empowered the "new" tourist who is becoming knowledgeable and is seeking exceptional value for money and time. They are less interested in following the crowds in packaged tours and much more keen to pursue their own preferences and schedules". Now tourists can quickly and directly contact with the local people and independently can co-create their experiences and satisfied own specific needs or expectations (Forno and Garibaldi, 2015: 206-207).

The results of these changes, shifts the tourism literature toward the sharing economy in tourism. While it is a new model of business in tourism and dialogue about it has just started (Alice Viba, 2014; Brodersen, 2015; Penn and Wihbey, 2015) but it is going to be central focus of researchers, government and traditional stockholders (Table 2.3).

Table 2.3. Sharing economy in the tourism literature

Author(s)/ Year	Source Title	Methodology	Aims	Findings
(Fang, Ye, and Law, 2015)	Annals of Tourism Research	Data collection (DC): panel data Analysis: Robustness test	Exploring the effect of sharing economy on employment	Peer-to-peer can play an important role in solving the unemployment problem. However, its entry to market must be formulated through policies.
(Martin, 2016b)	Ecological Economics	DC: Literature review Analysis: content analysis	Reviewing of existing literature to provide guideline for future studies.	6 frames of share economy: (1) "an economic opportunity; (2) a more sustainable form of consumption; (3) a pathway to a decentralized, equitable and sustainable economy; (4) creating unregulated marketplaces; (5) reinforcing the neoliberal paradigm; and, (6) an incoherent field of innovation"
(Luo and Zhang, 2016)	Tourism Management	DC: Questionnaire, Interview Analysis: confirmatory factor analyses	Investigating trust building on Couchsurfing	For initial trust a number of references and vouch (a feature members used to indicate trust and connection to each other on profiles) are important.
(Green, 2015)	Master Thesis (University Copenhagen)	DC: interviews, case studies Analysis: Taxonomy	Exploring sharing economy drivers	Save costs and resources- increased revenue- Response to competition- Improve brand, trust, and loyalty-
(Tussyadiah and Pesonen, 2015)	Journal of Travel Research	DC: Questionnaire Analysis: regression analyses	Studying the Impacts p2p on Travel Patterns	Expansion in Destination Selection, Increase in Travel Frequency, Increase in Length of Stay, Increase in Activity Participation
(Störby and Strömblad, 2015)	Master Thesis (Kristianstad University)	DC: Online focus group Analysis: Content analysis	Exploring the motivation collaborative lifestyles	Economic factors are the most important Motivation. Personal reputation and curiosity are the least important motivation. Furthermore, practical factors proved to be a condition, rather than a motivating factor
(Andersson, Hjalmarsson, and Avital, 2013)	Proceedings of the 34th International Conference on Information Systems	DC: Exploratory case study approach Analysis: Content Analysis	Exploring the unique characteristics of peer-to-peer services and drivers	Drivers of collaborative economy: post-crisis antidote to materialism, overconsumption, environmental conscious save money
(Guttentag, 2013)	<i>Current Issues in Tourism</i>	DC: Literature review Analysis: Descriptive	Exploring Airbnb as a disruptive innovation	Airbnb has potential to significantly disrupt the traditional accommodation sector, positively and negatively can impacts on destinations

Flourishing the share economy in tourism bring opportunities for “Informal, part-time and independent providers of tourism services”(OECD, 2016a: 90) to start their independent business. Today, by creative and innovative ideas of the sharing economy based startups they can offer their products and services to tourism market. While the sharing economy is more prominent in accommodation sector but growth of the sharing economy in other sectors in tourism such as transportation, dining and travel experience is booming. In generally, development of SE in travel and tourism can be divided in four groups; namely: transportation (Uber), dining (Eatwith), tour guide services (Vayable), and accommodation (Airbnb, couchsurfing) (Ert, Fleischer, and Magen, 2016: 62) (Table 2.4). SE is rising and being more attractive for travelers and host community, due to some reasons, namely:

- Contribution of SE to make extra income for the local people by allowing them to share their homes, cars, meals, and knowledge,
- Decreasing the travel expenditures for tourists, changes travel patterns (increase length of stay, number of participated activities) (Tussyadiah and Pesonen, 2015: 1021).
- Contribution to decreasing hyper-consumption, over production and sustainable tourism (Daunorienė, Drakšaitė, Snieška, and Valodkienė, 2015; Martin, 2016b).
- Help travelers to co-design their experiences directly by help of local people.

In spite of these benefits, researchers, practitioners and governments are increasingly concerned with the rapid growth of the sharing economy. Tax, unemployment and safety are among top reasons which make them worried (Cheng, 2016: 61).

Table 2.4. Sharing economy based platforms in tourism

		ACCOMMODATION
1	Platform	Airbnb
	Description	Short-term accommodation rental platform – primarily generates revenue through commissions paid through service fees by renters and travelers. Founded: 2008
	Number of users	Close to 2 million accommodations made available by hosts. Over 60 million guests since commencing operations. On one peak night in 2015, almost 1 million people stayed in Airbnb accommodation
	Annual turnover	Total revenue in 2013 was USD 250 million. Expected to reach USD 900 million in 2015.
	Value	Valued at USD 25.5 billion (As of June 2015).
	Area	Global – more than 190 countries, 34000 cities.
2	Platform	Couchsurfing
	Description	Hospitality exchange and social networking platform – initially non-profit, has been restructured as for-profit organization. Founded: 2004
	Number of users	Approximately 10 million members.
	Annual turnover	Data not reported. Registration is free, revenue through optional verification
	Value	Data not reported
	Area	Global – 200 000 cities

Table 2.4. Sharing economy based platforms in tourism (Continued)

3	Platform	HomeAway
	Description	Vacation rental platform – primarily generates revenue through subscriptions paid by homeowners. Also owns Bookabach and VRBO. Founded: 2005
	Number of users	Over 1 million paid listings.
	Annual turnover	HomeAway report total revenue increased 28.9% To USD 446.8 million in 2014 from USD 346.5 million in 2013. Nearly 2000 employees.
	Value	Valued at USD 3 billion (As of February 2015).
	Area	Global – 190 Countries
TRANSPORTATION		
4	Platform	Uber
	Description	Ride-sharing and technology platform, including peer-to-peer UberX or Uber POP service – driver partners pay company a fee to collect and emit payment. Founded: 2009.
	Number of users	More than 1 million active driver partners, defined as taking 4 or more trips per month. More than 3 million trips each day.
	Annual turnover	Estimated USD 1.5-2 billion revenue in 2014. Projected to reach USD 10 billion in 2015.
	Value	Valued at USD 62.5 billion (As of January 2016).
	Area	Global – approximately 400 cities in 68 countries.
5	Platform	BlaBlaCar
	Description	Ride-sharing platform – driver is paid for ride, company collects 20% commission. Founded: 2012
	Number of users	Over 20 million registered users Approximately 3 million rides each month. Growth of 200% year-on-year.
	Annual turnover	Business Insider estimates USD 72 million in annual revenue (based on costs and average rides).
	Value	Raised over USD 100 million in funding for international expansion. Based on similar firms this would value the company at approximately USD 1.2 billion (As of September 2015).
	Area	Founded in France, Operates in 19 countries: Croatia, France, Germany, Hungary, India, Italy, Mexico, Poland, Portugal, Serbia, Spain, Romania, Russia, Turkey, Ukraine, United Kingdom
6	Platform	DINING EatWith
	Description	Shared dining platform to arrange dinner parties with host chefs – company collects 15% commission. Founded: 2012
	Number of users	500 hosts in 2014.
	Annual turnover	Valuation figure unavailable. Received USD 8 million in recent funding rounds.
	Value	-
	Area	International –160 cities in 30 countries
7	Platform	BonAppetour
	Description	Web platform-targeting tourists – allows users to arrange meals and cooking classes in the home of a local person. Founded: 2013
	Number of users	Over 500 hosts registered Online.
	Annual turnover	Valuation figure unavailable. Received USD 8 million in recent funding rounds.
	Value	-
	Area	45 countries all around the world
TRAVEL EXPERIENCE		
8	Platform	Vayable
	Description	Online marketplace for personal tours and travel experiences. Founded: 2011
	Number of users	Does not disclose total number of registered users.
	Annual turnover	In 2013, booking revenue in June was around USD 350 000, jumping to USD 1.4 million in July.
	Value	Received USD 2.1 million in funding.
	Area	International

Source: OECD (2016: 91)

2.3.1. Peer-to-peer Accommodation

The accommodation is the largest sector in the tourism. While it is important and facilitates tourists stay in the destination, but it is the main part of total tourist expenditure. Accordingly, the accommodation is fundamental part of tourism which plays an important role in the tourist experience (Sharpley, 2006: 60). Recently, the sharing economy and especially peer-to-peer accommodations (P2P) disturb the conventional accommodation sector. Accordingly, P2P rapidly attract the attention of researchers (Table 2.5-6).

Table 2.5. Thesis related to peer-to-peer accommodation

Author(s) / Year	Type	Topic	Variable(s) under study
(Guttentag, 2016)	Ph.D.	Why tourists choose Airbnb: A motivation-based segmentation study underpinned by innovation concepts	Motivation
(Netsiporuk, 2016)	Master	The Customer Experience in the Sharing Economy: A Context Specific Approach to Airbnb	Customer Experience
(Proserpio, 2016)	Ph.D.	The impact of online markets on the hotel industry	Brand reputation
(Enachescu, 2015)	Master	Trust among peers on peer-to-peer marketplaces as AirBnB	Trust
(Zvolaska, 2015b)	Master	Sustainability Potentials of the Sharing Economy : the case of accommodation sharing platforms	Sustainability
(Qiu, 2015)	Master	Factors affecting travelers' intentions to choose alternative lodging	Innovation Diffusion Theory (IDT) Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)
(Thoem, 2015)	Master	Belong Anywhere, Commodify Everywhere.: A critical look into the state of private short-term rentals in Stockholm, Sweden.	Gentrification- Neoliberal Urbanism
(Janssen, 2015)	Master	Can I sleep at your place tonight?: A case study on the shared economy and practices of trust assessment	Trust
(Roberts, 2016)	Ph.D.	CouchSurfing and Connectivity: Theorizing the Hybrid Collective Through an International Hospitality Network	Global Hybridity- Hybrid Collective
(Liu, 2013)	Ph.D.	Social networking sites' influence on travelers' authentic experience a case study of couch surfing	Authentic experience
(Shapiro, 2012)	Ph.D.	'CouchSurfing': Explorations in Cosmopolitanism, Trust, and Resistance	Trust- Resistance
(Ayers-Greenidge, 2012)	Ph.D.	Free associations: An exploration of guests' experiences in the couchsurfing exchange	Guests' Experiences

Table 2.6. Peer-to-peer accommodation related articles

Author	Type	Topic	Variable(s) under study
(Pezenka, Weismayer, and Lalicic, 2017)	Journal Article	Personality impacts on the participation in peer-to-peer (p2p) travel accommodation service	Personality
(Zervas, Proserpio, and Byers, 2017)	Journal Article	The rise of the sharing economy: estimating the impact of airbnb on the	Economic impact of the sharing economy on accommodation
(Meleo, Romolini, and De Marco, 2016)	Journal Article	The sharing economy revolution and peer-to-peer online platforms. the case of airbnb	P2P network dimensions
(Tussyadiah, 2016)	Journal Article	Factors of satisfaction and intention to use peer-to-peer accommodation	Satisfaction-behavioral intentions
(Abramova, Shavanova, Fuhrer, and Krasnova, 2015)	Preceding Article	Understanding the sharing economy: the role of response to negative reviews in the peer-to-peer accommodation sharing network	Trust
(Tussyadiah and Pesonen, 2015)	Journal Article	Impacts of peer-to-peer accommodation use on travel patterns	Travel frequency, length of stay, activities participation and destination selection
(Guttentag, 2015)	Journal Article	Airbnb: disruptive innovation and the rise of an informal tourism accommodation sector	Impacts on destinations and accommodations
(Tan, 2010)	Preceding Article	The leap of faith from online to offline: an exploratory study of couchsurfing.org	Trust
(Peterson and Siek, 2009)	Journal Article	Analysis of information disclosure on a social networking site	Information Disclosure

As it might be understood from table 2.5-6, over the time understudied variables in the peer-to-peer related studies have shifted. While former studies have focused on variables such as trust, motivation, experience and information disclosure, new researchers are trying to explore the impacts of peer-to-peer accommodation. For example, the impacts of P2P on hotels, destinations, and travel patterns. In addition to scholars, it has been attracted the attention of tourism related organizations and media. Almost all of these reports introduce peer-to-peer accommodation as a disruptive business model for traditional accommodations (Table 2.7).

Table 2.7. Peer-to-peer accommodation in the media

Media	
(Tnooz, 2016)	“Rifai says the industry is now living through what many have called the fourth industrial revolution. Screens are everywhere, connecting and empowering billions of people across the planet in real time, providing a voice to the silent and creating a new sense of belonging to a new-found global community. Technology is rapidly changing consumers’ behavior, business models, including the ‘so called sharing economy’ and destination management”.
(Euromonitor, 2014)	“The sharing economy has taken the travel and tourism industry by storm, tapping into the consumer zeitgeist ¹ for sustainable, authentic and local services when it comes to lodging, transport, activities, dining and finance, amongst others”.
(PWC, 2014)	By 2025, peer-to-peer networks have a potential to generate revenue opportunity worth \$335bn
(Economist, 2013)	“This emerging model is now big and disruptive enough for regulators and companies to have woken up to it. That is a sign of its immense potential. It is time to start caring about sharing”.

P2P accommodations are networks which enable local people to rent out their “spare rooms or unoccupied houses and apartments” as an accommodation to tourists (Tussyadiah and Zach, 2016: 1). Generally, the sharing economy based on accommodation can be divided into three groups, namely: P2P, B2B and B2C. The B2C model is same to the incumbent hotel industry. The B2B platforms are very limited. “Hotel Swaps” is one of the common platforms that allow member hotels worldwide to swap their empty rooms for free stays at other member hotels. It has 292 hotel members (10559 rooms) in 55 countries. (hotelswaps.com). While both B2B and B2C platforms are very limited, P2P platforms have become the main player of the share economy based on accommodation. Schor and Fitzmaurice (2015) based on profit generation divided share economy platforms into two groups (Table 2.8).

Recently Zvolska (2015: 21) criticized Schor and Fitzmaurice’s typology. He indicated that “while this typology is useful in addressing the organizing logics of sharing platforms, their level of disruptiveness to the incumbent industry and their ability to expand as well as how they operate on the market, it does not acknowledge the role of the users. In addition, as mentioned above, B2P platforms, which are represented in this typology, are not part of the accommodation segment of the sharing economy as they represent the incumbent hotel industry.” Therefore, based on “interaction between the platforms’ users” he developed new typology with three groups: rental (Airbnb), free (Couchsurfing and Be Welcome) and

¹ Zeitgeist (the spirit of the time). In addition, “Founded in 2008, the Zeitgeist movement is an international sustainability advocacy organization which urges a global transition to a new economic model termed a “Natural Law/Resource Based Economy” (www.thezeitgeistmovement.com).

reciprocal (home exchange)” (Voytenko et al., 2016: 3). It seems that this typology can better show the P2P accommodations.

Table 2.8. Typology of sharing economy platforms

		Organization	
		Peer-to-Peer (P2P)	Business-to-Peer (B2P)
Market Orientation	Non-Profit	P2P Non-Profit Sharing e.g. Food Swaps, Time Banks	B2P Non-Profit Sharing
	For-Profit	P2P For-Profit Sharing e.g. Relay Rides, AirBnB	B2P For-Profit Sharing e.g. Zipcar

Source: Schor and Fitzmaurice (2015: 420)

Free platforms are those P2P networks which their members are not looking for earn money. “Couchsurfing” and “Be Welcome” are two common free P2P accommodations. “Reciprocity is a form of conditional gain; that is, people expect future benefits from their present actions” (Moghavvemi et al., 2017: 4). In the reciprocity based P2P accommodation, members will be motivated to contribute if they think that their participation is worth the effort. Rental P2P accommodation is for-profit. Actually, monetary is the main motivation to contribution.

Each of these P2P networks with its attractive benefits is driving more and more millennial travelers to choose these non-traditional accommodations. Millennials or generation Y are those who “born between 1980 and 2000” (Polzin, Chu, and Godfrey, 2014: 59). They are the first generation to grow up and get access to the information communication technologies (ICTs) developments, like internet and social media. Accordingly, they have become one of the main target markets of social media and P2P networks. They more count on ICTs for communication (Rosa and Hastings, 2016: 33) and it can be said that more than other generation, they are derived by peer. It is estimated that by 2020 or sooner, generation Y might become the main player of travel market. Based on this, it can be estimated that the alternative lodging will become more popular (Qiu, 2015) and forcing more traditional accommodation to reevaluate their polices and business modes.

2.3.2. Host's Motivations to contribution in P2P accommodation

Travelers choose P2P accommodation for different reasons. Based on the above mentioned three types of P2P lodging, following motivation can be identified for contribution:

Free P2P accommodation: A study by Pietilä (2011) which focused on motivation of local people in Spain to host travelers, find out that “social and cultural reasons; to make friendships, cultural exchange and to learn something from the interaction with the guest.” In addition, altruism and prosocial behavior can be other motivations which can be added. Prosocial behavior is defined as actions which “intended to help others without expectation of rewards”(Puckett & Diffily, 2004: 313).

Reciprocal P2P accommodation: Home exchangers use their home as an “asset to be capitalized”, to give them a chance to travel to destinations which otherwise is hard and unreachable (Tonner, Hamilton, and Hower, 2016: 29). Looking for experiencing authentic cultural experiences, travel more and save money are other main motivations for contribution in reciprocal P2P accommodation (Zvolska, 2015: 24).

Rental P2P accommodation: While the main motivation for this type is economic benefits for both guests and hosts but according to Tussyadiah (2015a) social connections and sustainability can be added too.

2.3.3. Barriers of Peer-to-peer accommodation

While P2P accommodation benefits, including; financial benefits, social connections, reducing over-consumption, easy use and enjoyment are flourishing it but it has some barriers to being acceptance in the market. Trust is the main challenge. It is the belief that somebody/something is good, sincere, honest, etc. and will not try to harm or trick you (Oxford, 2015). It can be divided into three groups: inter-organizational, intra-organizational and inter-personal (Tatham and Kovács, 2010: 35). “Trust can be conceptualized as either experience-based or cue-based. Experience-based trust is acquired via repeated interactions, whereas cue-based trust refers to that founded on cues received from a single encounter (e.g., a website or online review message)”(Sparks, So, and Bradley, 2016:75).

The development of web 2.0, particularly the booming of the social media, by changing the circulation of information about individuals (Rosen, Lafontaine, and Hendrickson, 2011: 984) have decreased the effects of “traditional factors (e.g., blood and geographical relationships) on trust building” (Luo and Zhang, 2016: 109). However, still, trust is one of the main factors in the success of collaborative consumption (McCarthy, 2015). Even some

researcher have indicated that future of peer-to-peer consumption will be related to trust (Ufford, 2015).

“Researchers have suggested different approaches to study trust: “social identity approach to trust” (Tanis and Postmes, 2005: 413), “personality trait theory” (Ebert, 2010: 11), “theory of interpersonal trust” (Christiano Castelfranchi, 2010: 143), and “swift trust theory” (Tatham and Kovács, 2010:35). However, in field of online trust there are two main approach, the first one focuses on the “technology mediated trust” (Herrmann, Issarny, and Shiu, 2005: 362). It is related to different methods that online platforms use to build trust among users (e.g. review, email, references, verified, linked to social media). The second approach focuses on the interpersonal relationship. Applying of this method means focusing on factors influencing trust building and the trust building process itself.

2.4. Tourism experience

The importance of experience and experience co-creation in creating competitive advantage and their consequences such as satisfaction, behavioral intention, re-visit intention (McLean and Wilson, 2016: 603) has drawn attention of both tourism academicians and practitioners. In addition to the importance of experience and co-creation dominant approaches, there is another reason for importance of experience in tourism. Tourism is seen as an inherently experience-based activity so it is treated as the “biggest” maker of experiences (Tussyadiah, 2014: 543).

While there is an agreement on the importance of experience, however, due to accepting different approaches to define the tourism experience (TE), there is no agreement on the definition. Some researchers based on “temporal perspective describe the TE as an “activity-based process” (Wang, Park, and Fesenmaier, 2012: 327). Some other scholars by accepting the perspectives of Holbrook and Hirschman (1981) have suggested that TE “should go beyond activity-based approach and be considered as a dynamic and reflective process” comprise of tourists’ psychological and emotional states”(Kim and Fesenmaier, 2015: 1). Some researchers believe that TE is much more complex to be defined; due to its overlapping with everyday experiences (Dan Wang, Xiang, and Fesenmaier, 2014: 12). However, this idea has criticized by Mossberg (2007). By using of accommodation and food setting he showed that TE was the extension of the daily experiences. However, by proposing factors influencing the tourist experiences, it seemed that Mossberg was agreed with the complexity of TE (Figure 2.2).

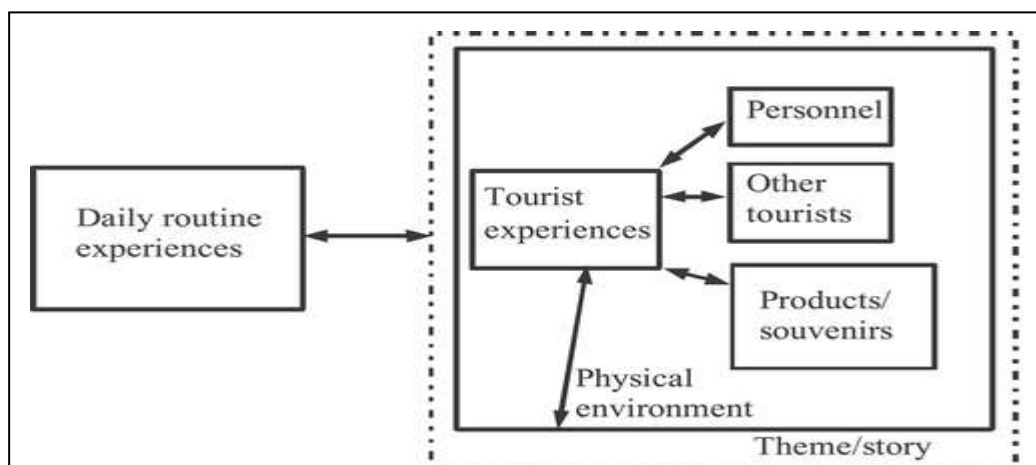


Figure 2.2. Factors influencing tourist experiences.

Source: Mossberg (2007: 65)

Physical environment refers to setting and context where experiences are shaped. Other tourists refer to interaction among tourists. It could have considerable influence in creating positive experiences. In addition, personality characteristic of the travelers is another important factor which can influencing the TE (Komppula, Ilves, and Airey, 2016: 523). The more recently studies also show that information and communication technologies have changed tourism experiences. These changes involve before, during and after travel experiences (Kim and Fesenmaier, 2017: 29). While the disagreement on a comprehensive definition of TE continues, the number of related studies in the various tourism activities and tourism sectors is rising. For example; medical tourism (Lee, Han, and Lockyer, 2012), heritage tourism (Ung and Vong, 2010), wellness tourism (Lo, Qu, and Wetprasit, 2013), e-tourism (Yoo and Gretzel, 2016), wine tourism (Quadri-Felitti and Fiore, 2016), customer experiences in hotels (Cetin and Walls, 2016), and authentic experiences in the ethnic restaurants (Jong-Hyeong Kim and Jang, 2016; Rezende and Silva, 2014). A review of the tourism and leisure literature by Kim et al (2012) indicated a variety of concepts that researchers have emphasized in their research on tourism experiences.

As table 2.9 shows, involvement is one of the main factor and core antecedents for tourism experiences. The level of involvement positively affects the participation in experience co-creation, perceived value, positive experience, satisfaction, and loyalty (Kim, Woo, and Uysal, 2015: 465). In addition, the positively impacts of positive tourist experience on behavioral intentions, revisit intention and destination image has been approved by scholars (Altunel and Erkut, 2015a; Tan, 2016).

Table 2.9. Concepts investigated in the tourism experience related studies

Factors	Relevant Literature
Involvement	Bloch and Richins 1983; Blodgett and Granbois 1992; Celsi and Olson 1988; Park and Hastak 1994; Sanbomatsu and Fazio 1990; Swinyard 1993
Hedonism	Dunman and Mattila 2005; Lee, Dattilo, and Howard 1994
Happiness	Bolla, Dawson, and Harrington 1991
Pleasure	Farber and Hall 2007; Floyd 1997; Gunter 1987
Relaxation	Howard et al. 1993; Mannell, Zuzanek, and Larson 1988
Stimulation	Arnould and Price 1993; Bolla, Dawson, and Harrington 1991; Howard et al. 1993; Obenour et al. 2006; Samdahl 1991
Refreshment	Howard et al. 1993; Hull and Michael 1995; Samdahl 1991
Social interaction	Ap and Wong 2001; Arnould and Price 1993; Bolla, Dawson, and Harrington 1991; Howard et al. 1993; Obenour et al. 2006; Samdahl 1991
Spontaneity	Gunter 1987
Meaningfulness	Bruner 1991; Jamal and Hollinshead 2001; Noy 2004; Wilson and
Knowledge	Blackshaw 2003; Otto and Ritchie 1996
Challenge	Lee, Dattilo, and Howard 1994; Mannell and Iso-Ahola 1987
Sense of separation	Gunter 1987
Timelessness	Blackshaw 2003; Gunter 1987
Adventure	Gunter 1987
Personal relevance	Bloch and Richins 1983; Blodgett and Granbois 1992; Celsi and Olson 1988; Park and Hastak 1994; Sanbomatsu and Fazio 1990; Swinyard 1993
Novelty	Dunman and Mattila 2005; Farber and Hall 2007
Intellectual cultivation	Blackshaw 2003

Source: Kim, Ritchie, and McCormick (2012: 14)

Based on two dimensions; the level of participation (passive-active) and the interaction with event (absorption - immersion)- Pine and Gilmore suggested four types of experiences, namely; “education (active - absorption), entertainment (passive - absorption), esthetics (passive - immersion), and escapism (active - immersion)” (Hwang and Lyu, 2015: 249) (Figure 2.3).

Experience economy is a great opportunity for destination because by looking at four realms of experience (4Es) which was developed by Pine and Gilmore in 1999, destinations can find out that they have potential to cover all 4E's. Destinations can apply the 4E's toward understanding their potentials. Firstly about an escapist experience destinations can provide travelers the feeling of escaping from their dull lives. Secondly, each destination has its special entertainment activities which can be offered to travelers in a way that can satisfy the need of tourists to entertainment as one of the oldest forms of experience.

Thirdly, an esthetic experience which is defined as travelers' interpretation of the physical dimensions of a destination. Lastly, each destination is comprised of unique elements which can meet the educational experience. Travelers by actively participation can learn something new and increase their knowledge or skills. Based on these new situations which tourists are more looking for actively collaborate with destination in order to co-create their own experiences (Buonincontri and Micera, 2016: 286), destinations need to develop strategies to position themselves as an experience provider and to create an environment to get travelers involved to co-create their own experiences.

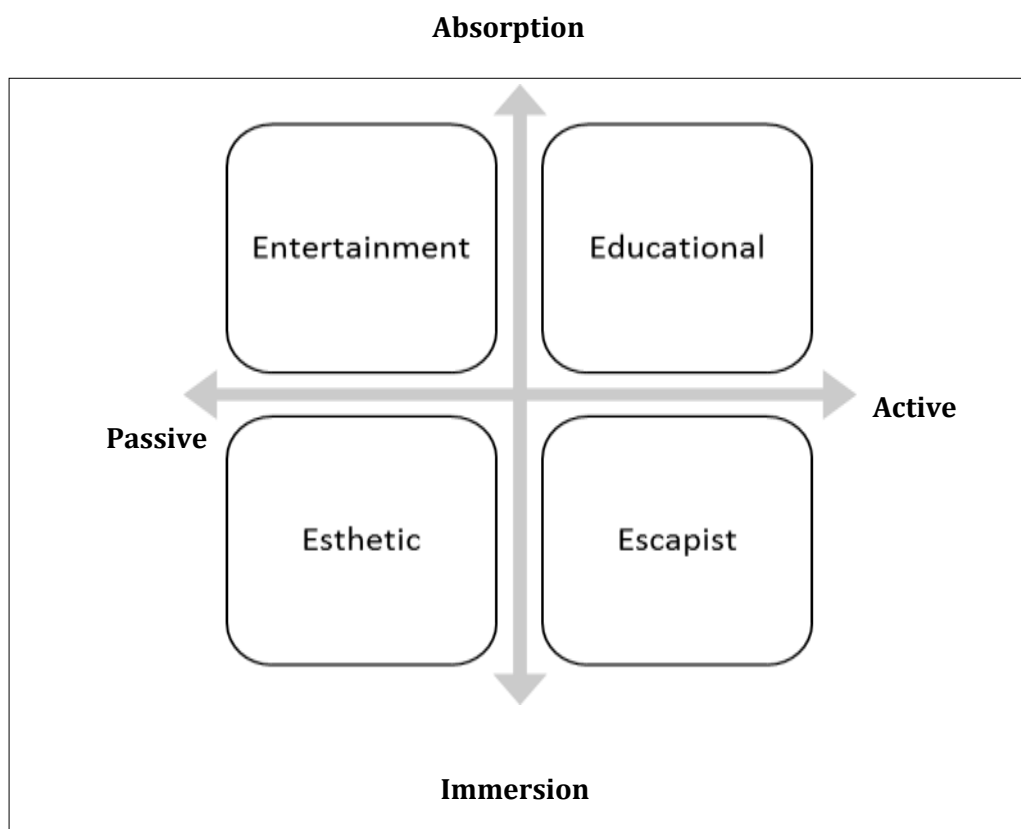


Figure 2.3. The 4E's of Experience Economy.

Source: Pine and Gilmore (1999: 102)

2.4.1. Experiential marketing

By emerging experience economy, scholars suggested the need of shift from traditional service-centered marketing to experience-based marketing (Bai, 2010; Ho, Li, and Su, 2006; Schmitt, 1999). Much of the marketing literature up to the late 1990's perpetuated a cognitive approach to consumer behavior (Chanavat and Bodet, 2014: 323). Thus, "features-and-benefits" (Atwal and Williams, 2009: 344; Schmitt, 2010b: 10 and Williams, 2006: 482) marketing was

the main strategy for marketers. However, “over the past twenty-five years, experiential marketing which formally introduced by Schmitt (1999) (Lu and Lien, 2014: 669), has found increasing favor”; as an alternative to the traditional perspective and effective strategy to both satisfy consumer expectations and to develop and keep competitive advantages (Chanavat and Bodet, 2014: 323). The logic behind EM is that contemporary consumers, rather than hearing about product or service from marketers, make decision “based on personal or other customers’ experiences with goods or services. In addition, while a good quality of service has been considered a competitive advantage, differentiating one company from its competitors, researchers have now pointed out that a quality service aiming to satisfy expectations can no longer win the hearts of customers. A reliable and consistent service will definitely create a certain level of loyalty but it may not drive a customer to repeatedly purchase the same service. In the other words, it can be stated that “satisfaction and quality” are not enough to provide experience that contemporary travelers are looking for (Kim et al., 2012). Correspondingly, it has been suggested that marketing strategies need to be shifted from service or “service dominant logic” (Evans, 2016: 14) to experience dominant logic (Hemmington, 2007). Introducing new paradigm in marketing which is called “experiential marketing” (Khan and Rahman, 2014: 319) can be an evidence for this change.

The main approaches about consumption can be divided into two categories. The traditional approach which looks at customers as rational and the new approach, which is based on the experiential perspective. Based on this new approach, it is important to deal with customers as the rational ones as well as the emotional ones. According to this new paradigm, firms need to find a way to accompanying their traditional goods/services with experiential benefits and offer more enjoyable and memorable experiences (Shobeiri et al., 2013; Walls et al., 2011) (Table 2.10).

Table 2.10. Traditional vs Modern Marketing

	Traditional marketing	Modern Marketing
Focus	Functional- product benefits and features	Emotional: Experience
Customer mental model	Customers are rational decision makers	Both rational and emotional
Marketers approach	Analytical - quantitative	Verbal and visual
Scope	Narrowly	Broadly

Source: Khan and Rahman (2014: 321)

The introduction and formation of experience in the marketing and consumer behavior literature dates back to the works of Holbrook and Hirshman (1982). They suggested that concepts such as, “pleasure, beauty, symbolic meaning, creativity and emotion” can advance and expand the comprehension of consumer behavior. Seventy years later, the concept of customer experience becomes more common. The publishing of a book with this title “Experience Economy” by Pine and Gilmore (1999) was one of the main reasons (Andajani, 2015). According to Pin and Gilmore the “experiences” is a new economic offering, following by commodities, goods and services. Actually, it has identified as customer “the next competitive battleground” (Klaus, 2014: 73).

Accordingly, it can be said that the main goal of experiential marketing is to consider both rational and emotional (Shobeiri, Laroche, and Mazaheri, 2013: 102–103). Actually, it is a trying to provide “memorable experiences” (Kim et al., 2012: 12), “memorable consumption” (Gilboa, Postlewaite, and Samuelson, 2016: 414) or “experiential consumption” (Addis and Holbrook, 2001: 50).

Based on the definition suggested by You-Ming (2010), EM is a “kind of face-to face communication method, which mainly raises customers' physical and emotional *feelings* so that customers expect to be relevant and interactive to some brands and to feel and experience wholehearted” (Prause and Venesaar, 2011: 250). Experiential marketing is an approach, which is “try to involve customers and goes beyond the consumer's stated needs. Thus, experiential marketing addresses not simply the wants and needs, but the self-image, social goals, dormant emotions, values and deeply ingrained desires of the consumer” (Srinivasan and Srivastava, 2010: 194). Accordingly, it can be said that experiential marketing is mostly associated with emotions and senses; and has less relation with cognitions. However, both of them are important. In the experiential marketing, costumers are no longer seen only as buyer but “rather they are co-producers who actively generate their own consumption experiences with regard to emotive and cognitive aspects of one’s encounter with products and .services” (Yazıcı, Koçak, and Altunsöz, 2016: 2). Schmitt (1999) proposed five basses or strategic experiential modules for conducting experiencing marketing. They are “sense, feel, think, act, and relate” (Chen and Hsieh, 2010: 1287) (Figure 2.4).

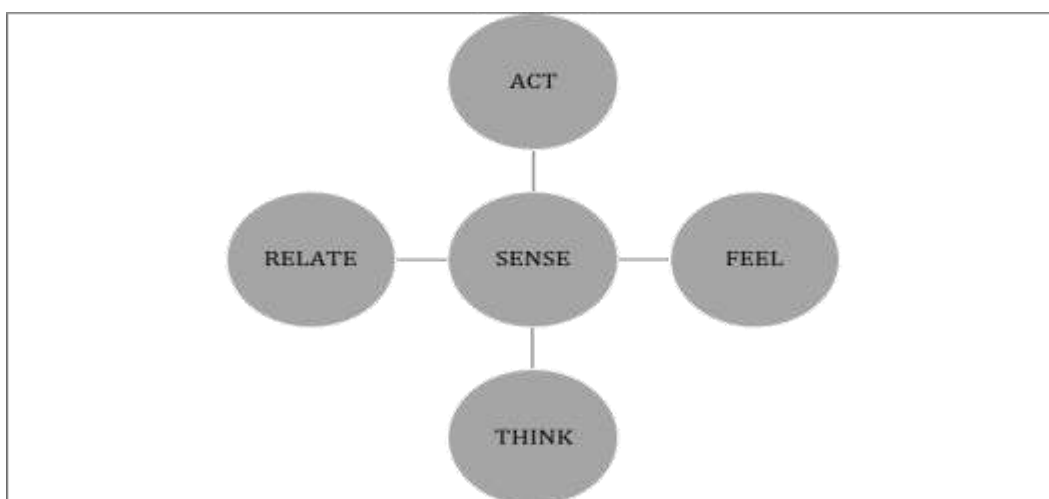


Figure 2.4. Strategic experiential modules.

Source: Schmitt (1999)

Sense refers to sensory experiences. Feel is related to the customers’ feeling toward a specific good, service or brand. “Think experiential module: aimed at activating the innovative thinking of the customers. In so doing, it is required to understand what the customers are thinking and what they are interested in order to arouse resonance (Sheu, Su, and Chu, 2009: 8489). Act is related to aiming at interaction with the others and physical experience. Relate refers to the “social-identity experiences that result from relating to a reference group or culture (Yuan and Wu, 2008: 48).

2.4.2. Tourism Experience co-creation

“Experience is complex in nature, as it depends on the individual, the situation, and the service offerings” (Liu, Sparks, and Coghlan, 2016: 42). Therefore, there are different definitions for experience. Meyer and Schwager (2007: 118) defined the customer experience as the “the internal and subjective response customers have to any direct or indirect contact with a company”. Gentile, Spiller and Noci (2007: 397) suggested that “the customer experience originates from a set of interactions between a customer and a product, a company, or part of its organization, which provoke a reaction. This experience is strictly personal and implies the customer’s involvement at different levels (rational, emotional, sensorial, physical, and spiritual).” Sirapracha and Tocquer (2012: 112) put a step forward and defined the “customer experience as the outcome of customer interaction with the firm, including the interaction with the staff, self-service technologies, service environment, service companies and customer”.

As above mentioned definitions show, customer experience is multidimensional. In generally, it can be divided into five dimensions, namely; “sensorial-perceptual, affective and physical-behavioral, social and cognitive” (Srivastava and Kaul, 2016). Build upon on this; researchers have suggested five types of experiences. They believed that to create a positive experience for customer, marketers need to pay attention to create holistic experience.

In contrast with earlier researches, the most recently studies emphasize on experience co-creation. According to this approach, the success of marketers and firms is no longer limited to design and selling enjoyable experiences to customers. The important factor is to provide an environment that customers can co-create their own experiences (Gentile et al., 2007). Co-creation allows individuals to actively participate in personalizing the experience. This new approach which “describes collaboration between multiple stakeholders” (Ranjan and Read, 2016: 290) has been identified as an effective strategy toward customer engagement (Chathoth et al., 2016), customer satisfaction (Roggeveen, Tsiros, and Grewal, 2012), brand equity (Kristal et al., 2016), value co-creation (Kaur, Devi, and Sehgal, 2015), customer participation (Zhang et al., 2015), and purchase intention (To and Ho, 2014).

Like other settings, co-creation of experience has recently been receiving a significant amount of attention in tourism research. The antecedents of the participation in the experience co-creation have primarily emphasized by scholars (Mathis et al., 2016b: 63). In the field of tourism, experience co-creation can be divided into three main groups. Experience co-creation between tourists and organization is the first one. The second one is experience co-creation among travelers (e.g. TripAdvisor) and finally, “co-creation between visitors and locals while at the destination, possibly starting before taking off and continuing after travels” (Binkhorst and Den Dekker, 2009: 315-318). For example, Couchsurfing, Airbnb, and Eatwith.

What is important in the co-creation is user/ customer involvement in the production of a good or service. Involvement can enhanced the end value by providing customers opportunities to tailor their experiences. In contrast with “customization” which the degree of involvement is limited, customer more actively involved in the experience co-creation (Kristensson, Matthing, & Johansson, 2008: 475-6).

2.5. Involvement

2.5.1. Definition of involvement

There are different but close terms describing involvement in the studies, for example, user involvement (Patel et al., 2016), product involvement (Drossos and Fouskas, 2010), customer participation (Cheng and Xue, 2013), customer collaboration (Xue & Qing-pu, 2012), customer co-creation (Theilacker, Lukas, & Snow, 2016), customer integration (Sesselmann, 2016) and customer engagement (Altounian et al., 2016).

It seems that it is better to clarify the concept of involvement from others close terms, namely; customer participation and customer engagement. Customer participation (CP) is the active behavioral role which “is defined as the degree to which a customer contributes effort, preference, knowledge, or other inputs to service production and delivery” (Dong, Sivakumar, Evans, & Zou, 2015). In contrast, customer engagement (CE) is characterized as “multidimensional” concept which involves “cognitive, emotional, and behavioral components” (Harrigan et al., 2017: 598). It is defined as “a psychological state that occurs by virtue of interactive customer experiences with a focal agent/object such as a firm or brand (Nguyen Hau and Thuy, 2016: 606). Finally, customer involvement (CI) that due to the adaptation of various perspective and “fragmented literature” researchers have not been reached an agreement on its definition (Dadfar et al., 2013) (Table 2.11). However, the definition suggested by Zaichkowsky (1985) is one of the most common. Involvement is “a person’s perceived relevance of the object based on inherent needs, values, and interests” (Henry, 2006: 182). Later in 1994, he redefined his definition based on the customer perceived importance of an object. Build upon on this, customer involvement is defined as “the level of importance a customer attributes to an object, an action, or an activity and the enthusiasm and interest that is generated” (Altunel and Erkut, 2015: 214).

2.5.2. Theories related to involvement

The involvement construct has been operationalized in several ways, and there is no standardized instrument for its measurement. How involvement is measured depends on whether it is conceptualized as a single or multi-dimensional construct. Accordingly, it is better to look at different types of involvement. However, in generally theories related to involvement can be divided into two groups. The involvement conceptual and methodological perspectives

model postulated by Houston and Rothschild (1978), and the involvement conceptualizing model proposed by Zaichkowsky (1986) (Huang, Chou, and Lin, 2010: 515).

Table 2.11. Involvement Definitions

Authors	Definition
Mitchell, 1979	Internal state variable that reflect the amount of arousal. Interest or drive evoked by a particular stimuli or situation that mediates consumer behavior.
Beatty and smith, 1983	Degree to which a particular situation engenders involvement.
Rothschild, 1984	State of motivation arousal or interest with regard to a product an activity or an object.
Park and Mittal, 1985	Goal directed arousal capacity governed by two sets of motives: cognitive and affective.
Celsi and Olson, 1988	Perceived personal relevance.
Johnson and Eagly, 1989	Motivational state induced by an association between an activated attitude and some aspect of the self-concept.
Dimanohe, Havitz and Howward, 1993	Degree to which consumer engage in different factors of the consumption process: product, advertising, information search, information processing, decision making and the act of purchase.
Laaksonen, 1994	Cognitive based individual state and response based.
Moven and minor, 1998	Perceived personal importance and the importance consumer give to the purchase, consumption and disposal of a good service or idea.
Blackwell, Miniard and Enogel, 2001	Relationship between a person and a product.
Kim, 2005	Multifaceted concept because can be used to describe the personal importance, for individuals Of a broad range of objects, Such as products/services, brands, activities, advertising and decision.
Douglas, 2008	The interest an individual shows for some product and on the importance given to the purchase decision.
Michaelidou, Nina and Dibband Sally	Individual difference variable found to influence consumer' decision making and communication behaviors, relationship between an individual an object and a situation.

Source: Santos, Ramos, and Almeida, 2014: 35

Houston and Rothschild (1978) classified involvement into three groups, namely; situation, enduring, and response involvement. Later, Rothschild's (1984) also accept this classification (Bruwer and Buller, 2013: 40). More or less same, later Laaksonen (1994) classified involvement into three groups, namely; "cognitive, individual, and response-based" involvement (Santos et al., 2014: 35). However, more recently studies suggest two forms of involvement: 1-situational involvement (SI), 2-enduring involvement (EI). SI or "transient involvement" (Sarabia-Sánchez, Rodríguez-Sánchez, & Hyder, 2014) is an external motivation that drive individual to involvement. In contrast, enduring involvement (EI) is an intrinsically

derived motivation (Ogbeide & Bruwer, 2013). EI or product involvement is the degree to which individuals find an object, situation, event, or action personally relevant/importance.

Same as disagreement on the definition of involvement, there is no standardized measurement and scholars suggest different dimensions for involvement (Table 2.12).

Table 2.12. Involvement Dimension

Empirical studies	Type of involvement studied	Factors identified
Tiger et al. (1976)	Fashion involvement	5
Lastovicka and Gardner (1979)	Product involvement	3
Tyebjee (1979)	Product/task involvement	3
Shimp and Sharma (1983)	Based on Bloch (1981)	2
Traylor and Joseph (1984)	Product involvement	1
Zaichkowsky (1985)	Product involvement (PII ^a)	1
Slama and Tashchian (1985)	Purchase involvement	1
Bloch et al. (1986)	Enduring involvement	3
Ratchford (1987)	Involvement	1
Venkatraman (1988)	Enduring/instrumental involvement	2
Edgett and Cullen (1993)	Choice involvement	2
Knox et al. (1994)	Enduring/situational involvement	7
Broderick et al. (1995)	Involvement	4
Van Trijp et al. (1996)	Product involvement	3
O'Cass (2000)	Product involvement, Purchase decision involvement, Consumption involvement, Advertising involvement	1
(Hung Wei & Yuan Kao, 2010)	decision involvement, Consumption involvement	1
(Gendel-Guterman & Levy, 2013)	Personal involvement	3
Mamat, Haron, and Razak, (2014)	Personal Involvement Inventory (RPII)	1
(Gohary, Hamzulu, & Alizadeh, 2016)	Post co-recovery involvement	1

Note: until 1996 is taken from Michaelidou and Dibb (2006: 446)

For some researchers it is unidimensional. However, others suggest multi-dimensional. There are six basic dimensions, which commonly have been used in involvement related studies: importance, pleasure, interest, sign value, perceived risk and self-expression. For example, Laurent and Kapferer's (1985) study is one of the multi-dimensional approach to involvement. They suggest the customer involvement profile (CIP), which includes five factors

(importance, pleasure, sign, risk probability, and risk consequence) (Funk, Ridinger, and Moorman, 2004: 37).

1. "The perceived importance of the product (importance),
2. The perceived importance of negative consequences associated with purchase of the product (risk importance),
3. The perceived probability of making a poor purchase decision (risk probability),
4. The symbolic or sign value attributed by the consumer to the product (sign), and
5. The hedonic value or pleasure provided by the product (pleasure).

According to O'Casey (2000) in the period 1960–2000, 23 instruments have been developed to measure involvement: During the period 1970–79 (4), 1980–89(12) and 1990–99 (7). Based on this, it can be said that the period of the 1980's was the flourishing period in developing measures of involvement. Build upon on available literature, in generally, it can be concluded that when studies just focus on involvement, multi-dimensional is more accepted. In contrast, where aims of studies are analyzing the effects of involvement on other construct, unidimensional approach is most common.

There is an understanding that an individual's level of contribution and involvement toward an event/object has a close relationship with the extent to which he/she finds product/idea relevance or importance. Thus, it can be said that in involvement inherent motivation, interests, needs and values of person need to be considered more important. Showing different level of involvement to a same product can be good reason for the importance of persons (Miquel, Caplliure, and Aldas-Manzano, 2002: 8). In contempt of agreement on importance of person in the literature, just some of studies have concentrated on the issue of personal involvement. "Most of these studies have dealt with the issue from product category perspectives" (Gendel-Guterman and Levy, 2013: 553).

Due to the intangibility of tourism services, decision and buying are very important, and travelers dedicate to them noticeable effort and time. In other words, it can be said that tourism is a product that requires high involvement. There are various reasons for this situation in tourism: intangibility of tourism services and consequently rising uncertainty in their consumption (OECD, 2006). Lack of ownership and in most cases inseparability and necessary of interaction between producers and travelers during the consumption of tourism services are among other reasons that make tourism high involvement for tourists. Based on this, it can be said that involvement is the fundamental element of purchase decision in tourism (Seabra, Silva, Luís Abrantes, Vicente, and Herstein, 2016: 4). Respectively, research on involvement has been gained the attention of scholars and stakeholders in the tourism.

Involvement related studies in tourism have concentrated on various subjects and sectors. For instance; effects of involvement on destination selection (Josiam, Smeaton, and

Clements, 1999), Sport Tourists' Involvement (Filo, Chen, King, & Funk, 2013), the moderating effect of involvement on destination image (Rodríguez-Molina, Frías-Jamilena, and Castañeda-García, 2015), community involvement (Y. Li & Hunter, 2015), hotel employees involvement (Zopiatis, Constanti, & Theocharous, 2014), wine tourism involvement (Ogbeide & Bruwer, 2013; Nella & Christou, 2014), shopping involvement (Bharath M. Josiam, Kinley, & Kim, 2005; Sohn & Lee, 2017), leisure involvement (Lee and Shen, 2013) and bicycle tourism (Ritchie, Tkaczynski, & Faulks, 2010).

The generally accepted definition of involvement in the tourism related literature is the definition of Zaichkowsky (1985) which was focused on perceived personal relevance or importance. The results of these studies indicate strongly positive relationships between involvement and product evaluation (before purchase), perceived service quality (during consumption), satisfaction and the intentions of future behavior (post consumption) and overall assessment of tourist experience (Seabra et al., 2016). More or less, same as involvement studies in the different settings, importance, interest, hedonic, symbolic value, probability risk and consequences of risk are the most common dimensions in the tourism studies too.

2.5.3. Literature review related to involvement

ICT increasingly transforms the interactions between service providers and consumers. Contemporary customers are widely use social media. The results of this change can shows itself in the willingness of customers to actively participation in the service process (Chen and Wang, 2016: 346). Taking these changes into account, it seems that CI plays an effective role due to the focus on a close relationship between firms and customers. It can create an environment which stockholders learn from each other and increase mutual understanding (Andersson and Hjertqvist, 2015: 5). Therefore, many scholars suggested the use of CI because it reflects the shift from goods which emphasize on customer as a passive receiver to services co-creation which customers are active co-creator (Min-Xue, Yong, and Ya-Ni, 2013: 251). The concept of involvement has received considerable attention in many academic areas (Table 2.13).

Table 2.13. Studies related to customer involvement

Author(s)	Setting	Findings
(Bin-Hezam & Alyahya, 2016)	Software development	CI can improve customers' awareness about product
(Ekdahl & Sandell, 2014)	Small medical instrument firm	Positive effects of CI on business model innovation
(Min-Nan Chen, Yuan-Chieh Chang, & Ming-Huei Chen, 2014)	Service innovation	Positive relationship between CI and innovation performance
(Tu & Zhang, 2013)	Virtual community	Positive relationship between CI and customer value co-creation and behavioral intention
(Laage-Hellman, Lind, & Perna, 2014)	Truck business	CI can contribute to better understanding of customers and successfully develop new service
(Kayeser Fatima & Abdur Razzaque, 2013)	Banking sector	CI have antecedent and mediated influence on rapport-satisfaction
(Chung, 2006)	Sport event	Moderate role of CI on perceived service quality and customer satisfaction

Involvement in the tourism literature has also attracted considerable attention. In order to do literature review on involvement in tourism context, Web of science (WOS) was selected as database. WOS introduced by Thomson Reuters (formerly known as ISI). It covers access to millions of resources from scientific journals, books, and proceeding in all fields of science. "Despite of the rise of alternative indexing databases (SCOPUS and Google Scholar), Web of Science is still the main frequently used database for bibliometric studies and literature review (Bornmann and Leydesdorff, 2017; Cañas-Guerrero, Mazarrón, Pou-Merina, Calleja-Perucho, and Díaz-Rubio, 2013; Chang et al., 2016; González Sala and Osca Lluch, 2016; Purnell and Quevedo-Blasco, 2013; Lin, Hwang, Hwang, and Chen, 2014; Mohamad and Masrek, 2013; Zavadskas, Skibniewski, and Antucheviciene, 2014).

By selecting database, to identify the sample data, following internal settings have been applied and the initial search was conducted on February 2017 and resulted in 73 articles. In the next step, top ten articles with the most citation and related to this study were selected as the sample for literature review on involvement in tourism context (Table 2.14). In order to conducting search following steps were adopted:

1. Searching limited to: "Web of Science Core Collection".
2. Searching keywords limited to these titles: "tourism involvement", "involvement travel", "involvement destination", "involvement destination image", "involvement destination familiarity", and "involvement behavior intentions".
3. 1975-2017 was selected as time span.
4. Citation indexes limited to: science citation index expanded (SCI-expanded) --1980-present, social sciences citation index (SSCI) --1980-present, arts and humanities

citation index (AandHCI) --1975-present, emerging sources citation index (ESCI) --2015-present.

Table 2.14. Literature review related to involvement in tourism

Authors/ Year	Source Title	Methodology	Aims	Finding
(Prayag & Ryan, 2012)	Journal Of Travel Research	Data collection (DC): questionnaire Analysis <u>Structural equation modeling</u> (SEM)	“Exploring the relationships among four constructs, namely, destination image, place attachment, personal involvement, and visitors’ satisfaction as antecedents of loyalty”	“The structural model indicates that destination image, personal involvement and place attachment are antecedents of visitors’ loyalty but this relationship is mediated by satisfaction levels. The findings offer important implications for tourism theory and practice”.
(Nyaupane, Morais, & Dowler, 2006)	Tourism & Management	DC: Interview Analysis: Grounded theory	“Exploring the role of community involvement and number/type of visitors on tourism impacts in mountain destinations”.	The results indicated that level of host involvement and number/type of tourists are helpful to explain economic leakage, local control, and socio-economic inequity.
(Chen and Tsai, 2008)	Tourism Management	DC: questionnaire Analysis: confirmatory factor analysis	“Investigation the relationships between perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty of TV shoppers”.	Study showed that involvement has moderating effects on the value, satisfaction and loyalty.
(Gross & Brown, 2008)	Tourism Management	DC: questionnaire Analysis: SEM	“Examining the relationship between involvement and place attachment”.	By conceptualization involvement as a multidimensional construct, they found that there is a positive relationship between involvement and place attachment.
(C.-Y. Huang, Chou, & Lin, 2010b)	Tourism Management	DC: questionnaire Analysis: SEM	“Exploring the structural relationship among travel bloggers’ involvement level, the advertising effect from blog messages, and travel bloggers’ intention to purchase travel products”.	With Structural Equation Modelling (SEM), study indicated that high-involvement travel bloggers are more likely to form favorable impressions with regard to ads in travel blogs.

Table 2.14. Literature review related to involvement in tourism (Continued)

(Gross & Brown, 2006)	Journal of Business Research	Of	DC: questionnaire Analysis: ANOVA, Factor Analysis	“Measuring tourists' involvement in tourism experiences, place attachment, and elements of lifestyle tourism.”	With relatively higher dimension levels of attraction, food and wine, and self-expression, and relatively lower levels of place attachment and centrality, they developed a set of scales to measure tourists' involvement in tourism experiences.
(Lee, Scott, and Kim, 2008)	Annals of Tourism Research	Of	DC: questionnaire Analysis: SEM	“Investigating the extent to which celebrity involvement affects destinations (familiarity, image, and visitation intentions).”	“Celebrity involvement positively affected destination familiarity and visitation intentions. In addition, destination images and familiarity were positively related to visitation intentions”.
(N. Prebensen, Woo, Chen, & Uysal, 2013)	Journal of Travel Research	Of	DC: questionnaire Analysis: SEM	“Exploring the relationships between the motivation, involvement, and the experience value of the destination.”	The results indicate the close relationship between motivation and involvement and motivation affects the level of involvement. Based on this, they suggested that in addition to experience itself, marketers need to pay attention to motivation and involvement as essential factor in experience co-creation.
(Carneiro & Crompton, 2010b)	Journal of Travel Research	Of	DC: questionnaire Analysis: <i>t</i> -tests and logistic regressions	“Investigating the influence of familiarity, structural constraints, and level of involvement on information search.”	Results showed that there is not definite link between level of involvement and search effort. However, “this relationship is strongest in the early stages of the decision process”. Finally, less familiar traveler are search more for information.
(Ferns & Walls, 2012)	Journal of Destination Marketing and Management	Of	DC: questionnaire Analysis: SEM	“This paper examines the relationship among tourists' enduring travel involvement, destination brand equity, and visit intentions during pre-trip information search.”	It was found that there are positive relationship among “tourists' enduring travel involvement, destination brand equity, and visit intentions during pre-trip information search”.

2.6. Destination familiarity

2.6.1. Definition of destination familiarity

Generally, customer familiarity is defined as “consumer’s subjective evaluation about his or her knowledge about a product on the basis of previous experience”. Thus, based on this definition it might be expected that familiarity is strongly related to past experience. When customers come across with a brand or product will use previous experiences to make decision (Giacalone and Jaeger, 2016:121). Past experiences can be shaped from direct experiences (e.g., previous buying experiences) or indirect experiences (e.g., advertising, e-word of-mouth).

More clearly, familiarity can be identified as “a point on a continuum ranging from merely being conscious of the existence of a product to a state of being intimately familiar with it”. Based on this, familiarity can be divided into two groups, low familiarity or awareness and the high level which is generally called knowledgeable about brand/product (Jeong, 2009: 21).

2.6.2. Theories related to destination familiarity

Familiarity with a destination, generally, is formed from “an ongoing search process, such as reading guidebooks, other related books, advertising and write-ups in newspapers and magazines, watching advertisements on TV, listening to advertising on radio, and talking to friends and relatives” (Gursoy and McCleary, 2004: 359). In addition to these, co-created information about destination by other tourists and in direct relationship with local people can be added.

Some of scholars in tourism suggested that destination familiarity need to be studied in link with experience and defined familiarity based on experiences and knowledge that travelers have been accumulated about destination. Accordingly, it has been seen as the number of visits and regularly been conceptualized as unidimensional of past visit (Tasci, Gartner, and Cavusgil, 2007: 209). However, other scholars have suggested that familiarity does not need to actual experience. Actually, today in the connected world and social media age, even people who have not visited a destination may be familiar with it. For example, Webb (2000) noted that experience and familiarity are different; while “knowledge gained through exposure to various information concerning the service provider” but “knowledge gained through direct involvement with a service provider” (Webb, 2000: 6). By accepting familiarity as multidimensional construct, Prentice (2004) suggested seven types of familiarity (Lee and Tussyadiah, 2012a) (Figure 2.5).

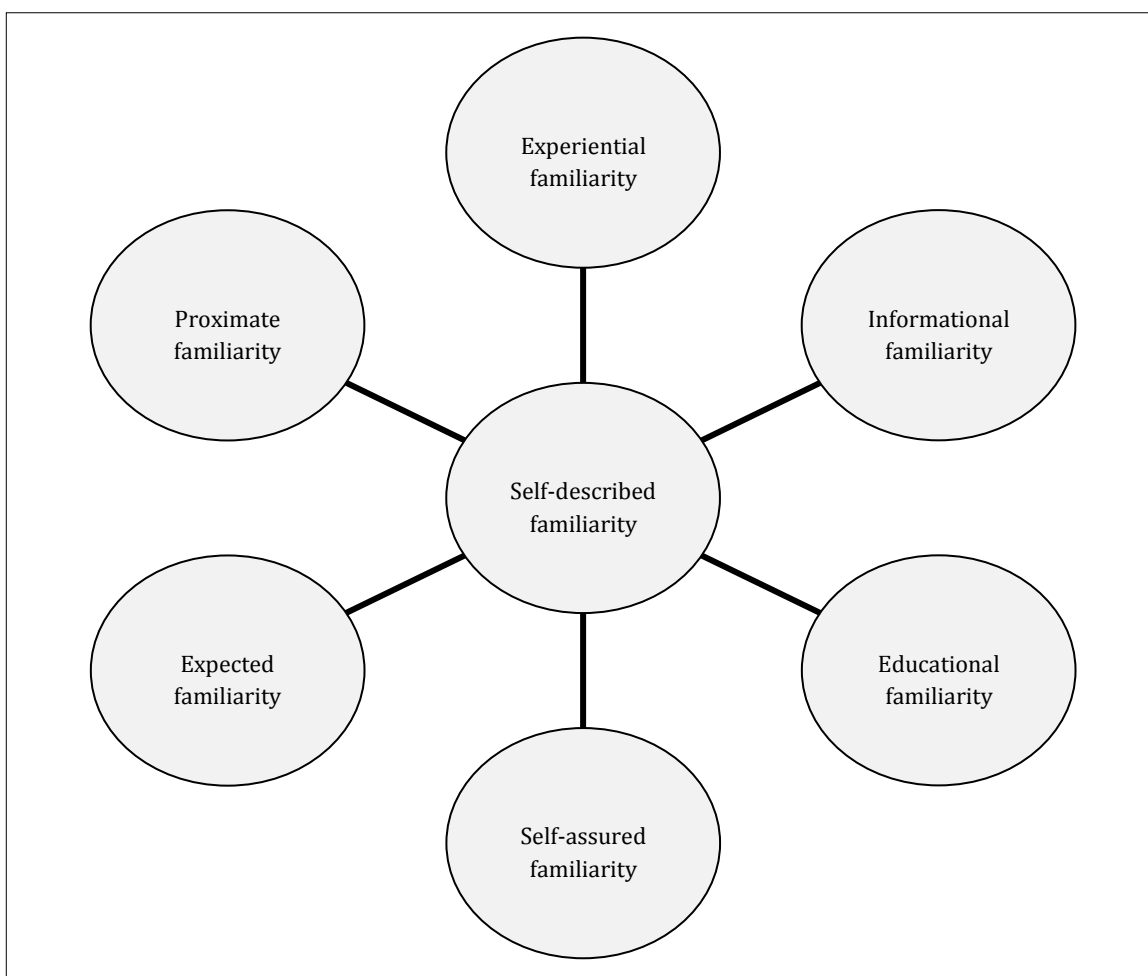


Figure 2.5. Familiarity types

Source: Lee and Tussyadiah (2012a: 135)

Experiential familiarity is related to number of visit, self-described represents how much a person believe he-she knows about the destination (Zaichkowsky, 1985), Informational familiarity shows the “extent of exposure to destination-related information”, “Educational familiarity is related to movie-induced tourism”. “Self-assured familiarity refers to the extent of assurance regarding traveling in the destination”, “Expected familiarity is the extent of coziness, comfort, and attractions expected” and finally, “proximate familiarity is the extent to which individuals feel connected to the tourist destination (Tan and Wu, 2016: 216).

Considering different types of familiarity, scholars applied one or a combination of them as a background theory to operationalization of the concept of destination familiarity. For example, Jansen (2011) in his master thesis about “route choice behavior within Amsterdam” applied all of seven types of familiarity. Prentice (2004: 923) used five types of familiarity, namely; “informational, experiential, proximate, self-described, and educational”. In contrast,

Baloglu (2001a) operationalized familiarity based on informational and experiential familiarity. However, there are some scholars who have seen familiarity as a unidimensional concept. These researcher mainly used self-described for operationalization of familiarity (Fridgen, 1987; MacKay & Fesenmaier, 1997).

2.6.3. Literature review related to destination familiarity

The concept of familiarity as a widely used and one of the important concept in the product, brand marketing and consumer behavior studies, regularly shows up in mix with other related terms, such as awareness, image, knowledge, experience and behavior intention (Sharifpour, Walters, Ritchie, and Winter, 2014: 2-3). Familiarity has a critical role in the decision-making process. Familiarity with a product is expected to have a negative relationship with information search. Customers who are more familiar with product are less involved with information search and expected to be less influenced by external information (Wu, Cheng, and Yen, 2012: 830). In addition, researches on brand familiarity indicated that there are positive relationship between familiarity and perceived risk. However, in online setting it can be different. For example, Huang et al. (2004) did not find same result. Generally, there is an agreement that increasing familiarity toward a brand reduce the concerns and perceived risk (Nepomuceno, Laroche, and Richard, 2014: 619).

In advertisements, it has been approved that a customer who is more familiar with a brand/product have a more eagerness to allot higher attention regarding item or brand data in ads for well-known brands than new brands since familiar brands have more likelihood of being perceived by customers than new brands (Chung and Zhao, 2011: 77). This circumstance may resulted in “favorable brand evaluations and quality perception” (Sheau-Fen, Sun-May, and Yu-Ghee, 2012: 51). Accordingly, in contrast with unfamiliar product, familiar brands are more easily recalled (Dawar and Lei, 2009: 510). Familiarity is supposed to have a noticeable influence on “consumer cognitive structures”. The rising of familiarity with brand will be resulted in developed knowledge about a brand. Individuals who are more familiar with a brand due to past experiences “might be expected to have formed a stable, complex cognitive structure of product knowledge” (Wu et al., 2012: 832).

Positive relationship between brand familiarity and trust building (Alarcon, Lyons, & Christensen, 2016), brand preference, purchase intention and satisfaction (Soyoung Kim & Chung, 2012) are other important roles of familiarity which have been approved by scholars. In the field of tourism, food and destination are two setting that familiarity related studies have been mainly focused on. For example, Borgogno, et all (2015) stated that familiarity is a critical factor for preference of food products, because it help to decreasing uncertainty.

Destination is other main setting for familiarity related studies in tourism. According to Baloglu (2001) vital role of familiarity in the process of destination selection, better understanding of how individuals interpret destinations, targeting travelers and helping to develop marketing strategies are among important reasons which might drive destinations to measure of familiarity. Scholars have also concluded that familiarity has an effect on tourists' information-search behavior and looking for alternative information sources. Thus, less familiar travelers with a destination search more for collecting information compared with familiar. In addition, unfamiliar traveler generally use more external information searches to make decision (Tan and Chang, 2015). In order to do literature review on destination familiarity, initial search was conducted on 02 February 2017 at 10am on web of science data base and 13 articles were retrieved. Some of them which are more related to the aim of this study are articulated in the table 2.15.

Table 2.15. Literature review related to destination familiarity

Authors/ Year	Source Title	Methodology	Aims	Finding
(Tan and Wu, 2016)	Journal of Destination Marketing and Management	Data collection (DC): questionnaire Analysis factor analysis	investigation of the relationships among destination familiarity, destination image and future visit intention	Study showed that destination familiarity positively moderate the relation between destination image and future visit intention. Furthermore, research indicates the importance of experiential familiarity as a criterion for segmenting consumers.
(Lemmettyinen, Dimitrovski, Nieminen, & Pohjola, 2016)	Tourism Review	Data collection (DC): questionnaire Analysis CFA Hierarchical regression analysis	Exploring the moderating effect of awareness between cruisers' motivation and destination satisfaction and word-of-mouth (WoM)	Study confirmed the moderating function of awareness with a destination. Awareness positively moderates the link between destination satisfaction and word-of-mouth.

Table 2.15. Literature review related to destination familiarity (Continued)

Authors/ Year	Source Title	Methodology	Aims	Finding
(Kaplanidou, Al-Emadi, Triantafyllidis, Sagas, & Diop, 2016)	Tourism Review International	DC: questionnaire Analysis: exploratory factor analysis (EFA)	Investigating the impacts of Awareness on Destination image	The results revealed that higher destination improved destination image, perceptions, and behavior intentions toward travel to destination.
(Marinao Artigas, Vilches-Montero, Chasco Yrigoyen, 2015a)	Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services	DC: questionnaire Analysis: SEM	Testing the impact of cognitive and affective evaluation on reputation- and mediating effect of familiarity.	Findings approved “the mediating role of familiarity in the relationship between cognitive perception, affective evaluation, and destination reputation”. Given these results, they suggested that stakeholders in the tourism need to improve familiarity “in order to develop and enhance their reputation”.
(Artigas, Moraga, and Yrigoyen, 2014)	Revista de Administração de Empresas	DC: questionnaire Analysis: confirmatory factor analysis	To exploring satisfaction as an antecedent for destination familiarity	Findings confirmed, “satisfaction is an antecedent for the tourist destination to become more familiar”. Actually, results suggest the important mediator function for satisfaction in the relationship between perception of benefits and destination familiarity.
(Hornig, Liu, Chou, & Tsai, 2012)	Tourism Management	DC: questionnaire Analysis: regression analysis	Investigation the impact of brand equity and destination familiarity on travel intentions	“The results indicate that there is a direct positive relationship between brand equity and travel intentions in culinary tourism. Moreover, the study recognizes the moderating role of destination familiarity, which positively moderates the effect of brand loyalty and perceived quality on travel”.
(Chen and Lin, 2012)		DC: questionnaire Analysis: MANOVA-ANOVA- cluster analysis	Exploring the effects of destination familiarity on destination image and travel intention	Results confirmed that in contrast with unfamiliar travelers, familiarity has the positive effects on destination image and travel intention.
(Lee and Tussyadiah, 2012b)	Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research	DC: questionnaire Analysis: ANOVA tests and six chi-square tests	Exploring the impact of familiarity on destination choice	With the aim of investigating the influence of destination familiarity on destination choice, results reveal that (1) “tourists who are more familiar with Japan tended to visit less popular destinations, and (2) more travel experiences to the country tended to visit destinations with less popularity”.

2.7. Overall destination image

2.7.1. Definition of Overall destination image

Image is one of the central construct in marketing. “Image is the general impression that a person, organization, or product presents to the public” (Avraham, 2016: 42). Firms and brands always are trying to create a positive image of themselves. Image is “how a brand is perceived by consumers”. It has an important role in success of a brand. It is an effective factor in the customer purchase behavior (Nyadzayo and Khajehzadeh, 2016:265). Same as product, image has attracted attention in tourism. From one side, due to the increasing competition among destinations to attract more travelers and get more share of tourism market and from other side due to intangibility and inseparability of tourism products, researchers, marketers and destination management organizations (DMOs) increasingly try to find and apply effective strategies and techniques that can excellently show the unique characteristics of their destinations. The results of these tries were introduction and emphasis on destination image (DI) in the destination marketing (Atadil, Sirakaya-Turk, and Altintas, 2017; Zhang, Wu, Morrison, Tseng, and Chen, 2016). Destination marketing is “position the destination favorably in an environment together with a constantly growing supply and competition. Other important objectives include promoting the destination and its tourism products; attracting tourists and visitors; and communicating the destination's unique image and identity” (Ketter, 2016: 66).

The introduction of DI research can be traced back to the 1970s (Zhang et al., 2016). It is presented by Hunt (1971) into the tourism (Atadil et al., 2017). Today, by passing near to five decades, DI has become one of the most explored and popular topics in tourism literature (Kun Lai, 2016; Xu & Ye, 2016). Scholars have suggested different definitions of DI. One of the most cited definitions of DI is “the sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination”. It was developed by Crompton in 1979 (Kaur, Chauhan, and Medury, 2016: 7; Zhang et al., 2016). “Destination image is a mental representation of knowledge, feelings and overall perception of a destination” (Mak, 2017: 282) (please, see more definition of destination image in Table 2.16).

While, conventionally just the cognitive type of destination image was important for researchers, recent studies are emphasis on both cognitive and affective image. they suggested that for more accurately explain and assess destination image, applying of a combination of both of them can be more helpful (Chiu, Zeng, and Cheng, 2016: 3). More, recently studies offered a new dimension for destination image, which is called overall image (OI). There is no an exact definition of OI. However, the provided definition by Assael (1984) is “one of the most concrete

definitions". He defined overall image "as a consumer's total perceptions of a product (or a firm) shaped by processing information from diverse sources" (Han, Hsu, and Lee, 2009: 520).

The overall image is composed of cognitive and affective image. "Cognitive information of common and unique attributes of a destination is followed by the affective responses towards those attributes. The interaction between knowledge on destination attributes and the feelings towards them constructs the holistic or overall image" (Sangkyun Kim and Park, 2015: 3).

Table 2.16. Definitions of destination image

Author/s	Definition
Lawson and Baud-Bovy (1977)	An expression of knowledge, impressions, prejudices, imaginations and emotional thoughts an individual has of a specific place
Crompton (1979)	Sum of beliefs, ideas, and impressions that a person has of a destination
Assael (1984)	Total perception of the destination that is formed by processing information from various sources over time
Phelps (1986)	Perceptions or impressions of a place
Gartner and Hunt (1987)	Impressions that persons hold about a state in which they do not reside
Moutinho (1987)	An individual's attitude toward the destination attributes based on their knowledge and feelings
Calantone et al. (1989)	Perceptions of potential tourist destinations
Embacher and Buttle (1989)	Ideas or conceptions held individually or collectively of the destination under investigation
Chon (1990)	Result of the interaction of a person's beliefs, ideas, feelings, expectations and impressions about a destination
Echtner and Ritchie (1991)	The perceptions of individual destination attributes and the holistic impression made by the destination
Dadgostar and Isotalo (1992)	Overall impression or attitude that an individual acquires of a place
Milman and Pizam (1995)	Visual or mental impression of a place, a product, or an experience held by the general public
MacKay and Fesenmaier (1997)	A composite of various products (attractions) and attributes woven into a total impression
Pritchard (1998)	An visual or mental impression of a specific place
Baloglu and McCleary (1999a)	An individual's mental representation of knowledge, feelings, and global impressions about a destination
Coshall (2000)	The individual's perceptions of the characteristics of destinations
Murphy, Pritchard and Smith (2000)	A sum of associations and pieces of information connected to a destination, which would include multiple components of the destination and personal perception
Tapachai and Waryszak (2000)	Perceptions or impressions of a destination held by tourists with respect to the expected benefit or consumption values
Bigné, Sánchez and Sánchez (2001)	The subjective interpretation of reality made by the tourist
Kim and Richardson (2003)	Totality of impressions, beliefs, ideas, expectations, and feelings accumulated towards a place over time

Source: San Martín and Rodríguez del Bosque (2008: 264)

2.7.2. Theories related to overall destination image

According to previous studies (Aramberri and Butler, 2005; Knowles, Diamantis, and El-Mourhabi, 2004; Steven. Pike, 2008; Selby, 2004), images can be shaped by an individual in two different ways: “organic and induced images”. The organic image is the image which formed by noncommercial information sources or sources that have not been deliberately distribute out for shaping an image (Page and Connell, 2006: 328). Actually, organic images are less influenced by destination marketing activities. This image can formed from sources such as; friends, books, movies. In contrast, induced images are developed by marketing activities of a destination (Inkson and Minnaert, 2012: 330) to introduce itself and motivate travelers to visit. Brochures, web sites and TV advertisement are the most common sources for induced image.

Gartner (1993) suggested “eight agents of image formation which are: overt induced I agent (traditional forms of advertising); overt induced II agent (information received from tour operators); covert induced I agent (second-party endorsement of products through traditional forms of advertising); covert induced II agent (second-party endorsement through unbiased reports such as newspaper articles); unsolicited organic agent (unsolicited information received from friends and relatives); solicited organic agent (solicited information received from friends and relatives); and organic agent (actual visitation)” (Önder and Marchiori, 2017: 43). Recently Mwaura, et all (2013: 82) have suggested another image, called “complex image” which is formed by actual experiences and might be a reason for a visit to a destination.

From another perspective, Echtner and Ritchie (1993) proposed a three-dimensions of a destination image, namely: “attribute-holistic, functional-psychological, and common-unique” (Sonnleitner, 2011: 22).

- Attribute-holistic: it involves “the perceptions of individual attributes (e.g. accommodation) to a holistic impression (e.g. mental image) of a place”.
- Functional-psychological: functional image is tangible and psychological refers to intangible dimension of a destination image.
- Common-unique: it is based on this idea that DI can include general attributes and more specific and unique attributes of a place (Knowles et al., 2004a: 114; Pratt and Chan, 2016: 6).

More recently Andreu, et all (2000: 47) suggested that above mentioned images can be summarized into two groups, namely: “perceived and projected image”. While perceived image is resulted from actual experiences and traveler evaluations of the potential of a destination (Xu and Ye, 2016: 1). In other words, it might be said that perceived images are notably formed by autonomous sources, traveler direct experiences and from induced images. Projected image are resulted from marketing activities of a destination to attract targeted group(s). They are

developed and distributed by different agents to create a specific image of a destination (Mak, 2017: 282). Today, projected images are not only created by destination management organizations and marketers but travelers play an important role too. This situation approved “the hermeneutic circle of representation in tourism, whereby tourists act as both consumers of images created by others and producers of images that will be consumed by future tourists” (Galí and Donaire, 2015: 893).

Image typology is among other important topics for image-related researches in tourism. In general, scholars have proposed two destination images, namely, cognitive image (CI) and affective image (AI). The CI represents knowledge about the physical facets of a destination. It encompasses both natural attractions and human-made attractions. It represents the knowledge that travelers have about particular destinations (Lee, Lee, and Lee, 2014: 240).

The affective image can be defined as the emotional reaction or feeling toward a destination (Atadil et al., 2017: 3). It represents what travelers feel about a destination. In addition to these types, researchers suggest a third form of image called c-image. It refers to the behavioral reaction of a traveler toward a given destination based on his/her cognition and affect (Michaelidou et al., 2013: 2).

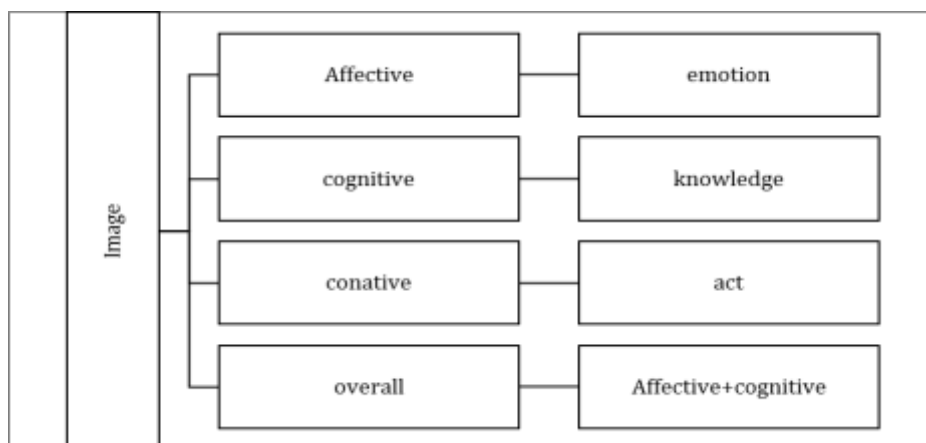


Figure 2.6. Image Types

Source: Hallmann, Zehrer, and Muller (2015)

While the choice of a destination is affected by both the cognitive and affective and the most of studies have emphasized on them, but some researchers believe that after the cognitive and affective evaluation, firstly overall image toward a destination is formed and after that individual enter to the conative level (Ji and Wall, 2011: 209). In other words, the overall image might be conceptualized as a formed from the CI or AI or a mix of them. Based on the literature about image typologies, it can be summarized into four groups: affective, cognitive, conative and

overall image (Figure 2.6). This typology is mainly used as background theory for operationalization of destination image.

2.7.3. Literature review related to overall destination image

Previous studies have demonstrated that image is a valuable concept in investigating the destination. In generally, they can be divided into seven groups. First group are studies which focused on bibliometric analysis of destination image related studies. For example, Steve Pike (2002: 542) analyzed 142 destination image articles which have been published during 1973–2000. The results showed that countries are the most well-liked type of destination for destination image related studies. North America was the main case study. “The effect of visitation (15), segmentation (12) and image differences between different groups (8)” were the main topics which covered by studies.

Second group are those studies which mainly criticized the previous studies. For instance, Lai and Li (2016: 1065) emphasized that despite the extensively investigation in the tourism destination image (TDI), “the nature and scope of TDI” is remained “vague”. Kislali, Kavaratzis, and Saren (2016) in an article with the title of “Rethinking destination image formation” criticized the overlooking of socio-cultural aspects in the destination image formation.

The third group are related to the studies which in them destination image is independent variable. These studies mainly try to assess the impacts of DI on other concepts. For example, Machado (2010: 453) in a trying to analyses the relationship between DI and the length of stay in a destination, approved their positive relation. Chiu et al. (2016: 223) by analyzing the influence of DI on tourist loyalty, confirmed that both cognitive and affective images has positive effects on loyalty; affective image directly and cognitive image indirectly through affective image and satisfaction. In another study, Maghsoodi Tilaki, et al (2016: 425) showed that DI “increases the perceived satisfaction and fosters the behavioral intentions of tourists”.

The fourth group of studies are those, which within them DI is use as the dependent variable. For example, Sung Moon et al. (2011: 287) confirmed that “event quality perceptions, particularly intangible factors, positively influence the destination image”. In another study, Hudson, Wang, and Gil (2010: 177) concluded that watching movie related to a specific destination has a positive effect on destination image and visit intention.

The fifth group of studies investigated DI as mediator. Akroush, Jraisat, Kurdieh, AL-Faouri, and Qatu (2016: 18) confirmed that “destination image fully mediates the relationship between tourism service quality and destination loyalty”. In addition, the results of a study by

Chew and Jahari (2014: 382) revealed that DI “significantly mediated the relationships between two risks, namely, perceived socio-psychological and financial risks, and revisit intention”.

The sixth group are those studies which mainly focused on repairing (Avraham, 2015) and enhancing (Jeong, Holland, Jun, & Gibson, 2012) or “advancing destination image” (Kock, Josiassen, & Assaf, 2016). The final group of studies are related to the model development and measurement of destination image (Baloglu & McCleary, 1999; Robert Govers, Go, & Kumar, 2007; Styliadis, Shani, & Belhassen, 2017).

While above mentioned literature are related to DI in generally, numerous empirical studies have focused on the overall image (OI). For example, Wang and Hsu (2010: 829) confirmed that OI is created by both cognitive and affective image. In addition, their empirical investigation revealed that OI “has an indirect impact on behavioral intentions through satisfaction”. Correia, Oliveira, and Butler's (2008) findings confirmed that first-time and repeat travelers recognized the overall image differently. Ryu, Han, and Kim's (2008: 459) results also confirmed that OI significantly influenced perceived value and behavioral intentions. According to their results, satisfaction can partially mediate the relationship between overall image, perceived value and behavioral intentions. Additionally, the findings of Girish Prayag, Hosany, Muskat, and Del Chiappa (2017) demonstrated that overall image has a positive effect on traveler satisfaction and intention to recommend Sardinia as a tourism destination. Hallmann, Zehrer, and Muller (2015b) by developing a destination image model showed that overall destination image positively influence the intention to visit winter sports destination again.

2.8. Behavioral intentions

2.8.1. Definition of behavioral intentions

Intentions can be explained as desire and willingness to embark a certain behavior. According to the theory of planned behavior (TPB) which was developed by Ajzen (1985) there is a close relationship between intention and actual behavior. In other words, intentions form behaviors (Park, Lee, Lee, Chang, & Kwak, 2016). In the TPB it is supposed that customers are rational. Hence, there decision making follows a rational process. Based on this, the actual behavior of customer can be predicted from behavioral intentions (El Haddad, Hallak, & Assaker, 2015).

2.8.2. Theories related to behavioral intentions

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) and its extension; the theory of planned behavior (TPB) are the two main applied theories in the behavioral intention studies. Scholars have been widely used these two theories in their different studies to analysis intentions/behaviors (Paul, Modi, and Patel, 2016: 124).

The theory of reasoned action (TRA) was introduced by Fishbein and Ajzen (1975). TRA provides a framework for understanding and predicting human behaviors. According to this theory, intention is the main antecedent of behavior and can shows an individual's willingness to participate in a particular behavior (Untaru, Ispas, Candrea, Luca and Epuran, 2016: 51). The TRA includes two major concepts, namely attitude and subjective norms.

Attitude can be defined as "an individual's positive or negative feelings (evaluative affect) about performing the target behavior" (Bin, 2013: 610). Subjective norm is "related to the normative belief that a person complies with the expectations from other people, such as a person's family or friends, supervisor, or society at large" (Mishra, Akman, and Mishra, 2014: 30). There are considerable studies which have been confirmed the predictive power of TRA in accurately prediction of individuals' intentions in the various settings related to tourism. For example, knowledge sharing intentions (Tsai, Chen, & Chien, 2012), tourist's behavior (Kim, Kim, and Goh, 2011), choice of travel mode (Bamberg, Ajzen, & Schmidt, 2003), and fast food restaurant consumption (Bagozzi, Wong, Abe, and Bergami, 2000).

While theory of reasoned action is widely accepted but its assumptions such as rational and volitional has been risen widely criticizes. Accordingly, by adding "perceived behavioral control" as the third determinant of behavioral intentions, Ajzen (1985) developed new theory which he called theory of planned behavior (TPB) (Guo et al., 2007: 1068). Actually, it can be said that the TPB is an extension of the TRA (Hansen, Møller Jensen, and Stubbe Solgaard, 2004: 540). Based on this theory, three factors have effects on behavioral intentions:

- 1) Attitudes: Represents an individual's overall opinion of a behavior (Goh, Ritchie, and Wang, 2017: 124) and its estimated results. In other words, a person participate in the certain behavior; if he/she believes that it will generate the desired results.
- 2) Subjective norm: The participation of a person in the behavior is related to the perception of others about that behavior. It refers to a person's beliefs about whether s/he participation would approve by "significant others (e.g. family members or peers)" (Livi, Zeri, and Baroni, 2017: 26).
- 3) Perceived behavioral control (PBC): According to PBC, behavior is guided by the perceived "ease or difficulty" in doing a certain behavior (Huchting, Lac, and LaBrie, 2008: 3).

As a more comprehensive alternative to TRA, it has received notable attention in the literature. Availability of around 1552 indexed scientific works which have been written by use of theory of planned behavior on the web of science can be a good evidence (search on web of science was conducted on 8 March 2017 at 10.30 am).

2.8.3. Literature review related to behavioral intentions

Due to the important and accuracy role of intentions in the prediction of the future behavior (Park et al., 2016), it has been used widely for measuring effects of various variables. For example, e-word of mouth (Abubakar & Ilkan, 2016), tourism experience (Abubakar & Ilkan, 2016), tourist satisfaction (Dolnicar, Coltman, & Sharma, 2015), hotels price fairness (El Haddad et al., 2015), involvement (Yen & Teng, 2015), destination personality (Papadimitriou, Apostolopoulou, & Kaplanidou, 2015) and destination familiarity (Tan and Wu, 2016). Among various behavioral intentions, scholars have suggested that loyalty, repurchase (revisiting) intentions, positive e-word-of-mouth, and willingness to recommend are the most frequently used items for measuring behavioral intentions (Chang, 2016; Yen, Chen, Cheng, and Teng, 2015). Some of studies, which are more related to this study, are summarized below.

Barnes, Mattsson, and Sørensen (2016: 286) by using of longitudinal approach assessed the impacts of “remembered tourist experiences in a safari park” on revisit intention. The results indicate that longer-term remembered experiences have the strongest impact on revisit intentions.

Hung, Lee, and Huang (2016: 763) by examining of the links among “creative experiences, memorability, and revisit intentions”, concluded that there is a significant positive relationship among them. However, results indicated that memorable experiences could be “a more appropriate predictor to revisit intentions”.

Kim, Duncan, and Chung (2015: 133) by focusing on food festivals, studied the relationship among involvement, satisfaction, perceived value, and revisit Intention. Findings indicated the positive link between involvement and revisit intention.

The study of Stylos, Vassiliadis, Bellou, and Andronikidis (2016: 40) about the relationships among destination image, personal normative beliefs (PNBs) and behavioral intentions, confirmed the mediating role of overall image for predicting intention to revisit a specific destination. Moreover, findings indicated the moderate effect of PNBs on the relationship between conative images and holistic image. In another study, Tosun, Dedeoğlu, and Fyall (2015: 222) concluded that affective image has “a more robust determinant” on tourist’s revisit intention, especially for provide for first-time visitors.

Söderlund (2002: 861) by assessing relations between familiarity and behavior intentions, suggested that familiar customer are more willing to share word of mouth. In addition, the results also confirmed the positive effect of familiarity on customer satisfaction and repurchase intentions.

2.9. Literature review on relationships among variables

Four constructs, namely; involvement, destination familiarity, overall image and behavioral intentions (word of mouth, recommendation, and visit more destination) and their relationships form the basis of this study. The links among variables can be summarized in seven relationships, namely; 1-involvement-behavior intentions, 2-involvement-destination familiarity, 3-involvement- overall destination image, 4- destination familiarity- behavior intentions, 5-overall destination image - behavior intentions, 6- mediator effect of familiarity on the relationship between involvement and behavior intentions, and 7- mediator effect of overall image on the relationship between involvement and behavior intentions.

About the relationship between involvement and behavior intentions, scholars believe that involvement in the experience co-creation not only create memorable experiences for travelers but also enhance overall satisfaction. In addition, the literature has indicated that tourist involvement in the experience has a positive effect on revisit intention (Tan, 2016). In this relation, some scholars have been introduced involvement as the antecedent for behavioral intentions (Sun, Geng-Qing Chi, and Xu, 2013).

Regarding the relationship between involvement and destination familiarity, researches showed that actively participating of travelers in the co-creation of their experience in the collaboration with locals can increase the information of travelers about destination and resulted in destination familiarity. For instance, Carneiro & Crompton (2010b) acknowledged that involvement by decreasing perceived risk has a positive impact on familiarity. Regarding to the relationship between involvement and overall destination image, Sun et al (2013) by review of the literature have shown the positive relations between involvement and positive image: traveler who have high level of involvement with destination have more positive image. Relating to the link between familiarity and behavioral intentions, researchers have approved the positive impacts of familiarity on behavior intentions. In this relation, familiarity by decreasing the perceived risk and build trust positively affect the future purchasing intention (Benedictus, Brady, Darke, and Voorhees, 2010: 322). In the field of tourism and destination, previous literature approved that the high level of familiarity with a destination positively affects the intention to visit the destination (Carneiro and Crompton, 2010: 1). For example, Milman and Pizam (1995: 21) confirmed that familiar travelers with Central Florida are more

interested to revisit. Regarding to the positive impact of destination image (DI) on behavior intentions, there is an agreement among scholars. For instance, Chi and Qu (2008: 624) in a study about the impact of destination image on revisit intention and word of mouth found that DI has a positive effect on destination loyalty. In other words, they confirmed that DI has a positive influence on travelers' intention to repeat their visit and recommend destination to others. Finally, about the mediating role of destination familiarity and overall destination image, while there is lack of study but by supporting of the following arguments it seems that mediator role of familiarity between involvement and behavior intentions, and mediator effect of overall image on the relationship between involvement and behavior intentions can be suggested. Familiarity can resulted in perceive more personal relevance and emotional connection to a destination. It will motivate travelers to high involvement in experiences and drive behavior intention. Secondly, familiarity can change travelers' risk perception. By decreasing perceived risk travelers' behavior intentions will be accelerated to visit more destination in a country. In relation with the mediating role of overall destination image, due to probably positive relationship between overall destination image with involvement and behavioral intentions, it can be reasonable that relationship between involvement and behavioral intentions might be mediated by overall destination image.

In addition to the above-mentioned statements, more examples about relationships among involvement, familiarity, overall image and intentions are shown in the table 2.17.

Table 2.17. Relationships among involvement, familiarity, image and intentions

Author(s)	Under-study relationships	Findings
(Morosan & DeFranco, 2016)	Involvement – intention to use hotel apps	involvement was the main predictor of intentions to use apps during stay in a hotel
(Altunel & Erkut, 2015b)	Involvement – recommendation intention	The results show that experience quality has a significant mediator effect on the relationship between involvement and recommendation intention.
(Ferns & Walls, 2012)	Involvement – visit intention	Enduring travel involvement has positive impacts on destination visit intentions.
(Carneiro & Crompton, 2010b)	Involvement – familiarity	Involvement by decreasing perceived risk has a positive impact on familiarity.
(Lee et al., 2008)	Destination images, familiarity, and intentions	The results showed that destination images and familiarity has a positive effect on visit intentions.
(Beerli & Martín, 2004)	Involvement – destination image	The degree of involvement with the destination during the stay has positive effect on perceived destination image.
(Chen and Tsai, 2007)	Destination image- intentions	Destination image have both direct and indirect effects on intentions.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter reports the process of research design and adopted methodology to obtain the needed data. The chapter is split in the following sections; research model, designing data collection tool, population and sampling, implementation of questionnaire, data analysis techniques, reliability and validity, and limitations of research.

3.2. Research model

Traditional tourism, which has been identified by the gaze paradigm, is going to be changed. In the traditional paradigm tourist has been seen as a passive sightseer consumer. Today, travelers by support of information communication technologies are more active than ever. They are looking for the ways to be involved in co-creation their experiences (Campos, Mendes, do Valle, & Scott, 2016: 1). The concept of involvement was developed in consumer behavior studies (Ogbeide & Bruwer, 2013: 2010). "Involvement refers to consumers' enduring perceptions of the importance of the product, depending on their inherent needs, values, and interests" (Belanche, Flavián, & Pérez-Rueda, 2017:78). As an intangible and experience-based activity, involvement in experience design has been attracted considerable attention in tourism (Binkhorst & Den Dekker, 2009; Nina K. Prebensen & Xie, 2017). Involvement in the co-creation of an experience has been identified as a positive factor on the vacation experience and loyalty to the provider (Mathis, Kim, Uysal, Sirgy, & Prebensen, 2016: 63). In addition, studies have showed that involvement has a positive impacts on destination familiarity (Tan & Wu, 2016: 214). Additionally, it "strengthens the tourist's closeness to the place" and "stimulate visitor return" (Marinao Artigas, Vilches-Montero, & Chasco Yrigoyen, 2015: 147). As well as, there is general agreement in the literature that the formation of destination image is largely affected by traveler experiences (Yang, 2016: 1) and involvement on experience co-creation. Based on above brief summary, and as exhaustively explained in the chapter one, the following hypotheses were developed:

1. Involvement in collaborative Couchsurfing experience has a positive influence on behavioral intention.
2. Involvement in collaborative Couchsurfing experience has a positive influence on destination familiarity.

3. Involvement in collaborative Couchsurfing experience has a positive influence on overall destination image.
4. Destination familiarity has a positive influence on behavioral intention.
5. Overall destination image has a positive influence on behavioral intention.
6. Destination familiarity has a positive influence on Overall destination image.
7. The relationship between involvement and behavioral intention is mediated by destination familiarity.
8. The relationship between involvement and behavioral intention is mediated by overall destination image.

Base on the literature review and aims of the study, the model of research for exploring the impacts of P2P accommodation on destination was developed (Figure 3.1). The research model was constructed based on the relationships among involvement, familiarity, overall image and behavioral intentions.

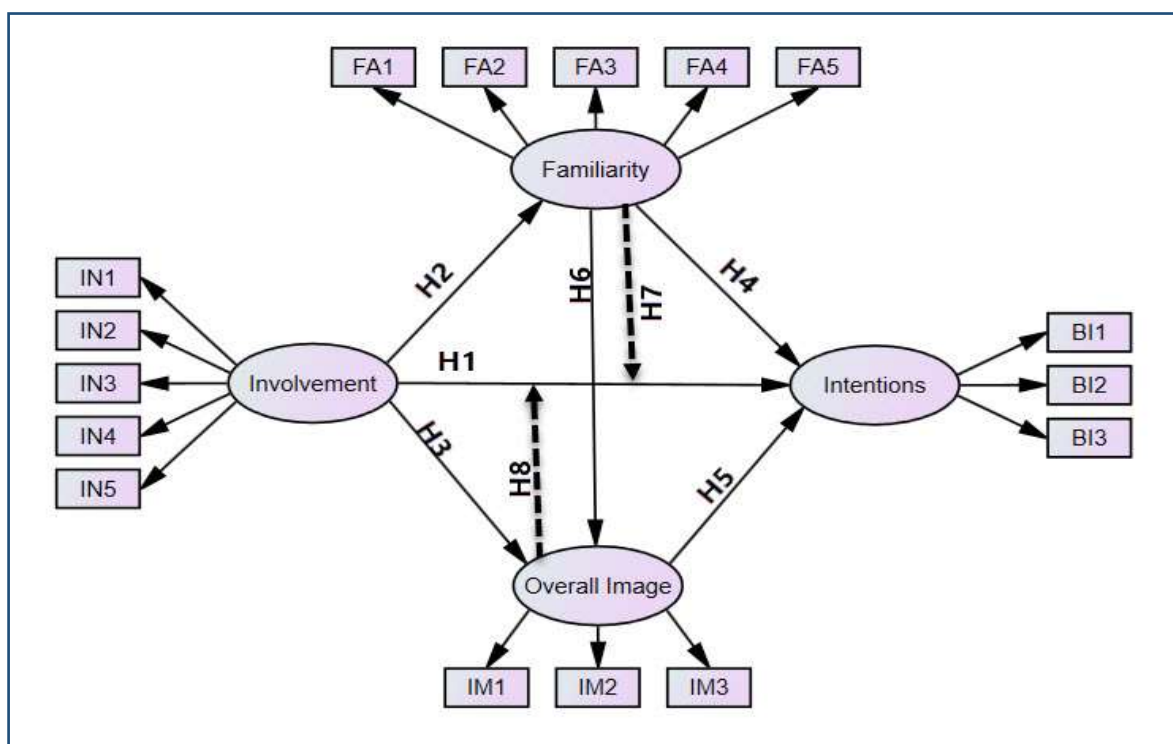


Figure 3.1. Research Model

3.3. Designing data collection tool

To design a data collection instrument for this study, the researcher adopted “Multi-sited ethnography (MSE)” (Hine, 2007: 652). According to this approach, toward better understanding of topics or social problems, following them in the different sites is important (Lauring & Klitmøller, 2015: 48). Accordingly, before designing of instrument, namely the

questionnaire, as a member of the Couchsurfing, initial data were collected by hosting and surfing, executing depth interview with other members, online observation, and on the move with Couchsurfers (Figure 3.2). This process provided the researcher to understand Couchsurfing and Couchsurfers involvement better.



Figure 3.2. Multi-sited ethnography of Couchsurfing

By collecting the initial insights, trying to find scientific support for the results of multi-sited ethnography was conducted. In this step, by reviewing the existing literature, a draft questionnaire was developed and then pre-tested with 54 couchsurfers visited Turkey. Pre-test was used to assure that the questionnaire was easily understandable by couchsurfers from all over the world and hence to get valid and reliable data. No problems were reported in the pilot test. Accordingly, the adopted items were selected as the finalized instrument for the data collection process.

Questionnaire included seven parts. The first part was dedicated to tripographics of respondents. In this section, respondents were asked to provide some information about their socio-demographic and travel related characteristics such as age, gender, education level, country, couchsurfing experiences, accommodation facility used, number of travels to Turkey and any other country by couchsurfing, and cities visited in Turkey. Age categories were organized based on the following generations (Pascoe & Staughton, 2015, p. 14): “Gen Z: Born 1996 and later” (18-22 age group), “Millennials or Gen Y”: Born 1978 to 1995 (23-36 age

group), "Generation X: Born 1965 to 1979" (37-52 age group), and "Baby Boomers: Born 1946 to 1964" (53-71 age group).

"Trust is a peer-to-peer network's Achilles Heel"(Harper, 2014: 54). For this reason while choosing a host for couchsurfing, Couchsurfing's trust building mechanisms cannot be ignored. Therefore, we intended to determine what factors couchsurfers used for evaluation of a host and to what extent in the second part of questionnaire. Seven items were adopted from Luo & Zhang (2016) and Couchsurfing website. A five-point scale for response categories was used.

In the third part, there were motivational items for Couchsurfing. To assess motivation toward using Couchsurfing, seven items were adopted from (Pietilä & Outi, 2011; Jingqi Liu, 2012b; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2015). The respondents were asked to state the importance level of each statement on a five-point scale from not at all important-1 to extremely important-5.

The fourth scale was designed to identify why travelers involved with peer-to-peer experiences. Involvement is defined as the extent to which a couchsurfers considers the peer-to-peer experiences to be relevant and important to his or her values, beliefs, interests and experiences. Accepting involvement definition of Zaichkowsky, a five-items-involvement scale was adopted from Ferns & Walls (2012: 33). The response categories of these items were based on a 5 point-Likert scale.

The fifth part of the questionnaire involves items about the destination familiarity. Based on the aim of this study, self-described familiarity was selected to measure impacts of involvement in Couchsurfing experience on familiarity with Turkey. For achieving this aim, a five-items scale was adopted from Artigas, Montero and Yrigoyen (2015: 149), and response categories were also the same with couchsurfing involvement.

Table 3.1. Scales and their items used in questionnaire

SCALE	ITEMS	REFERENCES
Host evaluation scale ¹	Host's references.	Luo & Zhang, 2016
	Host's number of friends.	
	Host's photos.	
	Host's verified membership.	
	Host's self-disclosure information (Host's profile).	
	Mutual interest(s).	
Couchsurfing motivation scale ¹	Mutual friend(s).	Couchsurfing website
	To get to know people from the local neighborhoods.	
	To have a more meaningful interaction with the hosts.	
	To get insiders' tips on local attractions.	
	To lower travel cost.	
	To find an opportunity for intercultural exchange.	
Couchsurfing involvement scale ²	To meet new people.	(Pietilä, 2011; Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2015)
	To find new friends.	
	In contrast with my previous experiences with other types of accommodation, Couchsurfing experience is more important for me.	
	In contrast with my previous experiences with other types of accommodation, Couchsurfing experience is of great concern for me.	
	In contrast with my previous experiences with other types of accommodation, Couchsurfing experience means a lot for me.	
	In contrast with my previous experiences with other types of accommodation, Couchsurfing experience is more significant for me.	
Familiarity scale ²	In contrast with my previous experiences with other types of accommodation, Couchsurfing experience matters a lot for me.	(Ferns & Walls, 2012: 33)
	Couchsurfing experience allowed me to be more familiar with Turkey.	
	Couchsurfing experience allowed me to get to know local people better in Turkey.	
	Couchsurfing experience (staying with locals) improved my information about tourism attractions in Turkey.	
	Couchsurfing helped me to be more aware of the visited destination(s).	
	My friends and family told me that I know Turkey very well; I think Couchsurfing was effective in shaping this idea about me.	
Image scale ²	Using Couchsurfing to travel to Turkey builds a more favorable image of Turkey.	(Marinao Artigas, Vilches-Montero, & Chasco Yrigoyen, 2015: 149)
	Using Couchsurfing to travel to Turkey builds a more positive image of Turkey.	
	Using Couchsurfing to travel to Turkey builds a more preferable image of Turkey	
Behavioral intentions ²	Assuming my current circumstances remain the same, I will choose to come to Turkey again by Couchsurfing.	(Kim & Park, 2015: 8)
	Due to my memorable Couchsurfing experiences, I will share positive things about the visited destinations in Turkey.	
	Due to my memorable Couchsurfing experiences, I will encourage my friends and/or family to visit Turkey sometime.	
<p>1:Response categories: 1:Not at all important, 2:Slightly important, 3:Moderately important, 4:Very important, 5:Extremely important</p> <p>2: Response categories: 1:Strongly Disagree, 2:Disagree, 3:Neutral, 4:Agree, 5: Strongly Agree</p>		

The fifth scale was related to the overall image. While a single item was common for measuring the overall image, adopted scale in this study was taken from (Kim & Park, 2015). Based on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree), scale

includes three items, namely; positive, favorable, and preferable. With having their scale in mind, following statements were developed to study the impact of Couchsurfing experiences on the overall image of Turkey.

The last scale was for to detect behavioral intentions. Among various items related to behavioral intentions, scholars have suggested that loyalty, repurchase (revisiting) intentions, positive (e)word-of-mouth, and willingness to recommend are the most frequently used items for measuring behavioral intentions (Yen et al., 2015; Chang, 2016). Based on this, by adopting 3 items from Martín Santana, Beerli Palacio, & Nazzareno (2017), couchsurfers' behavioral intentions is identified as the likelihood to revisiting Turkey, positive (e) word-of-mouth about Turkey, and invite friends to visit Turkey. Response categories of these items were also a-five-point Likert scale (Table 3.1).

The last part of survey was devoted to examine the clarity and understandability. In this relation, a multiple choice question was added to the questionnaire, adopted from Haberer (2012: 96).

3.4. Population and sample

Based on the research aims, the population was defined as the travelers who use Couchsurfing during travel to Turkey. To estimate sample size, the information about the number of total travelers visited Turkey by using couchsurfing was needed. Therefore an e-mail requesting the information was sent to web site administrator of Couchsurfing. In reply, an email was received indicating that they do not have such statistics:

Thank you for your message and we are really happy to hear that you consider Couchsurfing for your research. Unfortunately, we are currently not in the position to prepare any data other than what you already see on our website for you. If you look around the site, I'm sure you can find a lot of great information.

Accordingly, for taking a sample, the search algorithm of Couchsurfing was applied. Firstly, on April 2017 the main cities in Turkey visited by couchsurfers were identified. These cities were Istanbul with 111,399 hosts, Ankara with 25,613 hosts, Izmir with 20,687 hosts, and Antalya with 9,974 hosts. In addition to these main pilot cities, travelers who used Couchsurfing in the other cities of Turkey such as Eskişehir, Trabzon, Konya, Mersin, Adana, Rize, Mardin, Diyarbakir, Urfa, Gaziantep, Kayseri, Nevşehir, Muğla, and Çanakkale are included too.

In the next step, by using the search algorithm of Couchsurfing, including traveler and searching all above mentioned cities as a keyword, travelers who apply for hosts during March and June 580 travelers were identified. A list with their profile link was prepared and a friend

request was sent. Following by this, before asking them to complete the questionnaire, their profile were reviewed and if they have review(s) about their host(s) in Turkey, then they were asked to complete the questionnaire. By reviewing their profile, 436 travelers were selected as a sample.

In addition, in order to find travelers who have used Couchsurfing when they travel to Turkey during 2016 and the first six months of 2017, firstly by using of the search algorithm of Couchsurfing including: “accepting guests”, “maybe accepting guests” and filtering results based on the “hosting experiences” the top hosts were identified in each cities. In the next step, by reviewing their profile 712 travelers who used Couchsurfing, have been written review about their Couchsurfing experiences and have been login to their account during one month were recognized. Finally, **1148** couchsurfers through purposive sampling were selected as a sampling framework.

Purposive sampling is described as the selection of sampling units within the segment of the population with the most information on the characteristic of interest (Guarte & Barrios, 2006: 277). In this study, because of using following judgments to select samples, purposive sampling was adopted:

- Surfers who have review(s) about their host(s) in Turkey.
- Hosts and surfers who had logged in the last one month.
- Hosts who have references.

While, according to scholars applying of purposive sampling could rise the sampling bias, but applying above mentioned criteria in the pilot study derived researcher that using purposive sampling not only doesn't led to sampling bias but also rise the response rate. For example, during pilot study, 30 surveys distributed among surfers who had logged in more than two months and interestingly, no response received.

3.5. Implementation of questionnaire

To reach couchsurfers who visited Turkey, but living in all over the world, the questionnaire was implemented via the internet. By increasing the penetration rate and the popularity of the internet, the number of scholars who used the internet for conducting their researches has been growing. There are some reasons for this situation, involve “access to individuals in distant locations, and the convenience of having automated data collection, which reduces researcher time and effort” (Wright, 2006). In addition, as Devine, et all (2008: 87) suggested that distributing the questionnaires via internet normally decrease costs and generates “higher response rates and faster responses, in comparison with telephone, fax, mail and face-to-face survey methods”. The others often mentioned advantages of web-based

surveys are the accessibility; regardless of time and place, and allows innovative questionnaires developed (Fleming & Bowden, 2009: 285).

By accepting web based survey, a hot link was created by Sogosurvey (online survey tool) for directing the respondents to the questionnaire page by a click. Designing of questionnaire page was based on multi-device friendly approach. Based on this approach, by diversification of devices (e.g. smart phone, tablet, PC, laptop, smart watch) and platforms (e.g. Android, Windows, and IOS), designing data in a way that can be accessible and easy to read in different devices, would boosts individual responses. By finalizing the questionnaire design, direct messages with the aims of research were sent to the samples.

The use of self-administered surveys via the internet has experienced phenomenal growth in recent years. In spite of the initial specifically, the response rates have been estimated to be around 11% lower when compared to other questionnaire implementation types due to a wide variety of factors (Sánchez-Fernández, Muñoz-Leiva, & Montoro-Ríos, 2012: 507). Although obtaining high response rates has been a fundamental aspect in a research design, obtaining quality responses is becoming increasingly important. In the case of self-administered questionnaires such as Web-based surveys, before designing of the questionnaire, by reviewing the existing literature on factors affecting response rate, influencing factors was identified (Table 3.2). Based on these factors a short (18 questions) self-administered questionnaire was designed and delivered via internet.

Web questionnaire was sent to 1148 Couchsurfers by direct message. While, low response rate is one of the frequently cited problem for the online surveys, but using some tips (see table 3.2) to motivate the respondents to participation, remarkably raised the response rate to around 53% (609 out of 1148). A low response rate is one of the main issues for conducting research in the tourism. Generally, it is “in the neighborhood of 20%” and even have been decreased in recent years (Hallak, Brown, & Lindsay, 2012: 146). Therefore, achieving the 53% response rate can be satisfactory.

Table 3.2. Tips and strategies for increase response rate

Tips to increase response rate and obtaining quality responses in online survey	The adopted strategies in this study for increase response rate and obtaining quality response
The personalization of the invitation (Heerwegh, 2005: 588).	Sending personalized direct message with the name of receivers.
Length of questionnaire: by increasing the length, likely to respond decreased (Dirmaier et al., 2007: 1263).	Using a short questionnaire (13 questions)
Questionnaires sent out by familiar individuals are more likely to be returned (Jacoby, 1990: 131).	Sending a message requesting for being friend to all of samples.
Incentives (Birnholtz, Horn, Finholt, & Bae, 2004: 355).	Being a member of Couchsurfing community. Using an internal incentive: in order to support the amazing Couchsurfing idea and show its positive affects that has brought into our lives, please participate in this study. Additionally a message sent to all samples that in case of response, they would be hosted in Mersin.
Technical issues: text formats, backgrounds, logo, graphics, navigational instructions (Fan & Yan, 2010: 134) and multi device friendly.	Designing questionnaire based on multi devices-platforms friendly.
The number of contacts- reminders (Hayslett & Wildemuth, 2004: 75).	Consulting with web designers to optimizing the web page of questionnaire.
Sensitive questions (Huang, 2006: 335).	Sending reminder messages.
Sponsorship; normally, questionnaires sponsored by official organization have higher response rates (Arbnor & Bjerke, 2009:211).	Sensitive questions were not used.
The question wording (Beam, 2012: 155)	Telling the respondents, that researcher was a PhD student in Mersin University.
	Keeping questions as simple as possible

3.6. Data analysis techniques

For analyzing the first part of study that is related to tripographics, a combination of visual analytics (VA) techniques and descriptive analysis was adopted. Visual analytics (VA) techniques as a novel approach for better understanding of the problem, reasoning and decision-making (Klein & Hermann, 2015: 63). “Visual analytics is the science of analytical reasoning assisted by interactive visual interfaces, which has already been applied and found to be effective in social sciences such as management, finance, marketing and organizational behavior to aid in decision making” (Klenke, 2008: 108). Application of visualization techniques in science is new and growing (Cybulski, Keller, Nguyen, & Saundage, 2015: 21). Moreover, descriptive statistics was used to analyze the demographic characteristics of the respondents.

Four main constructs (involvement, destination familiarity, overall destination image, and behavioral intentions) were subjected to exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and

confirmatory factor analysis (CFA). As a technique to detect the primary relationships between under-study variables, EFA is considered as a multivariate analysis (Kim, Seo, & Choi, 2017). According to Hair, William, Barry, & Rolph (2010:90-93) there are a group of criteria and term that need to be considered during conducting EFA (Table 3.3).

Table 3.3. Terms and Criteria in EFA

Term	Definition/ criteria
Communality	"Total amount of variance an original variable shares with all other variables included in the analysis".
Factor extraction	Factor extraction is to showing the underling structure of the variables. Generally, there are two main methods for factor extraction, namely, Component analysis (or principal components analysis) and common factor analysis. In this relation, principal components analysis and eigenvalues greater than one are suggested as the most suitable method and criteria for the factor extraction.
Factor rotation	"Process of manipulation or adjusting the factor axes to achieve a simpler and pragmatically more meaningful factor solution". There are five factor rotation methods, namely: Quartimax, Equimax, Varimax, Promax, and Direct Oblimin. Generally, Varimax preferred to other factor rotation methods.
Factor loadings	Is defined as the "correlation between the original variables and the factors". Generally, factor loadings equal or more than 0.50 are considered practically significant.
Bartlett's test of sphericity	"Statistical test for the overall significance of all correlations within a correlation matrix". Bartlett test result should be statistically significant.
Reliability	"Extent to which a variable or set of variables is consistent in what it is intended to measure". The generally accepted threshold for Cronbach's alpha is 0.70

Source: (Hair et al., 2010)

In the next step, to validate the results and test the convergent validity of the proposed model, confirmatory factor analysis was done by using of Amos 23. Same as EFA, Confirmatory factor analysis is based on the common factor model. Therefore, it can be said that mathematically they are close procedure. However, while "EFA is data driven, but CFA is more theory driven" procedure (Harrington, 2009: 10). Actually, EFA is generally applied for exploring the dimensions of understudying constructs. In addition to discovering dimensions, CFA can be used for testing a hypothesis related to "the composition of a factor" (Reinard, 2006: 404).

Finally, by using the structural equation modeling (SEM) proposed hypotheses were tested.

3.7. Clarity

To examine the clarity of the questionnaire the clarity-understandability was conducted. The results confirmed the clarity and understandability. From 54 participants in the pilot study 20 participants reported instruments as “Very clear” and 30 participants believed that they understand nearly all questions. At final stage, 58.5% of 609 respondents thought that the questionnaire was very clear and 29.9 % said that it was easily understandable.

3.8. Reliability

Reliability refers to the ability of the tool to yield the same results over time (Rubin & Babbie, 2009: 91). In another word, “extent to which a variable or set of variable is consistent in what it is intended to measure” (Hair et al., 2010:96). While they are accepted in quantitative research, the story in a qualitative study is somewhat different. In generally, ideas about them in qualitative researches can be divided into two groups. Some researchers openly accepted quantitative validity and reliability (Klenke, 2008: 37). The second group, calls for development separate criteria for qualitative research. For example, Guba and Lincoln introduced an alternative to quantitatively oriented criteria. Their proposed criteria involves four, namely: “credibility, transferability, dependability, and confirmability”(Polit & Beck, 2013: 323).

In this study for assessing the reliability, a pilot study conducted in Jun 2017, questionnaires were administered to 100 travelers who use Couchsurfing during visit Turkey. Totally, 54 acceptable questionnaires were gathered, and the reliability of the scales was confirmed. In this relation, the Alpha value of traveler’s evaluation of trust building mechanisms in Couchsurfing was 0.644, showing an acceptable reliability. In the next step, reliability of motivation construct with 7 items was tested and result (alpha value =0.874) approved the reliability. Additionally, reliability of the four main constructs of this study was also approved. Involvement scale including 5 items had an Alpha coefficient of 0,882, another 5-items scale of destination familiarity had 0.992. Destination overall image scale (3 items) had a coefficient of 0.952 and behavioral intentions scale of 3 items had 0.920. Therefore, all scales used in the research had a high reliability.

3.9. Validity

In addition to reliability, validity is another important concept for a research. “Validity is used to ensure that the measure actually measures what it is intended to measure and no other variables”(Cetin, Bektas, & Ozdogan, 2015: 3). Generaly, there are two types of validity namely,

internal and external validity. Internal validity refers to this question; “To what extent does the research design permit us to say that the independent variable A causes a change in the dependent variable B?” in contrast external validity address “the extent of generalizability of the results of a causal study to other settings, people, or events” (Sekaran & Bougie, 2003:149-150). Based on these two types, three test have been suggested to measure validity, namely; content validity, criterion validity, and construct validity. Content validity or “logical validity which is usually confused with face validity, address the degree to which the samples of items, tasks, or questions on a test represent some defined universe or domain of content” (Yun & Ulrich, 2002:34). The general way to assess the content validity involves expert judgment on purposed instrument (Henly, 2015:49). In this study to confirm the content validity, firstly by reviewing related literature initial questionnaire was designed. In the next step, the developed survey was presented to three experts and based on their opinions the finalized version was developed. Criterion validity refers to use a criterion to develop a new measurement instrument that can be able “to predict an outcome of interest that occurs either at the same time (concurrent) or in the future (predictive), even in the past in some cases”(Tappen, 2011:149). Another common test for measure validity is construct validity, which is explained in details in the following section.

3.9.1. Construct validity

As previous studies suggested (Goodwin, 1999; DiStefano & Hess, 2005), factor analysis (exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis) was applied for measuring the validity of understudying constructs (involvement, destination familiarity, overall destination image, and behavioral intentions). Exploratory factor analysis (EFA) was performed for each constructs in separately. For applicability of factor analysis, by reviewing the available literature it was decided to evaluate the KMO sampling adequacy and Bartlett’s test of sphericity results. KMO should be greater than 0.70 (Sreejesh & Mohapatra, 2013:84) and Bartlett test result should be statistically significant (Ferguson & Cox, 1993:88). Based on Hair et al (2010), a principal component analysis with varimax rotation was preferred. Number of factors were determined based on eigenvalues greater than one. Additionally, it was decided that any items should at least have minimum 0.5 factor loadings and over communality coefficient.

The results of EFA indicated that all scales had one-dimensional construct. In involvement and familiarity scale, one item was deleted since they had loadings lower than 0.5. The item of “Couchsurfing is of great concern for me” from involvement and “My friends and family told me that I know Turkey very well; I think Couchsurfing was effective in shaping this idea about me” from destination familiarity were deleted. After then it was found that the ratios

of explained variances and Alpha coefficients were being increased. For example, the four remaining items of involvement construct accounted for 74.75% of the total variance, while it was 64.31% before deleting the item named "Couchsurfing is of great concern for me". Moreover, the Cronbach's Alpha value with five items was 0.836, but by deleting the mentioned item, it was increased to 0.886. The results of the EFA showed that KMO values of all scales were greater than 0.70 (involvement 0.830, destination familiarity 0.733, overall image 0.757, and behavioral intentions 0.713). Additionally, all the results of Bartlett's test of sphericity also were statistically significant (Table 3.4). Based on these results, it was concluded that data is suitable for factor analysis.

As table 3.4 shows, all items in involvement had loadings greater than 0.700; meaning that all items had a major role in involvement. The five items of the destination familiarity were grouped under one factor. One item (My friends and family told me that I know Turkey very well; I think Couchsurfing was effective in shaping this idea about me) with factor loading less than 0.5 was removed. Destination familiarity with four items explained 67.55% of the total variances. From loadings it is understood that all items are major items but the items relating to knowing local people and being familiar with Turkey were leading-ones in familiarity scale. Regarding the overall destination image, one factor was extracted explaining % 85.78 of the total variance. Factor loadings for all three items were more than 0.8, which can be accounted as a good correlation among items. It might be said that all items in formation of destination image had a huge role since they had loadings greater than 0.900. Therefore, Couchsurfing were contributing to build more favorable, positive and preferable image for Turkey. Finally, three items of behavioral intentions resulted in one factor that explained around 80% of total variance. The factor loadings for three items were greater than 0.8. This result not only indicates a good correlation among items but also shows that underling items have determinative role in behavioral intentions.

Table 3.4. The results of exploratory factor analysis

Constructs	Factor loading	Eigen-values (E)	Explained variance	Mean	Alpha
Involvement (IN) (4 items)		E>1	74.75%		0.886
IN1= Couchsurfing is more significant for me.	.891			3.99	
IN2= Couchsurfing means a lot for me.	.887			4.10	
IN3= Couchsurfing matters a lot for me.	.867			3.96	
IN4= Couchsurfing is more important for me.	.811			4.11	
KMO Sampling adequacy: 0.830; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square 1368.90; df 6; p<0.0001; General mean: data is suitable for factor analysis					
Destination Familiarity (DF) (4 items)		E>1	67.55 %		0.837
DF1= Couchsurfing allowed me to get to know local people better in Turkey	0.854			4.35	
DF2= Couchsurfing allowed me to be more familiar with Turkey	0.849			4.27	
DF3= Couchsurfing helped me to be more aware of the visited destination(s).	0.818			3.97	
DF4= Couchsurfing improved my information about tourism attractions in Turkey.	0.763			3.82	
KMO Sampling adequacy: 0.733; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square 1079.977; df 6; p<0.0001; General mean: data is suitable for factor analysis					
Overall destination image (ODI) (3 items)		E>1	85.78 %		0.917
ODI1=Couchsurfing builds a more favourable image of Turkey	0.937			4.05	
ODI2=Couchsurfing builds a more positive image of Turkey	0.923			4.09	
ODI3=Couchsurfing builds a more preferable image of Turkey	0.919			3.93	
KMO Sampling adequacy: 0.757; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square 1310.710; df 3; p<0.0001; General mean: data is suitable for factor analysis					
Behavioral intentions (BI) (3 items)		E>1	79.82 %		0.873
BI1= I will share positive things about the visited destinations in Turkey.	0.924			4.25	
BI2= I will encourage my friends and/or family to visit Turkey sometime.	0.903			4.17	
BI3= I will choose to come to Turkey again by Couchsurfing.	0.852			4.23	
KMO Sampling adequacy: 0.713; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square 982.924; df 3; p<0.0001; General mean: data is suitable for factor analysis					
Factor analysis based on principal component analysis with varimax rotation. Response categories: 1: Strongly disagree, ..., 5: Strongly agree					

In addition to EFA, in order to test the construct validity and validating the results of exploratory factor analysis, CFA was also applied. In order to conduct the CFA, firstly, based on the co-covariance (correlations) between constructs, proposed model was designed. In the next step, based on the generalized least squares (GLS) estimation program was run. By scanning the initial results, involving modification indices, fit indices, and standard regression weights no issues related to construct validity were identified. In order to confirm the initial results, two main criteria for measuring the validity of instrument, namely, convergent validity(CV) and discriminant validity (DV) (Dmitrienko, Chuang-Stein, & D'Agostino, 2007: 377) were applied.

CV shows how strong correlation exist between items and their related constructs. Normally, there are two ways to measure convergent validity: Average Variance Extracted (AVE), and composite reliability (CR) (Moghavvemi, Woosnam, Paramanathan, Musa, & Hamzah, 2017: 248). Mathew & Sreejesh (2017: 86) suggested 0.8 as a threshold for composite reliability and 0.50 as a threshold for average variance extracted (AVE). As table 3.5 shows, all the composite reliability values were more than 0.8 and all values related to AVE were more than the suggested level. Based on these results, convergent validity was confirmed.

Table 3.5. The Results of Confirmatory Factor Analysis and Convergent Validity

Constructs	loadings	AVE²	CR³
Involvement (IN)		0.65	0.95
Couchsurfing means a lot for me.	0.854		
Couchsurfing is more significant for me.	0.846		
Couchsurfing matters a lot for me.	0.818		
Couchsurfing is more important for me.	0.735		
Destination Familiarity (DF)		0.62	0.93
Couchsurfing allowed me to get to know local people better in Turkey	0.892		
Couchsurfing allowed me to be more familiar with Turkey	0.848		
Couchsurfing helped me to be more aware of the visited destination(s).	0.742		
Couchsurfing improved my information about tourism attractions in Turkey	0.673		
Overall destination image (ODI)		0.79	0.95
Couchsurfing builds a more favorable image of Turkey	0.917		
Couchsurfing builds a more positive image of Turkey	0.882		
Couchsurfing builds a more preferable image of Turkey	0.878		
Behavioral intentions (BI)		0.72	0.93
I will share positive things about the visited destinations in Turkey.	0.919		
I will encourage my friends and/or family to visit Turkey sometime.	0.861		
I will choose to come to Turkey again by Couchsurfing.	0.761		

In order to measure discriminant validity (DV) which implies to the extent to which “a construct measure is empirically unique” (Moghavvemi et al., 2017: 115), two mainly suggested techniques were applied: 1. “AVE of each construct should be greater than its maximum shared variance (MSV)”, and 2. “Square root of AVE of a particular construct should be greater than the squared factor correlation between that construct and other constructs” (Zahoor, Chan, Utama,

² . Measured by the online tool, which have been developed by Şimşek (2017) (<http://asalihsimsek.info/shiny/ave/>)

³ . Measured by the online tool, which have been developed by Şimşek (2017) (<http://asalihsimsek.info/shiny/ave/>)

Gao, & Zafar, 2017: 13). As table 3.6 shows, there is no issue related to the DV. All the values of AVE are greater than MSV and square roots of AVE are more than squared factor correlation. Based on this, discriminant validity of the proposed model was confirmed.

Table 3.6. The Results of Discriminant Validity

	AVE	\sqrt{AVE}	MSV
Overall Image	0.79	0.88	0.507
Involvement	0.65	0.80	0.280
Familiarity	0.62	0.78	0.475
Intentions	0.72	0.84	0.507

3.10. Assessment of Model Fit Indices

To assess the model and confirm model fit, some criteria offered in literature were adopted. First, Chi-square was evaluated. The result of Chi-square (χ^2)(or CMIN in Amos) divided to the degree of freedom (df) (χ^2/df) must be between 1-3; except than large sample (more than 750) and high complex model (Hair, 2010: 642). While generally χ^2 is the main method for assessing model fit but due to the some limitations (such as dependency of its results to the sample size) (Anthony, Ong, 2006: 129), scholars acknowledged that only the result of Chi- square is not adequate for confirming the model fit.

The second criteria were to assess some other fit indexes that should have a coefficient equal and/or greater than 0.90. The “comparative fit index (CFI), goodness-of-fit index (GFI), tucker–Lewis Index (TLI), normed fit index (NFI), relative fit index (RFI), incremental fit index (IFI)” should be equal to 0.90 and greater (Hollnagel, 2010: 213). It must be said that the issue of appreciate fit indexes thresholds is still an issue of debate. while for some scholars CFI> 0.90 is acceptable but some researchers acknowledged that values ranging from 0.80 to 0.90 also can be accepted as indicator of a good fit (Matsumoto & Vijver, 2011:203). Root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and Root mean square residual (RMS) are other common used fit indices. “The SRMR should be less than .08. An RMSEA of 0.50 or less reflects a model of close fit, whereas values between .05 and .08 represent a reasonable fit” (Hallak et al., 2012: 147).

Based on the model fit indices, the Chi-square (CMIN) value was 206.19 and the degrees of freedom (DF) = 71. According to the default formula ($\frac{CMIN}{DF}$) in Amos for measuring Chi-square, CMIN had a value of 2.90. It is at the suggested threshold (CMIN<3). While the Chi-square is the one of the most frequently used indices for measuring the model fit, but scholars suggested other types of model fit indices. The “Normed fit index (NFI)”, “Comparative fit index

(CFI)", "Tucker Lewis index (TLI)", "Goodness of fit index (GFI)", and the "root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA)" are other suggested statistical analyses for testing the model fit (Velicer, Miller, MacCallum, & Strahan, 1976: 202). Accordingly, the alternatives indices were also checked. The results (e.g., AGFI = 0.928; GFI=0.952; TLI = 0.809; CFI = 0.851; RMS = 0.032; RMSEA = 0.05) shown that the model fits the data.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Introduction

This chapter reports the major findings of this study. The results are summarized in three sections. In the first part, the tripographic profiles of the respondents are explained. The second part of this chapter was allocated to present the results of testing hypotheses. Finally, the results of the mediation effects of destination familiarity and overall destination image are offered.

4.2. Tripographics of couchsurfers

The first part of this study was related to the tripographics profiles of couchsurfers. This section involves statements about socio-demographic characteristics such as sex, age, level of education, country, number of Couchsurfing experience, cities visited in Turkey, and accompanying person. In addition, there were two statements about motivation and trust.

Of total 609 participants, 363 (59.6%) were male and 246 (40.4%) were female. More than 72% of the participants (440) were in the age group 23-36. With a huge and obvious difference it followed by group 18-22 (91), 37-52 (67) and 53-71 (11). Regarding the level of education, the results of study indicated that more than 78% of the participants (477) had undergraduate and post graduated. Followed by these two main groups, there were college with 79, high school with 49, and lastly primary school with four participants (Table 4.1).

Table 4.1. Distribution of respondents based on demographics (n=609)

Demographics	F	%	Demographics	F	%
Gender			Education level		
Male	363	59.6	Primary school	4	0.7
Female	246	40.4	High school	49	0.8
Age group			College (associate degree)	79	13.00
18-22 (Z)	91	14.1	Undergraduate (Bachelor degree)	266	43.7
23-36 (Y)	440	72.2	Postgraduate	211	34.6
37-52 (X)	67	11.0			
53-71 (BB)	11	1.07			

There were two statements about the participants' frequency use of couchsurfing; both generally around the world and specifically in Turkey. The findings showed that the majority of the participants (83%) had used Couchsurfing more than two times up to Jun 2017. In this relation, 46% (281) of the participants reported that they had used Couchsurfing more than 10

times. In addition, the results of Couchsurfing experiences during visit Turkey indicated that 75.4 % of participants (459) had used Couchsurfing more than one time.

In addition to Couchsurfing experiences, participants were requested to state their number of experiences with other types of accommodations (e.g., hotel, hostel). As table 4.2 shows, the majority of the participants reported that they had stayed in the traditional type of accommodations. More than 88% (541) of participants stated that in addition to Couchsurfing, during visit a destination they had used different types of accommodations. It is same in Turkey too. The most of participants (386) reported that they had stayed in other types of accommodation (e.g., hotel, hostel).

Table 4.2. Couchsurfing and traditional accommodation experiences (n= 609)

Couchsurfing experiences	F	%	Couchsurfing experiences	F	%
Number of Couchsurfing experiences (general)			Number Couchsurfing experiences in Turkey		
1-2	102	16.7	1	150	24.6
3-5	132	21.7	2	123	20.2
6-10	94	15.4	3	84	13.8
More than 10	281	46.1	4	50	8.2
			More than 4	202	33.2
Traditional accommodation experiences (general)			Traditional accommodation experiences (Turkey)		
Yes	541	88.8	Yes	386	63.4
No	68	11.2	No	223	36.6

The results regarding the number of visiting Turkey indicated that 51% of the participants were repeat visitors and 49% (301) were travelers who visit Turkey for the first time. More than half of these travelers (64.9%) were solo travelers and 150 participants reported that during travel to Turkey their friends accompanied them. Only 10% (64) of participants reported that during travel to Turkey accompanied by their families (Table 4.3).

Table 4.3. Number of visit Turkey and accompanied person(s)

	F	%
Number of visit Turkey (n:609)		
1	301	49.4
2	141	23.2
3	52	8.5
4	26	4.3
More than 4	89	14.6
Accompanying person		
Family	64	10.5
Friends	150	24.6
Solo	395	64.9

The results of geographical distribution of couchsurfers visited in Turkey provide a ranking of the 118 most visited destinations (Figure 4.1). Among the visited destinations, Istanbul was at the top of the list, which 80% of the participants (490) reported that had used Couchsurfing during visit Turkey. With an obvious difference, Izmir (204), Antalya (183), and Ankara (159) were the other top three destinations for Couchsurfers.

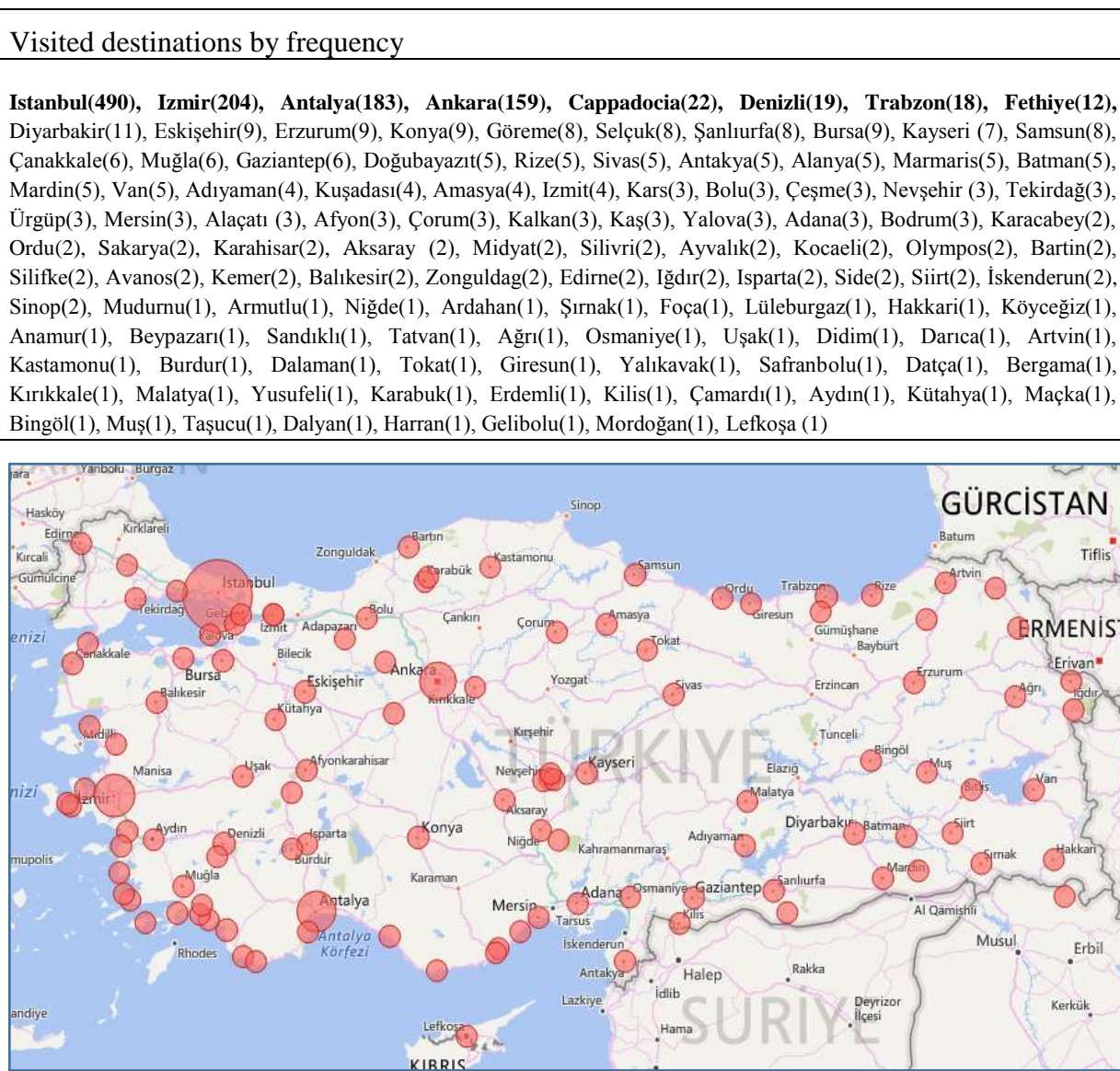


Figure 4.1. The main destinations in Turkey for Couchsurfers

The results of analyzing the participant profiles by their country of origin revealed that travelers were distributed among 88 countries. Among them travelers from Germany with 53 times, using Couchsurfing during visit Turkey was placed at the first rank. Followed by Ukraine (44), France (43), USA (37), Russia (33), Poland (24), Iran (21), Spain (19), and UK (19) (Figure 4.2).

Country of origin of Couchsurfers
Germany (53), Ukraine (44), France (43), USA (37), Russia (33), Poland (24), Iran (21), Spain (19), UK (19), Czech Republic (16), China (14), Morocco (13), Australia (12), Malaysia (12), Italy (12), Argentina (11), Indonesia (10), Hong Kong (10), Brazil (8), India (8), Colombia (8), Switzerland (7), Hungary (7), Egypt (7), South Korea (6), Mexico (6), Netherland (6), Slovakia (6), Lithuania (6), Singapore (6), Serbia (5), Romania (5), Japan (5), Canada (5), Kazakhstan (5), Chile (5), Peru (4), Pakistan (4), Philippines (4), Algeria (4), Belarus (3), Jordan (3), Tunisia (3), Bulgaria (3), New Zealand (3), Azerbaijan (3), Venezuela (3), Slovenia (3), Denmark (3), Sweden (2), Moldova (2), Portugal (3), Israel (2), Georgia (2), Norway (2), Lebanon (2), Croatia (2), Taiwan (3), Latvia (2), Belgium (2), Bolivia (1), Ecuador (1), Oman (1), Tajikistan (1), Uzbekistan (1), Afghanistan (1), Thailand (1), Namibia (1), Bosnia (1), El Salvador (1), Greece (1), Saudi Arabia (1), Cuba (1), Estonia (1), Ireland (1), Guatemala (1), Finland (1), Honduras (1), Kosovo (1), Costa Rica (1), Syria (1), Macedonia (1), Kenya (1), Iraq (1), Kyrgyzstan (1), Austria (1), Malta (1), Vietnam (1)



Figure 4.2. Couchsurfers by country of origin

Analyzing and ranking the Influencing features in trust building on Couchsurfing was another aim of the first section. In the next step, the most important features in trust building on Couchsurfing were identified by using of mean statistics. The findings show that number of references ($\bar{x}=3.93$) was the main factor for trust building. In this relation, having mutual friend(s) was the least important feature for travelers (Table 4.4).

Table 4.4. Means and standard deviations of items of trust building scale (n: 609)

Items	Mean
Host's references.	3.93
Host's self-disclosure information (Host's profile)	3.73
Host's photos.	3.08
Mutual interest(s).	2.81
Host's verified membership.	1.97
Host's number of friends.	1.9
Mutual friend(s).	1.6

Exploring the motivation of Couchsurfers was another aim of this research. The most important motivations for using Couchsurfing during visit Turkey were identified by using of mean statistic. The results indicated that finding an opportunity for intercultural exchange ($\bar{x}=4.17$) was the first drivers of travelers to use Couchsurfing. Meeting new people ($\bar{x}=4.07$) was the second important motivation, followed by having a more meaningful interaction with the hosts ($\bar{x}=3.96$), get to know people from the local neighborhoods ($\bar{x}=3.91$), getting insiders' tips on local attractions ($\bar{x}=3.80$), and finding new friends ($\bar{x}=3.7$). Interestingly, participants reported the statement of "To lower travel cost" as the last motivation to use Couchsurfing (Table 4.5).

Table 4.5. Couchsurfing motivations

Items	Mean	SD
To find an opportunity for intercultural exchange.	4.17	0.893
To meet new people.	4.07	0.882
To have a more meaningful interaction with the hosts.	3.96	0.901
To get to know people from the local neighborhoods.	3.91	1.067
To get insiders' tips on local attractions.	3.8	0.985
To find new friends.	3.7	1.058
To lower travel cost.	3.55	1.015

Response categories: 1: Not at all important, ..., 5: Extremely important

4.2. Hypothesis Testing (Direct effects)

As have been suggested by numbers of scholars (Olson, 1982; Olsson, Troye, & Howell, 1999), in this study for testing the proposed relationships among involvement, familiarity, overall destination image, and behavioral intentions, covariance matrix and the generalized least squares (GLS) method were applied.

The standardized regression weight (β) between involvement in Couchsurfing experience and behavioral intentions was 0.098 ($P = 0.017$) and t value or Critical ratio (C.R) was 2.39 ($t > 1.96$) indicating that involvement in Couchsurfing has a positive direct effect on behavioral intentions at 0.05 significance level. Thus, first hypothesis was supported.

The standardized path value between involvement in Couchsurfing experience and destination familiarity was 0.529 ($P = 0.000$), showing that involvement affects significantly destination familiarity at 0.001 significance level. The higher involvement in peer-to-peer accommodation, the more familiarity with visited destinations. Therefore, Hypothesis two is supported. The results of path analysis on the positive influence of involvement in Couchsurfing on overall destination image, also supported with $C.R = 4.81$ and $\beta = 0.223$. Indicating that, involvement in P2P experience not only can be effective in destination familiarity, but also can lead to more positive and favorable overall image of visited destinations.

Further, results also supported that the destination familiarity ($C.R = 7.71$ & $\beta = 0.367$) and overall destination image ($C.R = 9.32$ & $\beta = 0.436$) have positive influences on behavioral intentions. Based on these, Hypotheses four and five were supported. These results show that a traveler with the high level of familiarity with a destination is more likely to revisit, share more positive EWOM and encourage others to travel his/her visited destination. Additionally, overall positive image toward destinations can raised the probability of revisit intention, positive EWOM and encourage others to travel to the visited destination.

The final direct relationship (hypothesis 6) was related to the positive effect of destination familiarity on the overall destination image. The standardized path value between familiarity and overall destination image was 0.504. In addition, $t\text{-value} = 10.67$ and $P = 0.000$ indicating that familiarity has a positive direct effect on overall destination image (Table 4.6).

Table 4.6. Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis	β	S.E	C.R (t-value)		Supported
H1. Involvement \rightarrow Intentions	0.098	0.48	2.39	0.017	Yes
H2. Involvement \rightarrow Familiarity	0.529	0.60	11.19	0.000	Yes
H3. Involvement \rightarrow Overall Image	0.223	0.68	4.82	0.000	Yes
H4. Familiarity \rightarrow Intentions	0.367	0.43	7.71	0.000	Yes
H5. Overall Image \rightarrow Intentions	0.436	0.37	9.32	0.000	Yes
H6. Familiarity \rightarrow Overall Image	0.504	0.54	10.67	0.000	Yes

4.3. Mediating Effect Testing (Indirect effects)

In addition to the six direct relationships between understudying constructs, it was proposed that relationship between involvement and behavioral intentions is affected by indirect effects of destination familiarity and overall destination image (hypothesis 7 and 8). "An indirect effect occurs when the effect of one variable on a second is mediated, in whole or part, by one or more other intervening variables" (Leth-Steensen & Gallitto, 2016: 339). Generally, there are two types of mediator, namely, "Partial mediator and full or complete mediator"

(Jaccard & Jacoby, 2010: 148). In the full mediator effect, the only way that variable X (in this study: Involvement) can affected variable Y (Behavioral intentions) is through Z (Destination familiarity). In another word, any effect of involvement on intentions is completely mediated by destination familiarity. Therefore, in the presence of familiarity their relationship will be existed otherwise it will be completely broken and become insignificant. In the partial mediating effect, in addition to the impact of variable X on Y through Z, it is also acknowledged that X has an effect on Y. While, finding full mediator is hard, but partial mediator is more usual in the academic researches (Gunzler, Chen, Wu, & Zhang, 2013) (Figure 4.3).

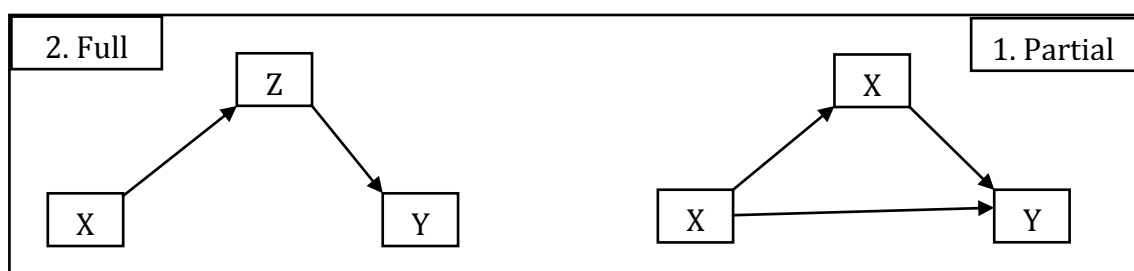


Figure 4.3. Mediators' types

For testing the mediating role of familiarity and overall image on the relationship between involvement and behavioral intention, four principals were applied.

1. The independent must affects mediators (familiarity –overall image) significantly.
2. The mediators must have statistically significant impact on the depended variable (intentions).
3. The independent variable (involvement) must affects depended variable (intentions) significantly.
4. If the impact of independent on outcome become insignificant by entering mediator, the type of mediation is complete mediation. If the direct effect of the independent on dependent variable reduced and remain significant, the type of mediator is partial mediation (Lu, 2015: 234).

In addition, as Awang (2012) suggested for identifying the type of mediation (complete or partial) some other conditions are also required:

5. The results of the hypothesis related to direct relationship between independent variable (in this study, involvement) and dependent variable (behavioral intention) must be insignificant for full mediation and significant for partial mediation.
6. The results of the hypothesis related to independent variable and mediator must be significant (for both types of mediation).
7. The results of the hypothesis related to mediator and dependent variable must be significant (for both types of mediation).

The results of hypothesis seven on analyzing of the mediator role of familiarity on the relationship between involvement and behavioral intentions indicated the partial mediating effect of familiarity. As table 4.5 shows, the direct path from involvement to intention remain significant by entering familiarity to the proposed model. Similarly, results of hypothesis eight also indicated the partial mediating role for overall destination image in the relation between involvement and behavioral intentions since the direct relationship is remain significant after the mediator enters to the proposed model. Additionally, as Awang (2012) suggested the results of the hypotheses related to direct and indirect relationships were also applied. In this step, the results of hypotheses related to the direct path from independent variable (involvement) to the dependent variable (behavioral intentions) and indirect paths from independent to mediators (destination familiarity and overall destination image) and from mediators to dependent variable (behavioral intentions) were analyzed. As table, 4.7 shows all the related hypotheses were supported. Accordingly, the partial mediating effect of destination familiarity and overall destination image were approved.

Table 4.7. Mediating effect testing

Hypothesis (Mediating effects)	Tests	β	S.E	C.R	P	result
H7. Involvement → Familiarity → Intentions	INV→FAM	0.529	0.60	11.19	0.000	significant
	FAM→INT	0.367	0.43	7.71	0.000	significant
	INV→ INT	0.098	0.48	2.39	0.017	Significant
Hypotheses for testing mediator role of familiarity						
Involvement has a positive influence on destination familiarity.						supported
Destination familiarity has a positive influence on behavioral intentions.						supported
Involvement has a positive influence on behavioral intentions.						supported
Type of mediation						Partial
H8. Involvement → Overall image → Intentions	INV→ODI	0.223	0.68	4.82	0.000	significant
	ODI→ INT	0.436	0.37	9.32	0.000	significant
	INV→ INT	0.098	0.48	2.39	0.017	Significant
Hypotheses for testing mediator role of Overall destination image						
Involvement has a positive influence on overall destination image						supported
Overall destination image has a positive influence on behavioral intentions.						supported
Involvement has a positive influence on behavioral intentions.						supported
Type of mediation						Partial

5. Discussion and Conclusion

5.1. Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the impacts of peer-to-peer accommodation on destination through empirically finding out the relationships among involvement in P2P accommodation, destination familiarity, destination overall image, and behavioral intentions. Accordingly, this chapter discusses the key findings related to the relationships among the variables and as well as the tripographics and motivations of travelers using P2P accommodation. Besides the managerial and theoretical implications, recommendations for the future studies are also illustrated.

5.2. Discussion of results

The results indicate that majority of the participants 363 (59.6%) were male and 246 (40.4) were female. It was also found out that majority of the respondents were generation Y (people who was born in 1978 to 1995). One reason for this result can be related to the characteristics of the generation Y. Millennial or “digital natives” (Helsper & Eynon, 2010:87), has grown up with information communication technologies (Lee & Cook, 2015: 675). Accordingly, technology is accepted as a key part of the life of generation Y “whether at home, in the workplace or at leisure” they place a strong emphasis on integration of ICTs with their activities (Zhang, Abound Omran, & Cobanoglu, 2017: 2). In addition to this general characteristic of generation Y, their tripographics might also be good evidence to support the results. “They travel more often, explore more destinations, book more over the internet, they are hungry for experience, hungry for information, and want to get a lot out of their travel” (Kruger & Saayman, 2015: 3).

Moreover, generation Y that experienced financial crisis when they prepare themselves for work (Benckendorff, Moscardo, & Pendergast, 2010: 8) not only made them more conservative in spending, but also changed their attitude toward ownership. They are less sensitive toward ownership. It is what Nelson and Rademacher (2009) called it “From Generation Me to Generation We” (Möhlmann, 2015: 195). The generation Y is the main player and users of social networks (Berthon, Pitt, Plangger, & Shapiro, 2012; Bilgihan, Okumus, & Cobanoglu, 2013; T. (Christina) Zhang et al., 2017) and sharing economy based websites (John, 2013; Pentescu, 2016).

Regarding the level of education, the results of study showed that more than 91% of the participants (556) had a academic degree (collage, undergraduate, and post graduated). As

Chun-yan & Xiao-ping, (2012: 323) indicating that “the knowledge structure, value orientation and psychological character” of travelers with academic degree made them different from the mass tourists. They travel more, their expenditures are lesser, and if they have friend in the visited destination tend to stay more (Lee & King, 2016). Thus, based on the features of Couchsurfing that by decreasing travel costs help travelers to do more travel, visit more destinations and even find local friends, it has become one of the favorite choices for university students. For instance, by 30 August 2017 there were 1791 groups in Couchsurfing give students to find host, travel mate, and organize events.

The findings also indicated that the participants were experienced in peer-to-peer accommodation and other types of accommodations (e.g., hotel, hostel). The findings showed that the majority of the participants (83%) had used Couchsurfing more than two times up to Jun 2017. In this relation, 46 % (281) of the participants reported that they had used Couchsurfing more than 10 times. In addition, the results of Couchsurfing experiences during the visit Turkey indicated that 75.4 % of participants (459) had used Couchsurfing more than one time. Additionally, the participants’ experiences with other types of accommodations (e.g., hotel, hostel), showed that the majority of the participants were had experiences with the traditional type of accommodations. More than 88% (541) of participants stated that in addition to Couchsurfing, during visit a destination they had used different types of accommodations. It is same in Turkey too. The most of participants (386) reported that they had stayed in other types of accommodation (e.g., hotel, hostel).

The results also showed that majority of surfers (64.9%) were solo travelers. In addition, 51% of the participants were repeat visitors and 49% (301) were travelers who visit Turkey for the first time. This result may be accepted as a supportive evidence for the hypotheses (H_1) saying that P2P experiences has a positive influence on revisit intentions. Additionally, based on this result it can be estimated that in the near future, first time surfers revisit Turkey again.

The results of geographical distribution of couchsurfers in Turkey provide a ranking of the 118 most visited destinations (see Figure 4.1). It was in line with our assumption that Couchsurfers tend to travel to multi destinations in the visited countries. Of 609 participants 501 (82%) reported that they have visited more than one city by using Couchsurfing during visit Turkey. Among the visited destinations, Istanbul was at the top of the list of which 80% of the participants (490) reported that had used Couchsurfing during visit Istanbul. With an obvious difference, Izmir (204), Antalya (183), and Ankara (159) were the other top three destinations for Couchsurfers.

The results of analyzing the participants by their country of origin revealed that travelers were distributed among 88 countries. In this relation, travelers from Germany with 53

times, using Couchsurfing during visit Turkey was placed at the first rank. Followed by Ukraine (44), France (43), USA (37), Russia (33), Poland (24), Iran (21), Spain (19), and UK (19). More or less this result is close to the official statistics on the country of origin of travelers to Turkey. Based on the official statistics retrieved by TURSAB, Germany, Georgia, UK, Bulgaria, Iran, Ukraine, Netherlands, Russia, Azerbaijan, Greece, France, Saudi Arabia and USA were the top tourist sending countries to Turkey in 2016.

Previous studies, have suggested drivers for participation in sharing economy. Some scholars claim that economic benefits are the main motivation. For example, Guttentag (2015) acknowledged that financial benefit is the main driver for involvement in the for profit peer-to-peer accommodation (e.g., Airbnb, HomeAway, FlipKey). Bardhi & Eckhardt (2012) who study Zipcar as one of the leading car-sharing platform also identified economic motivation as the key factor for participation in the sharing economy. However, some scholars suggested that environmental drivers underlie sharing economy involvement. For instance, Piscicelli, Cooper, & Fisher, (2015: 1) by criticizing the “over-consumption and a throw-away culture” suggested sharing economy as the “alternative and more sustainable ways of consuming”. In addition to the economic and environmental drivers, Tussyadiah (2015) in the case of P2P accommodation claim that social motivations (e.g., interact with local host) are the booster of sharing economy participation.

Given the diversity of sharing economy platforms (see Figure 2.1), Böcker & Meelen (2017) acknowledged that motivations for involvement in the sharing economy are not “uniform”. Generally, profit (economic benefits) mainly acknowledged as the main motivation for involvement in the monetary based sharing. However, for the non-monetary sharing (e.g., Couchsurfing) the motivations are less obvious. In fact, travelers who just look for a free accommodation are not very welcomed by members (Karmann, 2012). Accordingly, surfers are more interested in making interactions with the local hosts (Jung et al., 2016:2862). Besides, making new friends (Pietilä & Outi, 2011), desire to know or learn about other cultures, exploring destinations by help of locals (Jingqi Liu, 2012a) are other suggested motivations for travelers to use Couchsurfing.

In line with the previous study (Pietilä, 2011), the results of this study indicated that finding an opportunity for intercultural exchange ($\bar{x}=4.17$) was the first drivers of travelers to use Couchsurfing. Meeting new people ($\bar{x}=4.07$) was the second important motivation, followed by having a more meaningful interaction with the hosts ($\bar{x}=3.96$), get to know people from the local neighborhoods ($\bar{x}=3.91$), getting insiders' tips on local attractions ($\bar{x}=3.80$), and finding new friends ($\bar{x}=3.7$). Followed by these social-cultural drivers, participants reported economic factor “To lower travel cost” as the last motivation for using Couchsurfing. Based on this result,

it can be concluded that social and cultural factors are the main drivers for involvement in Couchsurfing.

Generally, people who participate in the collaborative consumption of goods, services, or experiences do not know each other. Therefore, most of the previous studies suggested trust as a key factor for surviving the sharing economy platforms (Geiger, Horbel, & Germelmann, 2017; Gibbs, Guttentag, Gretzel, Morton, & Goodwill, 2017). Accordingly, sharing economy-based platforms introduced mechanisms that allow users to build trust. Dependent to the type of platforms, different mechanisms have been offered. For example, Airbnb used the mutual review system, photos, social connection (e.g., Facebook, LinkedIn), government ID, and phone number. In this direction, Ert, Fleischer, & Magen (2016) showed that host's photo has a positive impact on trust building in Airbnb. Additionally, the positive effect of reviews on trust building also have been identified by scholars (Bridges & Vásquez, 2016; Oskam & Boswijk, 2016).

In addition to above-mentioned mechanisms, Couchsurfing use some other trust builder mechanisms; such as self-disclosure information, verified membership, number of friends. More recently, they add mutual friend(s) and mutual interest(s) to their platform. Liu, Nie, & Li (2016) acknowledged that along with homogeneity and reciprocity, Couchsurfing's trust systems were successfully a help to build mutual trust. Recently, Decrop, Del Chiappa, Mallargé, & Zidda (2017) suggested that "Value homophily" also has been effective in reducing "uncertainty and increase trust between strangers" on Couchsurfing. According to them "Value homophily refers to the human propensity to associate with others who think in similar ways, regardless of differences in status". More or less same as previous study on trust in peer-to-peer accommodation, the results of our study also indicated that host's references, self-disclosure information, host's photos, and mutual interest(s) were the main four factors for travelers to trust hosts. Almost, all the participants (except 11 participants) stated the primary importance of references on their decision. However, as Liu (2012) identified, verified membership was reported as less important factor for travelers. It implies that couchsurfers don't believe that a member without verification is less reliable than the individuals who are verified.

In addition to the above discussed aims (e.g., tripographic characteristics of surfers, motivations and the important factors in trust building between Couchsurfing users), study was specifically looking to analysis the structural relations among involvement, destination familiarity, overall destination image, and behavioral intentions. Even though the constructs are widely accepted strategy for destination marketing, no empirical evidences are available to show the impacts of involvement in peer-to-peer accommodation on destination. For example, Lee, Scott, & Kim (2008) in their study about the celebrity involvement and its effects on destinations familiarity, image, and visitation intentions, acknowledged that celebrity

involvement has positive effects on destination familiarity and visitation intentions. In addition, they showed that destination images and familiarity were significantly related to visit intention.

While during the last decade, sharing economy has attracted considerable attention in the different settings. For instance; education (Nygren and Carlson, 2017), technology (Kini, 2002), financing (Tomczak and Brem, 2013), transportation (Watanabe, Naveed, and Neittaanmäki, 2016), marketing (Herbert and Collin-Lachaud, 2016), and tourism (Cheng, 2016b; Richard and Cleveland, 2016). The most of these studies, especially tourism related studies have mainly concentrated on motivation/drivers, and trust (Ert, Fleischer, and Magen, 2016b; Liu and Mattila, 2017). By passing the first waves of sharing economy in tourism, the focus of new studies are going to shift toward its impacts (Cheng, 2016a). Among the studies on the impacts of sharing economy development on tourism, the impacts of P2P accommodation on hotels, travel patterns and employments are main trends. It seems that research on the impacts of P2P on destination and more specifically impacts of involvement in the peer-to-peer experiences on destination image, familiarity and behavioral intentions have not been investigated yet. Accordingly, in order to analysis the relationships between latent variable (involvement in P2P experience) and observed variables (destination familiarity, overall destination image, and behavioral intentions) eight hypothesis were developed. Among them, six hypotheses were aimed to test the direct relationships and two for test the mediation effects.

The first hypothesis of the study was to analysis the relationship between involvements in the peer-to-peer accommodation experiences on behavioral intentions. More specifically, investigating the impacts of involvement on revisiting Turkey, positive (e) word-of-mouth about Turkey, and invite friends to visit Turkey were the main aims of this hypothesis.

The standardized regression weight (β) between involvement in Couchsurfing experience and behavioral intentions was 0.098 ($P = 0.017$) and t value or Critical ratio (C.R) was 2.39 ($t > 1.96$) indicating that involvement in Couchsurfing has a positive direct effect on behavioral intentions at 0.05 significance level. Thus, first hypothesis was supported. As mentioned above there is no study, in which the impact of involvement on behavior intentions in the field of P2P accommodation has been empirically tested. Thus, we cannot compare the result with previous studies. However, if we take studies in the different settings, research findings show parallelism at a certain degree with previous studies (Hu, 2003; Sun, Chi, & Xu, 2013).

The standardized path value between involvement in Couchsurfing experience and destination familiarity was 0.529 ($p < 0.0001$), showing that involvement affects significantly destination familiarity. The higher involvement in peer-to-peer accommodation, the more probability resulted in to the increased familiarity with visited destinations. This result can be discussed through the nature of P2P accommodation platforms, which allow travelers to stay

with local and receive first hand and deeper insights and tips about destinations, participation in the more activities, travel more, and stay longer in the visited destinations (Tussyadiah & Pesonen, 2015). This situations finally would be resulted in rich, first-hand, and increased information on visited destinations. In this relation, as previous studies indicated the increased information ultimately accelerate destination familiarity (Lee, Scott, and Kim, 2008). Indeed, the relationship between participating in the various activities and familiarity with the destination (Lee et al., 2008), conversation with local people and DF (Jeong, 2009), and the importance of the length of stay and DF are also confirmed. Based on these findings, it can be said that the outcome of involvement in the collaborative experience of Couchsurfing that allows travelers not only to stay and to make conversation with locals, but also to enjoy like a local would be awareness, knowledge development and destination familiarity.

The findings of the study also revealed that involvement in Couchsurfing has positive impact on overall destination image. This finding supports the existing literature that have acknowledged the positive influence of involvement on the image. For example Sun et al., (2013) by review of the literature have shown the positive relations between involvement and positive image: traveler who have high level of involvement with destination have more positive image. In the field of P2P accommodation, this finding can be discussed trough the high involvement of travelers with the visited destinations, which is facilitated by the peer-to-peer accommodation platforms such as Couchsurfing. Travelers, who use Couchsurfing, tend to visit multi cities in a country, participate in more activities, and stay longer in the visited destinations. It might be said that couchsurfing creates an environment providing the travelers to create their own experiences. Travelers involvement in the experience co-creation in a close relationship with the local people make their experiences more enjoyable and make them emotionally attached to the visited destinations. As previous studies showed, there is a direct links between experience co-creation and destination attachment (Suntikul & Jachna, 2016: 278). Travelers' feeling of destination attachment "reinforce the emotional connections with places, making them attractive" (Silva, Kastenholz, & Abrantes, 2013:18), and builds positive image toward destinations (Li & Bihu, 2013: 165).

Further, results also supported that the destination familiarity ($C.R= 7.71$ & $\beta=0.367$) has positive influences on behavioral intentions. This finding indicated that a traveler with the high level of familiarity with a destination is more likely to revisit, share more positive EWOM and encourage others to travel his/her visited destination. As previous studies acknowledged, familiarity by decreasing perceived risk (Ha, 2002) and trust building (Kim, Ferrin, & Rao, 2008: 555) toward a product/brand plays an important role in the future purchasing intention (Benedicktus, Brady, Darke, and Voorhees, 2010: 322). Similarity, in the field of tourism and destination familiarity by enhancing knowledge of travelers about destination positively

contributes in “providing them a feeling of security and comfort, which leads to increased confidence in their destination choice” (Lee et al., 2008: 816). Additionally, it can be said that destination familiarity rise the EWOM. As the results of study showed, travelers who used Couchsurfing generally tend to visit more destinations in a country. Because the main users of P2P accommodation are millennial or digital natives, they generally tend to share EWOM about their experiences in the visited destination. Accordingly, not only raise the awareness about visited country, but also by their EWOM motivated friends and relatives to travel to the visited country. It has been supported by the previous study that EWOM has a positive influence on travel intention (Mohammed Abubakar, 2016: 598).

The positive influence of overall destination image on behavioral intentions also approved (C.R= 9.32 & $\beta=0.436$). Based on this result it can be said that destination overall image can raised the probability of revisit intention, positive EWOM and encourage others to travel to the visited destinations. Revisit intention is relevant to traveler’s willingness to travel to the same destination again. Prior researches approved that the overall image of a destination positively influenced the intention to revisit a destination (Hallmann, Zehrer, & Müller, 2015: 97). The findings of the previous studies indicated that for travelers who have positive and favorable image toward the visited destinations, experience quality is important. This situation “in turn would lead to a higher satisfaction level and stronger behavioral intentions” (Chen & Funk, 2010: 245-246). In this context, Kim (2017: 1) stated the memorable experience as “the most influential determinant of behavioral intentions”, involving revisit intention and WOM. Accordingly, positive influence of overall destination image on intention can be supported through the power of peer-to-peer accommodation to create memorable experience by allowing travelers to active participation in designing their experiences in interaction with local people.

Finally, it was proposed that indirect effects of destination familiarity and overall destination image (Hypothesis 7 and 8) affect relationship between involvement and behavioral intentions. The results demonstrated that destination familiarity and overall destination image play partial mediating role between involvement in collaborative experience of Couchsurfing and behavioral intentions. In this relation, the direct path from involvement to behavioral intentions remain significant by entering each of familiarity or overall destination image to the proposed model. Thus, travelers highly involving in destinations by collaborative experience, is likely to be more effective in behavioral intentions through destination familiarity and building more positive overall image toward the visited destinations. This finding indicates that an increased familiarity and positive overall image will help to lead the involvement in collaborative experience into behavioral intentions.

5.3. Implications

Based on the findings and discussions, theoretical and managerial implications are discussed in this section.

5.3.1. Theoretical Implications

From a theoretical standpoint, the findings of this study provided some empirical evidences for the involvement in the collaborative experience, destination familiarity, destination overall image, and behavioral intentions (revisit intention, EWOM, and invite others to visit). While these constructs are the widely accepted strategy for destination marketing, but up to conduct this study, researcher did not come across any research that empirically tested the impacts of involvement in peer-to-peer accommodation on destination (e.g., destination familiarity, overall destination image, and behavioral intentions). During the last decade, sharing economy and especially P2P accommodation have attracted considerable attention in different settings. Most of them have mainly concentrated on motivation/drivers, and trust. Accordingly, this study by testing the relationships between latent variable (involvement in P2P experience) and observed variables (destination familiarity, overall destination image, and behavioral intentions) can establish empirical evidences, shed more light on literature, and contribute to knowledge development about the impacts of sharing economy and especially P2P accommodation on destination.

5.3.2. Managerial Implications

In addition to the theoretical implications, the results of this study can be useful for destination marketers and traditional accommodations. The findings highlighted the importance of collaborative experiences or experience co-creation for new age tourism. "New tourists" are more care about environment, local culture, and "looking to experience and learn rather than merely stand back and gaze"(Cecilia, Elisabeta, & Magdalena, 2011: 245). In order to effectively respond to these shifts in the tourism market, ministry of culture and tourism of Turkey need to divert its concentration and marketing activities from focusing on basic attractions (e.g., historical sites, natural attractions) to experiential tourism and provide an environment that travelers can co-create their own experiences.

The result of a study on the projected image of Turkey showed that ministry of culture and tourism of Turkey has not adopted this strategy yet. Çakıcı, Kuhzady, & Benli (2017) by analysing 2159 photos of the official Instagram page of Turkey (@Turkey_Home) showed that

ministry of culture and tourism typically relying on natural appealing and archaeological heritages to promote and projected destination image of Turkey. Additionally, during the last year by rising terrorist attacks and some political problem, Turkey perceived negative media coverage and even some countries such as the USA ("Turkey Travel Warning," 2017) and Germany (Kenza Bryan, 2017) warned their citizens for the risk of traveling to Turkey. This situation has raised the perceived risk and build negative image toward Turkey. Consequently, Turkey experienced remarkable decline in tourist arrivals and tourism revenue (Hurriyet, 2017). As the results of this study indicated, collaborative experiences have a potential to decrease perceived risk, increase destination familiarity, build positive destination image, accelerate revisit intention and positive EWOM. Accordingly, developing of P2P accommodation in Turkey, not only can be effective strategy to decrease perceived risk, but also can recover the favorable image of Turkey as a tourism destination.

The sharing economy and specifically P2P accommodations by support of technology are growing remarkably. They have shaken up the traditional accommodations, such as hotel and hostels. Accordingly, in order to proactive planning and effective management of this growing phenomenon, they need to be sensitive about it. Successful reaction toward sharing economy and specially P2P accommodation require deeper understanding of their impacts and dimensions.

The first reaction of hotel industry toward P2P accommodation was to see it as a temporary phenomenon but by seeing the remarkable demands for peer-to-peer accommodations, they found that P2P accommodation platforms are here to stay. The hotel industry has begun to fight and hold back the waves, through lobbying and politicians. However, it seems that lobbying, as a conventional marketing technique will not be able to have remarkable effects on the demand for P2P accommodation. Moreover, distributing messages about the negative experiences with P2P accommodation and offering some concerns such as trust issues are another adopted strategy by hotel industry to compete with P2P accommodation. As the result of this study indicated, P2P platforms by support of technology and trust building mechanism (e.g., reference/ review) have overcome this issue.

To defense against disruptive P2P platforms, it is vital for traditional accommodations to embrace change and understanding their innovative ideas. In opposite of past, only offering rooms would not make competitive advantages. As the findings of study showed, experiences are more important for new travelers. Accordingly, hotels need to divert their focus from room to authentic, local and memorable experiences. Investment of the hotel industry in the sharing economy disrupters' platforms although can be effective reaction.

5.4. Recommendation for future study

The present study was an attempt to explore the impacts of involvement in collaborative experience on destinations through testing the relationship between couchsurfers' involvement, destination familiarity, overall destination image, and behavioral intentions. The study was limited to free (non-monetary) peer-to-peer accommodation. Thus, to get deeper insight, further research is recommended to apply the purposed model for the monetary based P2P accommodation platforms.

Conducting comparative study between monetary based P2P accommodation (e.g., Airbnb) and non-monetary (e.g., Couchsurfing) for different destinations also would have increased the generalizability of the results. Furthermore, making comparison between effects of stay in traditional accommodations and P2P accommodations on destination also can contribute in developing more insight on effectiveness of P2P accommodations.

Moreover, the current study was adopted overall destination image to operationalized destination image. It seems that including other types of destination image such as cognitive, affective and conative could provide more insight into the results related to destination image and its relationships with other constructs.

Due to experiencing some problems during the collection data, it would be better for future study to do initial research on the policies of P2P platforms. For instance, if they allow to send direct message to large number of users (in Couchsurfing even verified member are asked not to distribute online questionnaire through direct email).

5.5. Limitations of research

Limitations are influences or systematic bias that are out of researcher's control and can impose restrictions on methodology and results (Price & Murnan, 2004: 66). In contrast, a delimitation is a limitation that researcher intentionally introduced to a study. As Bloomberg & Volpe (2015) noted, "no research is without limitations". Accordingly, despite the contributions made and the comprehensive approach adopted, the findings of this study should still be viewed in the light of a number of limitations that also can provide opportunities and guidelines for the future studies.

- Designing questionnaires in only one language (English) could place some impacts on the results, but due to the diversity of travelers' nationality, it was nearly impossible to design multi language survey. However, the authors believe that they were able to identify members with acceptable level of English language to fill out the survey. The results of clarity and understandability of survey can be a good evidence for proving our claim.

- Adopting of purposive sampling could be considered as another limitation of this study. While, according to scholars applying of purposive sampling could rise the sampling bias, but applying above mentioned criteria in the pilot study derived researchers that using purposive sampling not only doesn't led to sampling bias but also rise the response rate. For example, during pilot study, 30 surveys distributed among surfers who had logged in more than two months and interestingly, no response received.

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Attachment

Questionnaire

Dear ...,

As a member of couchsurfing network, I do need your valuable help. I am a PhD student of Tourism Management at Mersin University. For my dissertation, I am going to study the impacts of Couchsurfing experiences on destinations. Based on your Couchsurfing profile, you have been intentionally identified as a key person to be a participant for this study. I am sure your valuable experiences can be helpful to scientifically explore the importance of our amazing community **-Couchsurfing-** that has brought so many memorable experiences into our lives. I hope that results from this study can provide more insights about the importance of our community and help improve Couchsurfing around the world.

The survey is web-based and user-friendly. I would greatly appreciate if you could complete the brief questionnaire that it should take **approximately 5 minutes** to complete. If you have any questions, please feel free to contact me directly by Couchsurfing.

Thank you for your valuable participation. Following is my **Couchsurfing profile link**; if you have any plan to visit **Mersin-Turkey**, it will be my pleasure to host you. **<https://www.couchsurfing.com/people/salarkuhzadi>**

Sincerely,

Salar Kuhzady

PhD Student of Tourism Management

Mersin University-Turkey

TRIOGRAPHICS

- 1. **Gender:** Male Female
- 2. **Age group:** 18-22 23-36 37-52 53-71
- 3. **Country:**
- 4. **Education level:** Primary school High school College (associate degree) Undergraduate (Bachelor degree) Postgraduate
- 5. **Did you use other types of accommodation establishments (e.g., hotel, hostel) wherever you visited?** Yes No
- 6. **How many times did you use Couchsurfing up to this date in 2017?**
 1-2 3-5 6-10 More than 10
- 7. **Who usually accompanied with you in your Couchsurfing trip?**
 Friends Solo Family
- 8. **How many times did you come to Turkey?**
- 9. **Did you use other types of accommodation establishments (e.g., hotel, hostel) when you visited Turkey?** Yes No
- 10. **How many times did you use Couchsurfing during visit Turkey? ...**
- 11. **Which cities did you visit in Turkey by using Couchsurfing?**
 Istanbul Ankara Izmir Antalya others, please specify.....

12. Specify to what extent are the following factors important for you when seeking a host and before sending a request.

Factors	Not at all important	Slightly important	Moderately important	Very important	Extremely important
12.1. Host's references.					
12.2. Host's number of friends.					
12.3. Host's photos.					
12.4. Host's verified membership.					
12.5. Host's self-disclosure information (Host's profile).					
12.6. Mutual interest(s).					
12.7. Mutual friend(s).					

13. To what extent are the following factors important when you use Couchsurfing?

Reasons	Not at all important	Slightly important	Moderately important	Very important	Extremely important
13.1. To get to know people from the local neighborhoods.					
13.2. To have a more meaningful interaction with the hosts.					
13.3. To get insiders' tips on local attractions.					
13.4. To lower travel cost.					
13.5. To find an opportunity for intercultural exchange.					
13.6. To meet new people.					
13.7. To find new friends.					

14. To what extent do you agree with the following statements related to Couchsurfing?

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
14.1. In contrast with my previous experiences with other types of accommodation, Couchsurfing experience is more important for me.					
14.2. In contrast with my previous experiences with other types of accommodation, Couchsurfing experience is of great concern for me.					
14.3. In contrast with my previous experiences with other types of accommodation, Couchsurfing experience means a lot for me.					
14.4. In contrast with my previous experiences with other types of accommodation, Couchsurfing experience is more significant for me.					
14.5. In contrast with my previous experiences with other types of accommodation, Couchsurfing experience matters a lot for me.					

15. To what extent do you agree with the following statements related to the impacts of Couchsurfing on your familiarity with destination?

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
15.1. Couchsurfing experience allowed me to be more familiar with Turkey.					
15.2. Couchsurfing experience allowed me to get to know local people better in Turkey.					
15.3. Couchsurfing experience (staying with locals) improved my information about tourism attractions in Turkey.					
15.4. Couchsurfing helped me to be more aware of the visited destination(s).					
15.5. My friends and family told me that I know Turkey very well; I think Couchsurfing was effective in shaping this idea about me.					

16. To what extent do you agree with the following statements related to the impacts of Couchsurfing on your destination image?

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
16.1. Using Couchsurfing to travel to Turkey builds a more favorable image of Turkey.					
16.2. Using Couchsurfing to travel to Turkey builds a more positive image of Turkey.					
16.3. Using Couchsurfing to travel to Turkey builds a more preferable image of Turkey.					

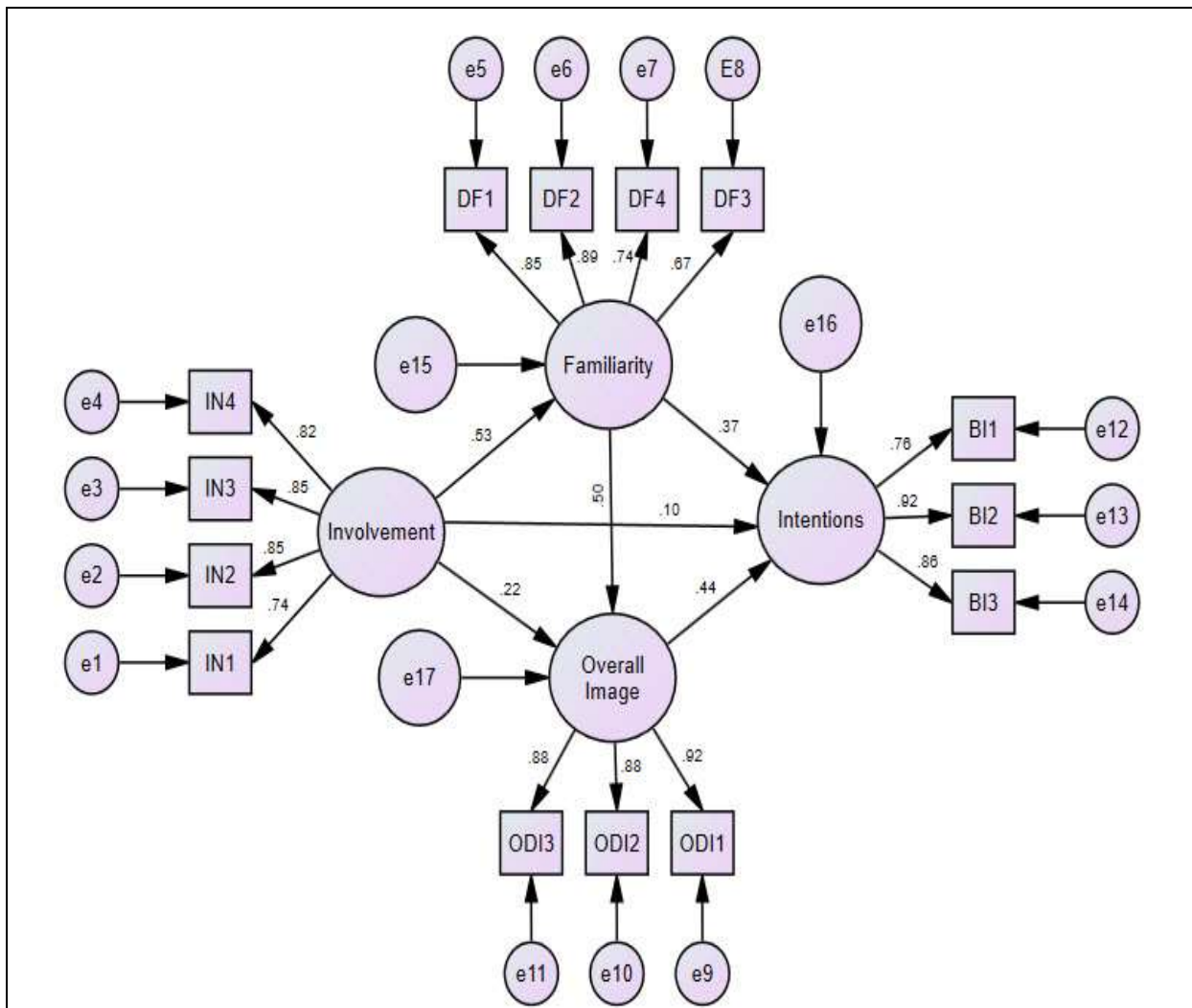
17. To what extent do you agree with the following statements related to the impacts of Couchsurfing on your behavioral intentions?

Statements	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree
17.1. Assuming my current circumstances remain the same, I will choose to come to Turkey again by Couchsurfing.					
17.2. Due to my memorable couchsurfing experiences, I will share positive things about the visited destinations in Turkey.					
17.3. Due to my memorable couchsurfing experiences, I will encourage my friends and/or family to visit Turkey sometime.					

18. Was the language used clear and easily understandable? (Please select one option)

- Very clear, I understood all questions ()
- I could understand nearly all questions ()
- Totally unclear ()
- Some questions were not clear to me, please specify ()

Model Output



CV

Name, surname: **Salar Kuhzady**
 Date of birth: **18.10.1985**
 E-mail: **s.kuhzadi@gmail.com**

Academic degree

<i>Degree</i>	<i>Department</i>	<i>University</i>	<i>Year</i>
Bachelor	Tourism Management	Allameh Tabatabaiee,	2005-2009
Master	Geography and Urban planning	University of Chamran	2009-2011
Ph.D.	Tourism Management	University of Mersin	2013-2017

Publications

Journals

- Hall, P., Seyfi,S., and Kuhzady,S (2017) Tourism and Hospitality on Iran: Current State and Perspective, Journal of Tourism Geographies
- Sever,S., Sever, N.G., and Kuhzady, S (2015) The Evaluation of Potentials of Gamification in Tourism Marketing Communication, International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences, Volume 5, Issue 10.
- Izadi,P., Ebrahimzade, I., and Kuhzady,S (2015) Strategic Planning of Sustainable Development of Eco tourism with Applied of Combined SWOT and ANP, Geographical Planning of Space Journal, Volume 5, Issue 15.
- Movahed, A., Kuhzady,S., and Abdinzadeh, F (2014) Ecotourism Development Strategies with applied of SWOT and QSPM, Journal of Applied research in Geographical Sciences, Spring 2014, Vol. 14, No. 32.
- Movahed, A., and Kuhzady,S (2011) Tourism Development Approaches with SWOT Technic, Journal of Geography and Urban Planning, Azad university of Marvdasht.
- Kuhzady,S., and Rasouli, N (2011) Content analysis of Iran’s hotel reservation websites based on single approach window, tow weekly journal of Miras Iranian, volume 30 .
- Kuhzady,S., and Dolatshah, S (2012), Strategic planning of development of ecotourism in Iran, tow weekly journal of Miras Iranian, volume 37.

Conferences

- Kuhzady, S., and Benli, S (2017), Toward A New Paradigm in Sustainable Tourism, Sustainable Tourism Conference, University of Kastamonu, Kastamonu-Turkey.
- Kuhzady, S., Ghasemi, V., and Hashemi, S (2017) Guests are drivers and data is Fuel, what about hotels? 9th World Conference for Graduate Research in Tourism, Hospitality and Leisure, Cartagena, Spain.

- Kuhzady, S., Ghasemi, V., and Hashemi, S (2017) Pictorial Analysis of the Projected Destination Image: Portugal on Instagram, Advances in Tourism Marketing Conference, Casablanca-Morocco.
- Yagci, M.I., Kuhzady,S., Balik, Z., and Öztürk., L (2017), In Search of Consumer's Black Box: A Bibliometric Analysis of Neuromarketing Researches, 22nd Marketing conference, Karadeniz University, Trabzon-Turkey.
- Çakici, C., Kuhzady, S., and Benli, S (2017) An Image Is Worth A Thousand Words: A Pictorial Analysis of Projected Destination Image of Turkey on Instagram, The First International Congress On Future Of Tourism: Innovation, Entrepreneurship And Sustainability (Futourism), Mersin-Turkey.
- Hashemi, S., Marzuki, A., Kiumarsi, S., Ghasemi, V., and Kuhzady, S (2017) Knowledge sharing behavior: Empirical findings from international conventions in Malaysia, MDSG Conference, Bali-Indonesia.
- Kuhzady, S (2016) What Do We (Not) Know About Service Quality in Tourism and Hospitality? A bibliometric analysis, 1st International Conference of Service Quality in Hospitality and Tourism: Experiencing Persian Heritage, Isfahan-Iran.
- Koçak N.G., Kuhzady S., and Öztürk., L (2016) Sentiment Analysis of Peer-to-peer Accommodation Apps on Google Play(Couchsurfing, AIRBNB and Homeaway), Smart Tourism Conference, University of Barcelona, Barcelona-Spain.
- Sever, N.G., and Kuhzady, S (2016) A New Age for Tourism Marketing: Transition of Communication Flow from B2c to C2C: A Lasswellian Framework, 6th International Scientific Conference of Iranian Academics in Turkey-Ankara, Turkey
- Kuhzady, S (2014) The Importance of a Single Window System in Tourism (case study: Iran), 4th International Scientific Conference of Iranian Academics in Turkey
- Kuhzady, S (2014) Strategic planning for development of Sport Tourism in Iran, III. Eastern Mediterranean tourism symposium "sports tourism", Mersin University- Turkey
- Sever, N.G., and Kuhzady (2014) Smartly Designing of Tourism Experience in the Conceptual age, New Perspectives in Tourism and Hospitality Management conference, Balikesir, Turkey
- Sever, N.G., and Kuhzady, S (2015) The Accessibility Evaluation of Official Tourism Website of TURKEY, Avrasya congresi,Selçuk Üniversitesi, Konya, Turkey
- Dolatshah,S., Tolloa Behbood,M., and Kuhzady,S (2012) Relationship between Iran's architecture identity and modernism with emphasize on recent decades, urban design theory& practice in Iran science the late 1950s conference, Sanandaj university , sanandaj- iran
- Kuhzady,S., and Rasouli, N (2011) The role of systematic approach in effectives tourism management, systematic approach conference, Shiraz- Iran
- Zargam,H., Rasouli,N and Kuhzady,S (2011), Role of local participant in sustainable tourism development(case study: developing countries), sustainable tourism conference, Islamic university of Azad of Hamedan- Iran

Interests

Tourism marketing, Marketing Communication, E-tourism, strategic marketing, Sharing Economy, Experience design, Gamification, Social Media, Data Mining, Data Visualization.