PROCEEDINGS

Corporate Chair in Wine & Tourism
— EM Strasbourg Business School —

1st International Research Workshop on Wine tourism :

Challenges and futures perspectives

27-28th June 2019
Strasbourg, Alsace, France

With the support of

AFMAT
Association Francophone de MAnagement du Tourisme

Friday, June 28th, 2019
Field Trip to the Alsace Vineyards

8.30am : Departure from @the Golden Tulip

10 - 11.30am : Domaine Bott Frères, Ribeauvillé
https://www.bott-freres.fr/en/

11.30-12 am : Discovering scenic views of the Alsace Wine Road

12am : Château de la Confrérie Saint Etienne, Kientzheim
http://confrerie-st-etienne.com/fr/

- 12 to 1.30pm : Lunch time in the Garden
- 1.30 to 2.30 : Visit of the wine museum and walking tour in the village
- 2.30 to 4pm : “Dégustation solennelle”
- **Best Paper Award** - Official introduction as Confrerie Saint Etienne Ambassadors

4 to 5.30pm : Transfert back to Strasbourg

5.30pm : two possible stops

- Strasbourg Central Train Station
- @the Golden Tulip

Good byes and crying :-)

Table of content

Wine and scenic beauty – perfect pairing: Perceptions of wine landscapes by U.S. Millennials

Natalia Velikova*
Texas Tech University
Lubbock, TX USA
natalia.velikova@ttu.edu

Matthew J. Bauman
Texas Tech University
Lubbock, TX USA
matthew.j.bauman@ttu.edu

Sarah Timmons
Texas Tech University
Lubbock, TX USA
sarah.timmons@ttu.edu

* Corresponding author

Introduction

It has been well established in wine tourism literature that tourists visiting wine regions are interested in more than just tasting wine. They want to experience regional history and values; they want to feel how the wine reflects its natural and cultural place of origin. They want to come away with a greater understanding and appreciation for winemaking and viticulture of the region. In other words, tourists want a broad-based, authentic, layered experience which will be memorable long after the wine has been tasted. A winery's physical landscape, in combination with the constructed environment (structures of the winery) are integral to the overall impression of the winery, the wine itself, and the experience gained and taken away afterward. The current study aims to add to the literature in this field by exploring these ideas more deeply. Specifically, this conference paper – although a brief introduction to the topic – seeks to delve into a role of winery landscapes in the visitor's evoked, expected, and remembered experience.

1. Contextual Setting

Destination scenery has been found to profoundly influence tourists' perceptions of a destination (e.g., Echtner & Ritchie, 1991; Nadeau et al., 2008). Furthermore, aesthetically appealing landscapes are an integral 'pull' factor that attracts tourists to visit a destination (Cutler & Carmichael, 2010).

Wine tourism, in particular, relies on the appealing nature of the aesthetic physical environment for attracting tourists (Brown & Getz, 2005; Carmichael, 2005; Bruwer & Alant, 2009). Bruwer and Alant (2009) found that the most highly rated regional characteristic of both first-time and repeat tourists was the "scenery and landscape, views, mountains," (p. 251). Brown and Getz (2005) demonstrated the importance of the natural landscape in attracting and motivating tourists to engage in wine tourism. Similarly, Carmichael (2005) found that the rural landscape was rated as being a highly important factor in positively influencing visitor enjoyment. Ultimately, there is consensus amongst scholars that the aesthetic appeal of a destinations landscape is a critical experiential factor for tourists.

The U.S. millennial generational cohort has received much attention in the past couple of decades from both academia and the wine industry alike for being the next promising wine consuming cohort after the baby boomers. In reality, however, recent trends have demonstrated that millennials are not drinking as much wine as expected. Various reasons are speculated - from competition from craft beer and cocktails to the continued legalization of recreational cannabis in several states (McMillian, 2019). While there is an impetus to foster increased wine consumption amongst millennials, there is an even greater need to encourage millennials to engage in wine tourism, especially since the majority of small-to-medium sized U.S. wine producers rely on the direct-to-consumer sales channel (i.e., tasting room sales, wine club memberships) for selling wine (McMillian, 2019). Although prior wine tourism literature has demonstrated the importance of a destinations landscape, previous research has yet to specifically investigate millennials perceptions of the aesthetic wine landscape. Thus, the purpose of this study is to gain insights into younger tourists' preferences and attitudes towards wine landscapes.

2. Method

2. 1. Sample

The data were gathered from two studies examining millennials' attitudes towards wine landscapes. The samples were drawn from the students enrolled in wine business classes at a large U.S. southwestern university. The reason for recruiting students was for the sample to be representative of younger wine consumers with at least marginal interest in wine. Demographic data collected showed that all participants belonged to the generational cohort of millennials and the vast majority visited at least one winery in the past.

2. 2. Data Collection

Both studies were qualitative in nature – Study 1 was based on 17 individual interviews; Study 2 incorporated an open-ended online survey of 40 respondents and follow-up group discussions with the same participants. Crucially, both studies incorporated visual methodologies (photo elicitation) for two major reasons. First, due to the proliferation of the internet and multimedia technologies, today's world is becoming increasingly saturated with visual simulations; and younger consumers – the targeted population for this research – are most susceptible to the visual content. Secondly, the topic under investigation is largely visual; thus the researchers' expectation was that by incorporating photo elicitation, different layers of data meaning can be discovered.

The key difference between the ways of integrating visual methods into the two studies was the source of visual stimuli. For Study 1, each participant was asked to choose three photos of landscapes that appeal to them and bring them to the interview. The participant-generated photos prompted more comprehensive discussions during the interviews as the photos evoked deep emotions, stories, and ideas based on latent memories.

For Study 2, participants were introduced to five (5) researcher-initiated photos of wine landscapes that were offered for participants' analysis. The photos were selected to be representative of different wine landscapes – from traditional farming to modern landscapes. Generally speaking, a landscape includes natural/physical elements, such as mountains, rivers, or vegetation, as well as man-made features, such as buildings or structures. Thus, to control for ecological validity of the study, conscious effort was made to select photos illustrating different types of buildings (wineries), namely château, modern, traditional, rustic, and urban. To overcome the possible effect of fatigue and repetition, 40 participants were randomly broken into groups of eight (8) and asked to provide their response to only one photo – first, in an open-ended online survey and then in a follow-up group discussion.

2. 3. Data analysis

The data were audio-taped and transcribed. Comparative pattern analysis was employed. First, the researchers independently analyzed the data to capture emerging themes. The developed common themes were subjected for cross-validation by the coordinating researcher and a list of conclusions was developed. Next, the researchers met to discuss the findings; the themes were revised and further refined. This two-stage approach offered a high level of investigator triangulation and allowed for several layers of discovery in the material. The themes were classified into content areas expended on in the discussion that follows. Exemplary verbatim quotations (either ideas repeatedly emerging or especially illuminating ones) are included to highlight the points being made. For the purposes of this conference paper, the discussion is limited to only four, most prominent, themes discovered.

4. Findings and discussion

4.1 Expectations of experience

Perhaps the most representative theme that emerged in both studies was the notion that a landscape almost immediately evokes an expectation of the *experience* at the winery. The experience can be different – pleasant, casual, relaxing, welcoming (or not). For example, modern and traditional buildings and their corresponding landscapes were perceived as offering a friendly, hospitable atmosphere at the winery, offering a "*jeans- and sweater- kind of experience*", which most respondents appreciated:

"It feels welcoming; it's like going to someone's house"
"A place to bring a dog and hang out with friends"

On the contrary, reacting to a landscape picturing a château winery, participants expected their experience to be sophisticated but also intimidating to a degree, which is likely to be due to the natural lack of wine knowledge and wine tourism experience among young consumers:

"I feel like I need to take classes before I can visit this place"
"It makes me feel small"
"This looks too big to me"

Yet, regardless of the building type and the landscape features, the impression of the experience is formed almost instantly. In terms of the *desired* experience, virtually all participants wanted to have a relaxing, peaceful, calm, and tranquil time at the winery. Many stories associated with the participant-selected photos revealed that childhood experiences evoke feelings of comfort, happiness, contentment, nostalgia; and people project those feelings on to landscapes that look like places where those positive childhood memories were formed. Tourists expect the same scope of feelings for their visits to wineries.

4. 2. Natural setting

Although different tourists are attracted to different types of landscapes, based on what makes them feel comfortable or 'at home', a common theme seems to be that the architectural structures are more appealing if they are in tune with the natural setting. Virtually all respondents emphasized the importance of having grapes, vines, or at least *"something green"* as part of a winery landscape:

> *"I see myself enjoying drinking wine while looking out on a beautiful view with hundreds of miles of grapes and vines"*
>
> *"When I picture a winery, it's out away from things. It is isolated, it is "one with nature." I like nature, I like the outdoors"*
>
> *"The proximity of the vines appeals to me… it's the sensory experience. You can touch them, smell them; it adds to the experience; it elevates the product. You appreciate the wine more when you can see and understand where it comes from."*

In contrast, when there were no vines in the photo (urban winery), it was perceived as a disadvantage:

> *"It does not even look like a winery; it feels like a craft brewery. It does have its own urban appeal, but it's just a place to hang out"*

4. 3. Associations with quality of wine

Interestingly, another association that the participants formed based on their perceptions of landscapes was an expectation of the quality and the style of wine. To illustrate, for the rustic farming landscape, participants expected wine to be "*simpler, lighter styles; perhaps even sweeter wines*", whereas for the château winery, the wines were immediately assumed to be expensive ("*I would visit this place with the richest people I know*"). Again, because the urban winery did not have a 'real winery" appeal, its wines were also perceived as *cheap; lesser quality; strange;* even *"mac-and-cheese wines."*

4. 4. Gender differences

Most of the women interviewed drew on their backgrounds, interests, and childhood memories when describing the landscapes; whereas almost all of the men seemed to focus on the more abstract ideas: their standards for a winery, their expected or imagined experience at that winery. Men much less frequently incorporated their own personal experiences into their reasons for choosing the landscapes they selected; and they were more likely to approach the idea of the winery as a business opportunity. Women, on the contrary, focused largely on the feelings that the landscapes triggered in them, on the harmony of the landscapes with the natural setting, and other similar sensory associations.

Conclusions

This current research targeted millennials, because although they drink wine, they are not necessarily wine tourists, and they very rarely think of themselves as such. Anecdotal evidence shows that when millennials visit a winery, it's generally for an event such as a wedding or a concert. They rarely go just for a tasting experience. Inquiry reveals that this may be due to a lack of discretionary income and possibly time, as well as the fear that their natural (due to young age) lack of wine knowledge may make them feel out of place or intimidated at many wineries, as illustrated in the discussion presented here. However, the data examined in the two studies informs that the structures of a winery, within the winery landscape, may attract them to visit if the anticipated experience conforms with ideas centered around comfort, nostalgia, relaxation, and/or enjoyment. Millennials, accustomed to easily accessing online information on their mobile devices, are likely to look up the winery before deciding to visit and may (or may not) be attracted based on the images they see. Significantly, we found that it is important for the winery building to be harmonious with its natural setting; to look like it belongs in its space. The building, as an integral part of the landscape, has the ability to capture the atmosphere and to portray the image of the winery, and to induce this currently underrepresented market segment to become dedicated wine tourists in the future.

References

Brown, G., & Getz, D. (2005). Linking wine preferences to the choice of wine tourism destinations. *Journal of Travel Research, 43*(3), 266-276.

Bruwer, J., & Alant, K. (2009). The hedonic nature of wine tourism consumption: An experiential view. *International Journal of Wine Business Research, 21*(3), 235-257.

Carmichael, B. A. (2005). Understanding the wine tourism experience for winery visitors in the Niagara region, Ontario, Canada. *Tourism Geographies, 7*(2), 185-204.

Cutler, S. Q., & Carmichael, B. (2010). The dimensions of the tourist experience. In

M. Morgan, P. Lugosi & J. R. B. Ritchie (eds.), *The tourism and leisure experience: Consumer and managerial perspectives*, (pp. 3-26). Bristol: Channel View Publications.

Echtner, C. M., & Ritchie, J. R. B. (1991). The meaning and measurement of destination image. *The Journal of Tourism Studies, 2*(2), 2-12.

McMillian, R. (2019). State of the Wine Industry Report 2019. Retrieved from https://www.svb.com/globalassets/library/images/content/trends_and_insights/reports/wine_report/svb-2019-wine-report

Nadeau, J., Heslop, L., O'Reilly, N., & Luk, P. (2008). Destination in a country image context. *Annals of Tourism Research, 35*(1), 84-106.

The wine tourist in the city: The case study of Barcelona

Giulia Gastaldello*
Dept. Land, Environment, Agriculture and Forestry (TESAF),
University of Padova, Italy
giulia.gastaldello.1@phd.unipd.it

Luca Rossetto
Dept. Land, Environment, Agriculture and Forestry (TESAF),
University of Padova, Italy
luca.rossetto@unipd.it

* Corresponding author

Introduction

The strong link between wine and its territory of origin was first introduced with the Classification of the Wines of the Gironde in 1855, presented during the *Exposition Universelle de Paris*. This system paved the way for the current quality scheme of Protected Designations of Origin and became an important marketing tool for the region. The development of new, affordable means of transport and the general increase of interest in wine further boosted the creation of a tourism flow toward wine producing regions (Hall et al., 1996) that became an important resource for rural development and, on a smaller scale, a crucial direct-sales channel for local producers (Getz and Brown, 2006). In the last decade, the impressive expansion of the wine tourism sector led it to become the core for of several wine regions' destination brands, attracting thousands of travelers every year (Getz, 2000; Mitchell & Hall, 2004). Indeed, wine became an important reason for travel (Garibaldi et al, 2017).

According to Hall et al. (1996), the term wine tourism refers to travel experiences (wine festivals, visitation to vineyards, etc.) primarily motivated by the willingness to taste local wine and/or to experience the attributes of the grape. However, the great differentiation of the supply has led wine tourism to develop synergies with other sectors such as food (Getz et al., 2014) giving rise to gastronomic tourism experiences: indeed, the term gastronomy encompasses not only culinary elements but also typical beverages as local wines (Kivela and Crotts, 2006). As a consequence, a wider range of market segments other than wine *conoisseurs* and wine lovers is attracted by wine and gastronomic experiences, extending the definition of 'wine tourist' also to people not having a specific knowledge of wine and winemaking (Sigala and Robinson, 2019). Wine tourists are essentially cultural tourists, educated and with a lifelong desire to learn, who are willing to experience not only wine, but also local food directly in its context as cultural expression of the place visited and of its heritage (Croce and Perri, 2010; 2017). In this framework, the sector moved towards the creation of 'memorable experiences' rather than just quality services (Pine and Gilmore, 1998). The cultural dimension, authenticity and memorability are in fact crucial factors triggering wine tourism demand, overcoming the high-quality of wines (Dowling and Getz, 2006; Kim and Bonn, 2016). In the case of 'Old World' wine producing countries, food and wine have always been an integral part of the population's identity since the ancient Roman Empire (Capatti and Montanari, 2006): in 2010, the Mediterranean diet has been declared a UNESCO Intangible Cultural Heritage of Humanity in 2010 (UNWTO, 2017). In this connection, food and wines represent for local tourism a tangible resource to convey the intangible elements of the 'common heritage and collective identity', defined as '*Milieu*' (Croce and Perri, 2010). Tasting a wine or a typical recipe right in the place where it was born, in fact, generates a feeling of uniqueness that can be leveraged to create a competitive advantage and place-attachment by meeting customer's 'Myth of Oedipus', i.e. the need to perceive a sense of belonging with a place (Croce and Perri, 2010).

This explanatory study aims at investigating a recent model of wine and gastronomy tourism experiences offered in Barcelona (Catalunya, Spain). Specifically, we try to define the profile of the customer of such products considering demographics, education level, wine habits and wine-tours features preferences. Accordingly, the research questions are the following:

RQ1:Who is the customer of wine and gastronomic tours offered in the city?

RQ2: Do customers' wine habits affect their profile preferences for specific tour features? i.e., do this type of wine and food experiences attract wine tourists? The study contributes to improve existing knowledge about the wine tourism sector and its recent developments in 'old world' wine producing countries, analyzing the emerging trend of oeno-gastronomic city tours. Information collected will provide a better understanding about who is the customer of such tourism products and what is he looking for.

1. Wine tourism moves to the city: the case of Catalunya

Spain is a leading country for tourism: in 2017, the Nation ranked second as arrivals and international receipts, hosting 82 million international tourists who spent a total of 68 billion US$. The total contribution of travel and tourism to the whole economy Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was of 195.4 billion US$, corresponding to 14.9% of GDP.[1]

[1] World Travel and Tourism Council. Travel and Tourism: Economic Impact 2018, Spain. https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/countries-2018/spain2018.pdf

Catalunya appears to be the strongest Spanish region, with tourism accounting for 12% of regional GDP[2] and a major share of the Catalan tourism flow concentrated in Barcelona. The province alone, from 2008 to 2013, generated a total of 62 billion US$ corresponding to the 69% of the overall richness produced by the Catalan region through tourist activities[3]. Currently, tourism sector accounts for more than the 14% of Barcelona's GDP. With respect to wine, Spain has established itself as one of the big players in the sector, with the world's largest area under vine – almost 970 thousand hectares – and a wine production that in 2018 exceeded 40 million hectoliters[4]. Moreover, the Country ranked first worldwide for export volumes (23.2 million hl) and third for export value (3,2 billion US$)[5]. In this framework, the destination brand 'Barcelona' – born in 1992 with the Olympic games (Duran, 2005) – developed a multifaceted identity combining cuisine, leisure, seaside, business, shopping, art and architecture (Ashworth and Kavaratzis, 2010). Local Destination Management Companies (DMCs) and tour operators are currently fostering the combination of tourism, wine and local food (*tapas* and *paella*) which is implicit in the Mediterranean culture of the city. Indeed, these operators developed a wide offer of one day and half-day tours to neighboring wineries (i.e. *Penedès*, famous for *Cava*) next to few hours activities related to food and wines offered within the city. The latter became a tool to immerse short-stay tourists into a 'local' and 'authentic' atmosphere with a multidisciplinary approach.

2. Data collection

Data have been collected among a sample of participants in food and wine tours provided in Barcelona through a self-administrated questionnaire delivered before the experience. Both tapas and wine tours have been included in the study: the former is a gastronomic tour offering tasting of local food (*tapas*) paired with local wines while wine tours comprehend walking wine tours and wine tastings in the city as well as daily trips to neighboring wine regions. Data collection lasted 4 months, from April to July 2017, therefore the analysis focuses on the high season period and no seasonality effects are considered. A total of 293 questionnaires have been collected, 63 are from customers of wine-themed experiences and 230 from participants in the tapas tour. The questionnaire included: i) socio-demographics (age, gender, occupation, education, country of origin), ii) psychographic information (frequency of wine consumption; frequency of wine purchase; frequency of participation to wine events as wine festivals – Yuan et al. 2005), iii) interest in visiting a wine region in the next three years (5-points scale), iv) travel information, and v) the importance of 10 selected tour features (7-points scale ranging from 'not important'=1 to 'extremely important'=7).

Questions were adapted from literature on wine tourism related to wineries and wine festivals (Alebaki & Iakovidou, 2010; Marzo-Navarro & Pedraja-Iglesias, 2012; Alant & Bruwer, 2004; Alonso et al., 2007; Charters & Ali-Knight, 2002). Customers were also asked to indicate if they traveled to wine regions or joined a wine tour before the experience as characterizing features of wine tourists (Nella & Christou, 2014; Hall, 1996).

3. Methodology

Descriptive statistics were analysed to highlight the main characteristics of the sample. As the study focuses on customers of oeno-gastronomic experiences in the city, questionnaires from one-day tours to wine regions have been excluded from further analysis (n=287). The reliability of the 3-items scale to measure wine habits (WH), which included frequency of buying wine (WH_1), drinking wine (WH_2) and of attending wine events (WH_3), was assessed through Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) and Cronbach's alpha. The factor analysis extracted one component explaining 73% of the variance, with Cronbach's alpha above the recommended acceptable threshold (α = 0,81 > 0,70). Similarly to previous studies (Giampietri

[2] http://catalonia.com/catalonia-barcelona/catalonia-barcelona/Catalonia-facts-figures.jsp

[3] Aproximaciò al PIB turistic de les comarques de la provincia de Barcelona, periode 2008-2013. Lab Turisme, Diputaciò de Barcelona, August 2015

[4] Preliminary data. International Organization of Vine and Wine, 2018. OIV statistical report on world vitiviniculture.

[5] International Organization of Vine and Wine, 2018. OIV statistical report on world vitiviniculture. http://www.oiv.int/public/medias/6371/oiv-statistical-report-on-world-vitiviniculture-2018.pdf

et al., 2019; Nella and Christou, 2014), a hierarchical cluster analysis was performed to segment the sample based on wine habits (WH) adopting Ward Method as clustering algorithm and Euclidean square distance. A two-step cluster with Akaike Information Criterion (AIC) was also performed to validate the results obtained. Differences between customers' profile and tour features preferences based on wine habits clusters have been further explored through crosstabs and verified through chi-square, ANOVA and post-hoc tests.

4. Who is the customer of wine and gastronomy city tours?

The average customer is a woman aged from 41 to 60 years old (46%), employed, traveling with her partner or accompanied by family members. The educational level is high, with most customers being in possession of a college degree (53%) or post graduates (36%). There is a strong prevalence of customers traveling from the United States (68%) while a minority comes from other Countries. Coherently with Eurostat statistics[6], the majority of tourists is staying in Barcelona for a few days: over a half (51%) is staying less than 3 days and 36% from 4 to 7 days (Table 1).

Despite in this context gastronomic tours – as the tapas tour – seem to be preferred by tourists (78.5%), the average level of interest to wine is rather high: indeed, more than half of participants declared to drink wine (51%) and to buy wine (60%) from often to regularly and they sporadically participate to wine events (Table 2).

It is worth noticing that over half of the sample (51%) has purchased a wine tour before and over the 80% has previously traveled to a wine region, so a share of wine tourists is present in the sample (Table 1). Coherently, interest in visiting a wine region in the next 3 years is rather high (Table 1). In general, most customers were traveling to Barcelona for the first time (85%).

With respect to tour features (Table 3), a relaxed atmosphere, the variety of wines tasted, food and wine pairings and improving personal knowledge about local wines appear to be the most important. As well, being guided by a Sommelier or a wine expert received a mean rating over 5. Interest in winemaking as well as in the combination of wine with art or open air and cultural activities, instead, recorded lower frequencies for high ratings.

5. Segmenting the sample based on wine habits.

As the focus of the analysis is on wine and gastronomic tourism in the city, customers of tours to wine regions have not be considered in this analysis and 6 cases were excluded (n=287). Both the hierarchical and the two-step cluster analysis performed on wine habits (WH, see Table 2) identified 3 different clusters including 55.7% (n=160), 31.7% (n=91) and 12.5% (n=36) of cases respectively (Table 4). According to ANOVA results, the difference between the mean of each cluster and the other two with respect to wine habits is statistically significant at $p<0.01$. cluster 1 is the most represented, showing a mean score for wine habits close to that of the sample. cluster 2 is composed by individuals with wine habits ratings above sample's mean while the mean for cluster 3 is 1.6 points lower than the average score of the sample.

The three clusters have further been characterized by using cross-tabulations and chi-square tests. Among socio-demographics and psychographic variables age, education, occupation, interest in visiting a wine region in the next three years, type of tour purchased (i.e. tapas or wine city tour), having visited a wine region or attended a wine tour show statistically significant differences among clusters with significance $p<0.05$ or lower (Table 4). No statistical significant differences emerged for travel information.

Results of the ANOVA test for the ten tour features explored revealed that the mean score of almost all the variables changes significantly among different wine habits clusters, exception made for the inclusion of art and cultural or open air activities – as the visit to historical monuments or museums – which were generally attributed with the lowest importance. Food and wine pairings appear to be relevant for wine tours, being highly rated by both cluster 1 (5.2) and cluster 2 (5.4) (Table 6). Nevertheless, statistically significant differences are observed only for cluster 3, the lowest in terms of wine involvement, compared to cluster 2

[6] Eurostat. Tourism trips of residents (aged 15 years or more), 2016

and 1 while no significant distinctions can be noticed among cluster 2 and 1.

Description of clusters

Cluster 1 – The cultural wine tourists

This segment is likely to be interested in wine as part of the culture of the region visited rather than on the product itself. Indeed, such customers consider food and wine pairings to be more important compared to cluster 2 while the relevance of trying a wide variety of local wines (5.5) to improve their knowledge on the topic (5.3) guided by an wine expert (5.2) is 0.3 and 0.2 points lower respectively. Statistically significant differences, however, exist only with cluster 1. Group's mean score for wine habits is 3, meaning that such tourists purchase, drink wine and participate to wine events occasionally. As most of them are average to highly interested in visiting a wine region in the next 3 years and over the 84% has already traveled to a wine region, they can be defined as wine tourists. Considering also their profile, which is that of a 41 to 60 years old traveler, employed and highly educated, they could fall into Hall's segment of wine interested (Hall, 1996).

Cluster 2 – Potential wine lovers

Looking at the remarkable interest in wine and the high group score for wine habits, which is 1 point above the sample mean, such tourists can be defined as potential wine lovers. In fact, their profile corresponds to that of a mature traveler (41 to 60 years or older), highly educated, employed or retired, who is likely to be a frequent wine consumer and buyer and that participates to wine events on a frequent basis. Indeed, the 87% has already visited a wine region and will most probably to do again in the near future (44% of 5 ratings, Table 5). Moreover, for 70% of the respondents in this group this was not the first experience with wine tours. Accordingly, this cluster shows the highest incidence of customers from wine tours (27.5%) compared to cluster 1 (18%) and 3 (8%). This group also attributed the highest ratings to tour features related to wine knowledge compared to the other two clusters, i.e. tasting a wide variety of local wines (5.8), tasting of high quality wine (for example, vintage wines) (5.4), improvement of personal knowledge about the topic (5.6) while being guided by an expert (5.4) (Table 6). According to post-hoc test, though, mean score differences on tour features are statistically significant only compared to cluster 1.

Cluster 3 – Convenience wine drinkers

The smallest group, cluster 3, is most likely composed by younger travelers with a college degree who see wine and gastronomy experiences as an alternative way to have fun on a trip. When on a wine tour, they see as most important a relaxed atmosphere (4.8) and the possibility to drink many different wines paired with food tastings (4.4) while learning about winemaking and wine quality scored the lowest mean ratings (lower than 4). Differences in tour features are statistically significant with both cluster 1 and 2, with lower importance scores assigned to almost all the variables considered. Coherently, the group score for wine habits is the lowest (1.7, see Table 4) and unsurprisingly, even if more than a half of the sample has already traveled to a wine region before (53%, see Table 5), they have low or no interest to repeat the experience in the near future. Also in the considered context, almost the totality of the group opted for the tapas tour (92%).

Conclusions, practical implications and future research agenda

This exploratory study provides insights on the emerging model of wine and gastronomic city tours, with an 'Old World' wine producing country as case study. Results revealed wine tourist to be attracted by gastronomy and wine related experiences while traveling to major city destinations, highlighting the presence of different market segments who are looking to experience wine in different ways, also combined with local food. Information collected can be useful to actors of the tourism sector to structure and target such tourism products and represent a starting point for future investigations on larger samples to better characterize market segments, identify motivations and culture-dependent differences in consumers' behavior.

References

Alant, K., & Bruwer, J. (2004). Wine tourism behaviour in the context of a motivational framework for wine regions and cellar doors. *Journal of Wine Research*, 15(1), 27-37.

Alebaki, M., & Iakovidou, O. (2010). Segmenting the Greek wine tourism market using a motivational approach. *New Medit*, 9(4), 31–40.

Alonso, A., Fraser, R. A., & Cohen, D. A. (2007). Investigating differences between domestic and international winery visitors in New Zealand. *International Journal of Wine Business Research*, 19(2), 114-126.

Alonso, A. D., & O'Neill, M. A. (2009). Wine tourism in Spain: the case of three wine regions. *Tourism (Zagreb)*, 57(4), 405-420.

Ashworth, G., & Kavaratzis, M. (Eds.). (2010). *Towards effective place brand management: Branding European cities and regions.* Edward Elgar Publishing.

Capatti, A., & Montanari, M. (1999). *La cucina italiana: storia di una cultura* (Vol. 88). Roma-Bari: Laterza.

Chang, R. C., Kivela, J., & Mak, A. H. (2011). Attributes that influence the evaluation of travel dining experience: When East meets West. *Tourism Management,* 32(2), 307-316.

Charters, S., & Ali-Knight, J. (2002). Who is the wine tourist? *Tourism management,* 23(3), 311-319.

Croce, E., & Perri, G. (2010). *Food and wine tourism: Integrating food, travel and territory*. Cabi.

Croce, E., & Perri, G. (2017). Tourists on the food and wine trail: who are they? *Food and wine tourism: integrating food, travel and terroir*, (Ed. 2), 61-81.

Dowling, R. and Getz, D. (2006). cited in Carlsen, J. and Charters, S. (Eds), Global Wine Tourism – Research. Management and Marketing, CAB International, Oxon.

Duran, P. (2005). The Impact of the Games on Tourism: Barcelona: The Legacy of the Games, 1992–2002 (Barcelona: Centre d'Estudis Olympics (UAB)).

Garibaldi, R., Stone, M. J., Wolf, E., & Pozzi, A. (2017). Wine travel in the United States: A profile of wine travellers and wine tours. *Tourism management perspectives*, 23, 53-57.

Getz, D., & Brown, G. (2006). Critical success factors for wine tourism regions: a demand analysis. *Tourism management*, 27(1), 146-158.

Getz, D. (2000). *Explore wine tourism: Management, development & destinations*. New York: Cognizant Communication Corporation.

Getz, D., Robinson, R. N. S., Vujicic, S., & Andersson, T. (2014). *Foodies and food tourism*. Oxford, UK: Goodfellow.

Giampietri, E., Dalle Rose, P. D., & Morlin, E. (2018). Which winery visit do wine tourists prefer? An explorative analysis in Italy. *Quality-Access to Success*, 19: 241-249.

Green, G.P., Dougherty, M.L., (2008). Localizing linkages for food and tourism: culinary tourism as a community development strategy. *Community Development,* 39 (3), 148–158.

Hall, C. M. (1996). Wine tourism in New Zealand. In J. Higham (Ed.), *Proceedings of the Tourism Down Under II: A research conference* (pp. 109–119). Dunedin:University of Otago.

Hall, M.C. & Mitchell, R. (2001). Wine and food tourism. In N. Douglas & R. Derret. (Eds.), *Special Interest Tourism* (pp. 307-329). Brisbane, Australia: John Wiley.

Kivela, J., & Crotts, J. C. (2006). Tourism and gastronomy: Gastronomy's influence on how tourists experience a destination. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 30(3), 354-377.

Marzo-Navarro, M., & Pedraja-Iglesias, M. (2010). Are there different profiles of wine tourists? An initial approach. *International Journal of Wine Business Research*, 22(4), 349–361.

Marzo-Navarro, M., & Pedraja-Iglesias, M. (2012). Critical factors of wine tourism: Incentives and barriers from the potential tourist's perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 24 (2), 312–334. doi:10.1108/09596111211206196

Mitchell, R., & Hall, C. M. (2004). The Post-visit consumer behaviour of New Zealand winery visitors. *Journal of Wine Research*, 15(1), 39-49.

Montanari, M., & Capatti, A. (2011). *La cucina italiana: storia di una cultura*. Gius. Laterza & Figli Spa

Nella, A., & Christou, E. (2014). Segmenting wine tourists on the basis of involvement with wine. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 31(7), 783-798.

OIV (2018). *Statistical report on world vitiviniculture* . Retrieved from http://www.oiv.int/public/medias/6371/oiv-statistical-report-on-world-vitiviniculture-2018.pdf

Pine, B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review*, 76, 97-105.

Sigala, M., & Robinson, R. N. (Eds.). (2019). *Management and Marketing of Wine Tourism Business: Theory, Practice, and Cases*. Springer.

UNWTO (2017), *Affiliate Members Report, Volume sixteen – Second Global Report on Gastronomy Tourism*, Madrid. Retrieved from http://cf.cdn.unwto.org/sites/all/files/pdf/gastronomy_report_web.pdf

UNWTO (2018*), UNWTO Tourism Highlights, 2018 Edition*. https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284419876.

World Travel and Tourism Council (2018).*World Travel and Tourism: Economic Impact 2018, Spain*. https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/countries-2018/spain2018.pdf

Yuan, J. J., Cai, L. A., Morrison, A. M., & Linton, S. (2005). An analysis of wine festival attendees' motivations: A synergy of wine, travel and special events? *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 11(1), 41–58.

Yuan, J., Morrison, A., Cai, L. A., Dodd, T., & Linton, S. (2008). Segmenting wine festival visitors using their personal involvement with wine. In C.M. Hall & L. Sharples (Eds.), *Food and wine festivals and events around the world: Development, management and markets* (pp. 146–165). Oxford: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Appendix

Table 1 Description of the sample: profile of the respondents.

		Frequency	%			Frequency	%
Tour	Tapas	230	78.5	**How did you find the tour**	Friends Advice	40	13.7
	Wine Tasting	51	17.4		Website Selling Tour	105	35.8
	Penedes	4	1.4		Online Reviews	25	8.5
	Wine City Tour	6	2.0		Travel Package	18	6.1
	Priorat	2	0.7		Travel Agency	105	35.8
Gender	Male	117	39.9	**Ever joined a wine tour before**	Yes	152	51,9
	Female	176	60.1		No	141	48,1
Country	Usa	198	67.6	**Travelling with**	Alone	9	3.1
	Australia	36	12.3		Friends	66	22.5
	Canada	16	5.5		Family	101	34.5
	Other	43	14.5		Partner	99	33.8
					Group	18	6.1
Age	<25	34	11.6				
	25-40	74	25.3	**First time in Barcelona**	Yes	249	85
	41-60	135	46.1		No	44	15
	>60	50	17.1				
				Length of stay	<3 Days	11	17.5
Occupation	Student	27	9.2		4-7 Days	43	68.3
	Employee	176	60.1		> 7 Days	9	14.3
	Self Employed	39	13.3				
	Unemployed	7	2.4	**Ever visited a wine region before**	Yes	237	80.9
	Retired	44	15		No	56	19.1
Education	< High School	1	0.3	**Marital Status**	Single	67	22.9

High School	32	10.9		In A Couple/Married	217	74.1
College/University	155	52.9		Separated/Divorced	6	2
Post Graduate	105	35.8		Widowed	3	1

	1 Never	**2 Rarely**	**3 Sometimes**	**4 Often**	**5 Regularly**	**Mean**	**SD**
Frequency Wine Events	9.2	9.6	30	20.8	30.4	3.5	1.27

Note: n=293

Table 2 Wine habits: descriptive statistics.

Wine Habits (WH)	**1 Never**	**2 Rarely**	**3 Sometimes**	**4 Often**	**5= Regularly**	**Mean**	**SD**
WH_1 Frequency Wine Events (%)	16.0	28.7	37.2	15.0	3.1	2.60	1.02
WH_2 Frequency Buy Wine (%)	3.4	9.6	27.0	33.8	26.3	3.69	1.13
WH_3 Frequency Drink Wine (%)	9.2	9.6	30.0	20.8	30.4	3.70	1.07

Note: n=293.

Table 3 Tour features: descriptive statistics.

	1= No importance	2	3	4	5	6	7= Max importance	Mean	SD
Sommelier/Wine Expert Guide (%)	4.8	2.7	7.5	15.0	23.5	22.9	23.5	5.1	1.62
High Quality Wines (%)	5.5	4.8	13.0	22.2	28.7	15.7	10.2	4.5	1.55
Wines Variety (%)	2.7	1.7	5.1	11.9	19.1	31.7	27.6	5.5	1.55
Food-Wine Pairings (%)	3.4	2.4	7.8	17.4	18.8	30.4	19.8	5.2	1.53
Relaxed Atmosphere (%)	2.0	1.0	3.1	12.3	14.7	32.4	34.5	5.7	1.36
Art (%)	16.0	14.3	15.7	23.5	11.6	11.6	7.2	3.6	1,81
Visit Winery and Vineyard (%)	3.8	4.1	9.2	20.1	25.3	20.5	17.1	4.9	1.56
Cultural/Open Air Activities (%)	7.2	7.5	13.0	19.1	22.9	19.5	10.9	4.5	1.70
Learn About Winemaking (%)	6.8	7.8	14.3	25.3	19.5	17.1	9.2	4.3	1.64
Get to Know Local Wines (%)	3.1	1.7	5.5	17.7	22.9	25.3	23.9	5.3	1.48

Note: n=293

Table 4 Clusters profile: wine habits

		Cluster			
		1 (55.7%; n=160)	2 (31.7%; n=91)	3 (12.5%; n=36)	**Sample**
Wine Habits	Mean	3.1 $^{2;3***}$	4.3 $^{1;3***}$	1.7 $^{1;2***}$	**3.3**
	St. Dev	0.41 $^{2;3***}$	0.33 $^{1;3***}$	0.38$^{1;2***}$	**0.92**

Note: n=287. *** p<.01; **p <.05; *p<.10. Numbers 1,2 and 3 identify the clusters.

Table 5 Clusters' profile: socio-demographic and psychographic characteristics.

		Cluster				Chi-square test		
		1 (55.7%)	2 (31.7%)	3 (12.5%)	Total	Value	p	Sign
Age (%)	<25	8.8	4.4	44.4	11.8	53.4	0.00	***
	25-40	26.3	25.3	25.0	25.8			
	41-60	50.6	41.8	27.8	44.9			
	>60	14.4	28.6	2.8	17.4			
Occupation (%)	Student	7.5	3.3	33.3	9.4	40.7	0.00	***
	Employee	65.6	59.3	44.4	61.0			
	Self Employed	10.6	14.3	13.9	12.2			

	Unemployed	2.5	0.0	5.6	2.1			
	Retired	13.8	23.1	2.8	15.3			
Education (%)	< High School	0.6	0.0	0.0	0.3	15.4	0.02	**
	High School	10.6	11.0	11.1	10.8			
	College/University	50.6	47.3	80.6	53.3			
	Post Graduate	38.1	41.8	8.3	35.5			
Tour (%)	Tapas	81.9	72.5	91.7	80.1	6.6	0.04	**
	Wine Tours	18.1	27.5	8.3	19.9			
Interest in Visit a Wine Regions - Next 3y (%)	1	8.1	1.1	36.1	9.4	63.1	0.00	***
	2	11.3	2.2	22.2	9.8			
	3	31.9	28.6	27.8	30.3			
	4	22.5	24.2	5.6	20.9			
	5	26.3	44.0	8.3	29.6			
Ever Visited A Wine Region (%)	Yes	84.4	86.8	47.2	80.5	29.2	0.00	***
	No	15.6	13.2	52.8	19.5			
Ever Joined A Wine Tour (%)	Yes	48.1	70.3	13.9	50.9	34.0	0.00	***
	No	51.9	29.7	86.1	49.1			

Note: n=287. *** p< .01; **p < .05; *p< .10. Numbers 1,2 and 3 identify the clusters.

Table 6 Clusters profile: preferences for tour features.

		Cluster			ANOVA		
		1 (55.7%)	2 (31.7%)	3 (12.5%)	F	Sig.	
Sommelier/Wine Expert Guide	Mean	5.2 ^{3***}	5.4 ^{3***}	4.1 $^{1;2***}$	9.3	0.00	***
	St. Dev.	1.45	1.53	2.14			
High Quality Wine	Mean	4.6 ^{3**}	4.6 ^{3**}	3.9 $^{1;2**}$	3.2	0.04	**
	St. Dev.	1.44	1.45	2.03			

Wines Variety	Mean	5.5 ^{3***}	5.8 ^{3***}	4.4 $^{1;2***}$	12.1	0.00	***
	St. Dev.	1.37	1.14	2.03			
Food-Wine Pairings	Mean	5.4 ^{3***}	5.2 ^{3***}	4.4 $^{1;2***}$	6.2	0.00	***
	St. Dev.	1.39	1.43	1.96			
Relaxed Atmosphere	Mean	5.8 ^{3***}	5.9 ^{3***}	4.9 $^{1;2***}$	9.0	0.00	***
	St. Dev.	1.26	1.11	1.94			
Art	Mean	3.8	3.7	3.2	1.5	0.22	
	St. Dev.	1.76	1.84	1.92			
Visit Winery/Vineyard	Mean	5.0 ^{3***}	5.0 ^{3***}	4.1 $^{1;2***}$	5.9	0.00	***
	St. Dev.	1.48	1.57	1.67			
Get to Know Local Wines	Mean	5.3 ^{3***}	5.6 ^{3***}	4.1 $^{1;2***}$	14.8	0.00	***
	St. Dev.	1.37	1.37	1.68			
Learn About Winemaking	Mean	4.4 ^{3**}	4.4 ^{3*}	3.7 $^{1**;2*}$	3.2	0.04	**
	St. Dev.	1.60	1.63	1.74			
Cultural/Open Air Activities	Mean	4.6	4.3	4.5	1.3	0.27	
	St. Dev.	1.62	1.79	1.56			

Note: n=287. *** $p < .01$; ** $p < .05$; * $p < .10$. Numbers 1,2 and 3 identify the clusters.

Expanding the knowledge of wine tourism experiences in the Alsace wine region: An intercultural perspective

Isabelle Hess-Misslin*
Master degree student, Tourism management
Chair "Wine and tourism"
EM Strasbourg, University of Strasbourg
isabelle.hess73@gmail.com

Dr. Coralie Haller
Associate professor, Humanis (EA 7308)
Chaire "Wine and tourism" EM Strasbourg, University of Strasbourg
coralie.haller@em-strasbourg.eu

Prof. Dr. Jean-Paul Mereaux
Lecturer,
University of Reims Champagne Ardenne
jean-paul.mereaux@univ-reims.fr

* Corresponding author

Introduction

France, the number one tourist destination and second largest wine producer in the world (OIV, 2017), was visited by 10 million wine tourists in 2016. A constantly growing number of wine tourists visit the country's 17 wine regions: between 2009 and 2016, their number has increased from 7.5 million to 10 million, which represents a total profit of 5.2 billion € (www.visitfrenchwine.com). The number of foreign wine tourists, about 42% of the total, shows the biggest growth: +40% since 2009 (compared with +29% of French wine tourists). About half of them are Belgian and British. But customers from more distant markets, particularly Asian, who are increasingly interested in wine-related activities, are expected to contribute to the development of the sector (www.visitfrenchwine.com). Alsace, the third most visited wine region in France after Bordeaux and Champagne, which has a common border with Switzerland and Germany, is particularly concerned by the increase of foreign visitors, who represented around 60% of the day-trippers and 30% of the tourists in 2017 (ORTA, 2019). The region encounters, at the same time, a decrease in the wine sales by volume. Furthermore, the Alsace suffers from a lack of research. Very few documents and data about wine tourism practices are available to wine sector professionals (Orta, 2016, 2019; Atout France, 2010). For these reasons, we decided to focus on the Alsace wine region for this study.

The great diversity of wine tourism activities on offer in Alsace allows visitors to enjoy a "multitude of experiences", from wine tasting visits to the discovery of the wine route. These experiences, increasingly sought after by the consumers (and especially by the tourist-consumers) are relevant in the promotional messages of the Alsatian wine destination: "When wine becomes a journey in itself…"(www.vinsalsace.com); "A sensory treat in every sense of the term. The Alsatian wine Route is a magical trail running for almost 170 km (…). Enjoy a great outing in Alsace's wine producing region!" (www.experience.alsace); "The Rendez-vous with the Alsatian Grand Cru Wines", "Take the time to share a unique, unforgettable experience "(www.parenthèse-vigneronne.com) …

The creation and the management of experiences have been studied by the academic research since Holbrook and Hirschman integrated "emotions, feelings and fun" in the consumption field (Holbrook and Hirschman, 1982a, 1982b; Schmitt, 1999; Hetzel, 2002). The four-dimensional model of Pine and Gilmore (1998, 1999), created a few years after the appearance of this new theory, heralded a new era: the "experience economy". Since then, the experience concepts have been used to develop and analyse new trends in consumption, particularly in the leisure and tourism fields, where experience is of prime importance (Pearce et Moscardo, 1986; Cohen, 1988 ; Arnould et Price, 1993 ; Debenedetti, 2003; Mc Kercher, 2006 ; Bourgeon et al., 2006 ; Mossberg, 2007 ; Hollenbeck et al., 2008 ; Camus, 2010 ; Pallud et Elie-Dit-Cosaque, 2011 ; Kreziak et Frochot, 2011 ; Graillot et al., 2011 ; Houge Mckenzie et Kerr, 2014 ; Minkiewicz et al., 2014 ; Jong-Hyeong et Soocheong, 2016).

But paradoxically, despite its hedonistic and emotional nature, wine tourism has been little studied through the lens of experiential theories (Bruwer et Alant, 2009 ; Pikkemaat et al., 2009; Cohen et Ben-Nun, 2009 ; Quadri-Felliti et Fiore, 2012 ; Vo Than et Kirova, 2018). Moreover, inclusion of intercultural context in research on wine tourism would be useful: according to the National Conferences of Wine Tourism (2018), the improvement of knowledge about wine tourism "is the prerequisite to achieve competitivity advantage and attract more clienteles" (Atout France, 2018, p.6). Twenty levers were identified for developing wine tourism in France in the coming years. Among them, the one is to do more research on "expectations of foreign clienteles", "distribution in the different markets" and "KSF of wine tourism" (Atout France, 2018, p. 6).

In this perspective, our objective is to question **whether experiences expected by the foreign wine tourists differ from those expected by the French ones.** Our exploratory study of the Alsace wine region was realised in 2017. It was based on mixed-methods data (Aldebert et Rouzies, 2014): after collecting qualitative data (17 interviews with the main wine tourism stakeholders of the region), we were faced with new questions for which quantitative data were necessary (survey about expectations and behaviours of wine tourists, collected from potential wine tourists). We obtained information which contributes to a better knowledge of the wine tourism experiences offered and demanded in the Alsace wine region. The most recent statistics about the Alsace wine region (ORTA, 2019), which highlight the increase in foreign wine tourists visiting this destination, emphasize the relevance of an intercultural approach.

1. Theoretical frameworks

Following the turnaround generated by the introduction of emotions, hedonism, social and psychological behaviors in the consumption field, Pine and Gilmore (1998, 1999) created a new economic model based on experience which presents 4 dimensions (the "4 Es": educational, esthetic, entertainment, escapist experiences). The model involves the connection of the consumers to the experience environment (absorption/immersion) and their engagement in the experience (active/passive participation). The aim of the experience is for it to be a memorable event. This memorability can for example be improved by staging the experience (Filser, 2002), and by acting on the interactions Product-Object-Situation, in which the consumer is more or less active (Caru and Cova, 2006, 2007). The successful experience, which is subjective by nature (Caru & Cova, 2002), needs a continual dialogue between offers and demands. The consumer's experience must be taken into consideration (Roederer, 2012). This requires more knowledge about the motivations and expectations of the customers.

The consumption experience is increasingly investigated in tourism academic research, due to the need to conciliate experiential offers with the economic logic. However, it can rarely be found in the wine tourism academic studies, where segmentation, satisfaction, motivations and definition of wine tourists are still the most important fields of studies (Hall et al, 2000; Charters et Ali-Knight, 2002 ; Hall et al., 2000 ; Mitchell et Hall, 2006 ; Galloway et al., 2008 ; Getz et Carlsen, 2008). The four-dimensional model of Pine and Gilmore can be found in few studies about wine tourism (Bruwer et Alant, 2009 ; Pikkemaat et al., 2009 ; Cohen et Ben-Nun, 2009 ; Quadri- Felliti et Fiore, 2012 ; Vo Than and Kirova, 2018). It was recently used by Vo-Thanh and Kirova (2018) who completed the Quadri-Felliti matrix (Quadri-Felliti & Fiore, 2012) by doing a netnographic study of wine tourists' experiences in the Cognac region.

In France, academic research on wine tourism is still at its beginnings (Charters et Menival, 2011; Cogan et al., 2016; Haller et al., 2015 ; Bourgoin, 2015; Vo-Thanh and Kirova, 2018). More precisely, there is no study investigating the alignment of wine tourism experiences offering with wine tourists 'expectations in general, and more specifically with foreign wine tourists 'expectations. Generally speaking, there is a need to broader the body of knowledge on how the wine tourism offer could be impacted by intercultural factors. Therefore, we propose to contribute to the body of knowledge on development of wine tourism experiences by considering the expectations of wine tourists in the Alsace wine region, with a special interest for international wine tourists. The objective is to identify differences in the expectations of foreign/French wine tourists.

2. Methodology of research

2. 1. Context: the Alsace wine region

In 2018, the production of wine in Alsace was the highest of the last 10 years with 1 180 568 HL. By contrast, the sales by volume were around 909 067 HL, which represents a drop of 6,8% in the last 3 years. 75% of the production is sold in France and 25% goes to the export markets where the decrease is the most severe (-7,6%). Within the three denominations "Alsace, Crémant and Grand Cru", only the Crémant showed an increase in the exported volumes (+2,9% in the last three years - CIVA, 2019).

Alsace is the third of the most successful French wine tourism areas with 16,9% of the wine tourists, just after Bordeaux (with 18%) and Champagne (with 17,2%) (Atout France, 2016). With its rich wine traditions, dating from the 10th century, the Alsace wine region extends along one of the most picturesque French wine routes. The "Route des vins d'Alsace" meanders through the vineyards for 170 km and has just been labelled "Vignoble et Découverte" (Atout France, 2019). About 120 wine producing villages (including the most beautiful in the Alsace) and more than 100 places of interest can be seen along the route. Around 900 winemakers welcome people for wine tastings (CIVA, 2019), and many wine tourism activities are available, such as "Become a grape-picker for a day", "Aperitif chez le vigneron", gastronomic walks in the vineyard, bike trails, pedestrian paths through the wine area, wine fairs or picnics organised by the winegrower (Route des Vins d'Alsace, 2017).

In 2017, as we collected data about wine tourism experiences in Alsace, very few statistics were available (especially about foreign wine tourists) and they could not give a clear picture of wine tourists in Alsace. The number of foreign tourists staying in hotels along the wine route was estimated to be 45% of the total tourists (ORTA, 2016). The statistics about the overall destination Alsace showed that 28% of the tourists and 57% of the day-trippers were foreigners (ORTA, 2017).

More data were published since 2018. Based on statistics from the years 2016-2017, they complete the information above and give a clearer picture of wine tourists in Alsace. According to the regional tourism observatory (ORTA), the "discovery of vineyards, cellars and wine" involved 9% of the total visitors of Alsace (1% of the day-trippers and 21% of the tourists - ORTA, 2019); only 24% of visitors on the Alsatian wine route took part in an activity related to wine, while around 50% visited the typical villages/towns and 33% museums and heritage sites. According to the tourism observatory, 29% of the wine tourists visiting the "Route des vins d'Alsace" are foreigners (ORTA, 2019). Their profile (distribution of nationalities) is thought to be the same as in the Alsace overall – ORTA, 2019 (Focus : les oenovisiteurs, p. 14).

Indeed, the Alsace region welcomed some 21 million visitors: 7 million day-trippers (they spent one day in the region) and 14 million tourists, who made 30 million overnight stays. The visitors generated a total sales revenue of 2.4 billion euro (ORTA, 2019). Of these visitors, 57% day-trippers and 30% tourists were foreigners. This shows an increase of 14% over five years (vs a French visitors' increase of 11%) (ORTA, 2019).

The majority of the foreign tourists were European, but the increase in European visitors (+9%) was exceeded by the visitors from other continents (+ 19%). The highest number of tourists come from Germany (36%), followed by Belgium (20%) and Switzerland (13%) (ORTA, 2019 – data based on the overnight stays in hotels). The United States are the 5th foreign market, and, since 2010, the Chinese market has grown fivefold. This spectacular growth has been boosted by the filming of a reality show in Colmar in June 2018, which has been viewed more than 2,5 billion times. The consequence is a 19% increase in the Chinese visitors to the region (ORTA, 2019). In Colmar, the Chinese overnight stays surged 70% in one year (Visseyras, 2019).

The distribution for day-trippers shows about 66% from Germany, 26% from Switzerland and 3% from Belgium. This increase in foreign visitors in Alsace and the vineyards in the last years calls for more research about their behaviors, motivations, expectations and satisfaction. Moreover, it could be useful for wine- and tourism- related companies and help them to understand these clienteles. Furthermore, the economic weight of wine tourists, especially of foreign wine tourists, warrants the relevance of more research. The daily average spent of wine tourists (76€) is higher than that of global visitors (65€) (ORTA, 2019). As far as the average spent during a wine tourism stay is around 654€ (vs 425€ during tourism stay). Globally, foreign visitors in Alsace spend more than French visitors (foreign tourists: 91€ per day versus 55€ for French tourists; foreign day-trippers: 47€ par day vs 38€ for the French) – ORTA 2019.

Furthermore, the Alsace wine region, which is faced with several challenges, could highly benefit from more research. Indeed, in addition to the economic weight of wine tourism mentioned above, Alsace has to deal with two main challenges: on the one hand, the Alsatian wine industry wants to attract more customers and to build a strong reputation for Alsace wines, and wine tourism could be a lever to achieve this goal (Assises de l'oenotourisme en Alsace, 2019). On the other hand, wine tourism has been defined as a priority for the development of tourism in Alsace (tourism strategy 2017-2020, ADT) and needs to be structured (Assises de l'oenotourisme en Alsace, 2019). Wine tourists, who are mainly first-time visitors in the destination, are seen as key to the development of tourism in Alsace (ORTA, 2019).

2. 2. Data collection and treatment

First, we made a preliminary study of wine tourism experiences to consider if they fit the wine tourists' expectations in the Alsace. As an introduction to the topic, we interviewed 17 stakeholders on the supply side (winemakers, wine unions and tourism- and wine tourism- stakeholders). Then we examined wine tourists' expectations on the demand side (wine tourists and potential wine tourists). The goal of this mixed- qualitative and quantitative data collection was to answer the question: **Do the experiences expected by the foreign wine tourists differ from those expected by the French ones?** This study took place from

May to July 2017.

First (in May and June 2017), we interviewed 17 professional stakeholders on the topic "wine tourism experiences in Alsace" (8 wine producers, 1 wine guild, 2 wine unions, 4 tourism professionals, 1 wine tourism company, 1 wine marketing strategy expert). These interviews were transcribed in their entirety and were analysed qualitatively, following the recommendation of Miles and Huberman (1984) which states that this method is well-suited to in-depth analysis. For better comprehension of complex data, we used the text analysis software Iramuteq, an interface from the statistical program R, which was validated for the qualitative research in tourism by Marghobi (2018). The dendrogram highlighted 5 major topics: "the tourist and the customer", "the wine tourism experience" "the definition of wine tourism", "the wine tasting" and "the offers".

Then, in July 2017, we distributed an online survey in French, German and English: we edited it with Google Forms and sent it electronically by mail or published on social medias. We collected 233 responses in 15 days (for 750 estimated views of the survey – estimation based on google statistics), which were analysed in a quantitative manner. The aim of this survey was to have better knowledge of the expectations and behaviors of wine tourists, including foreign wine tourists, visiting the Alsatian wine region. We formulated, inter alia, 19 propositions to the question "what are your expectations when you participate in a wine tourism activity?". These 19 propositions were inspired by the Pine and Gilmore four-dimensional model and the Quadri-Felliti and Fiore matrix, which classifies multiple wine tourism activities. These 19 propositions present attributes of each dimension (educational, entertainment, aesthetics, escapism) and of their related wine-activities (Quadri-Felliti and Fiore matrix). For example, in the educational dimension, defined by Pine and Gilmore as enhancing the knowledge/skills, and for which Quadri-Felliti and Fiore identified the activities "wine-tasting and seminars", "culinary-wine pairing events", "home wine making seminars" and "cooking and craft making classes", we proposed the following expectations:

- "to acquire theoretical and technical knowledge about wines",
- "to learn more about the winery and the winemaker",
- "to learn about the history of wine/ the history of Alsace",
- "to learn how to taste wine",
- "to expand the wine-related vocabulary",
- "to learn food-wine pairings",
- "to have the possibility of interacting by asking questions during a guided visit".

We decided not to focus on the activities classified by Quadri-Felliti and Fiore, but on the constituent parts we identified for each dimension, because:

1. Their matrix covers only part of the wine tourism activities available in Alsace
2. Some wine tourism activities could be ranked in several dimensions (for example: wine-tastings in the cellars).
3. Our propositions will allow the inclusion of any innovative wine-tourism activities that may emerge.

For each of our 19 propositions, a Likert-scale of 5 (from "not at all" to "totally agree") was used. Of the respondents, 60% were women and 40% were men. The majority derived from the working age population (with 39% in the 35-45 years old age group). 53% of the respondents consume wine once or twice a week, and 56% have already taken part in a wine tourism activity in Alsace. The most represented nationalities were French (72% of the responses) and Swiss (17,6%). Within the French sample, 60% of the respondents came from Alsace. We decided to extract this sub-part of the French respondents because of its geographic homogeneity and the fact that the majority of French tourists who visit Alsace come from neighbouring territories. Then, we compared the answers from the Swiss respondents. All data gathered was used in the study.

3. Results

3. 1. Stakeholders knowledge of customers

At the time of data collection, none of the winemakers interviewed gathered statistics about their visitors or their customers. No information was collected about customers' expectations, preferences or consumption habits. Most wineries instantly adapt their offers to the wine tourists by improvisation, according to the customers' knowledge of wine: "*I've got a little notebook, people have to fill in if they know something about wines*" (Respondent 1). "*It all depends what is in their interest and their knowledge about wine*" (Respondent 2). The customisation is based on intuitive and spontaneous observation ("*It needs good improvisation, what I say!*", Respondent 2). The professionals explain their lack of collected data by the high variability and diversity of the customers (Respondent 3) and, more generally, by the lack of time for data collection.

The intercultural dimension is not taken into account when adapting the offers. This absence is justified by the lack of knowledge, education or documentation, particularly regarding overseas wine tourists : "*It is clear that one should know who is who… But we don't know, we have no training to treat, for example a Japanese different than a…We should have a better knowledge about the Japanese, their culture, see what they are interested in…*" (Respondent 1). " *Japanese (…), they were really cold. This is a population, one never knows what they think. Even when they arrive at the counter, it's very difficult (…). The most difficult are the Asians*" (Respondent 4).

However, one of the wineries, which has a well-developed export business and gets an important number of foreign visitors due to contracts with tour-operators, had more knowledge about intercultural expectations: "*As we successfully export our wines, we know customer behaviors, and we adapt ourselves accordingly. A Scandinavian will not taste wine like a German, and even less like a Chinese. It is obvious that one has to know their wine consumption practices and behaviors*" (Respondent 3). As well, organisations are more sensible to the importance of the intercultural aspects: "*When you talk about Alsace wines, you have to adapt to the local customs. So one has to get prepared (…) and search what are the local cuisine and way of consuming the wines*" (Respondent 5).

3. 2. Supply and demand about wine tourism experiences

Concerning the 4 experiential dimensions defined by Pine and Gilmore, 94% of the professional stakeholders think that education is the most important factor of a wine tourism experience through the transmission of wine information-knowledge. 88% give importance to the esthetical dimension, 71% to the escapism and 53% to the entertainment.

On the other hand, the wine tourists rate most highly the aesthetic dimension (73%), then the educational (65%), the escapist (46%) and the entertainment (44%) dimensions. More precisely, the results indicate that wine tourists are in majority looking to "enjoy a pleasant environment" (91%) when it comes to wine tourism experience. "Spending a friendly moment" (91%) appeared as a transversal proposition which pervades the four experiential dimensions. This friendly moment is not only provided by the co-visitors (friends, spouse, family), but also by meeting the wine maker, who provides an authentic experience: 79% of the wine tourists prefer the wine maker to conduct a wine-tasting visit. This importance of "socialisation/conviviality" was identified by some academic studies as insufficiently used in the creation of wine tourism offers.

To find out if the expectations vary depending on the nationality of the wine tourists, we extracted the results of the two largest populations of our sample, the Alsatian (in the French sample) and the Swiss (in the foreign sample) – ***see fig.1 and fig.2***. The results confirmed the prime interest to be enjoying a pleasant environment and having a friendly moment (93% of the Swiss, 91% of the Alsatian). There is however a difference concerning the educational dimension, which is less expected by the Swiss who consider relaxation activities to be of higher importance (68% vs 54%). We have further tested the pertinence of the link "expectations/nationalities" with the help of the Chi-square test of independence. While "wine tasting", "learn to speak about wine", "watch a movie" and "take part in an original activity" show no significant connection, the other 15 propositions do show a correlation.

4. Discussion and research perspectives

Do foreign wine tourists seek a different wine tourism experience than French wine tourists ?

Globally, wine tourism stakeholders have very little information about their French and international clients. They are aware of specificities linked to countries or cultures, but they lack intercultural knowledge to adapt their offers. Their analysis of customers is intuitive and spontaneous, and generally limited to the customers' knowledge of wines. The consequence is a lack of segmentation, which may cause strategic difficulties. It has negative effects on the creation of experiential offers, on their promotion and on the ROI.

Results show that wine tourism experiences offered on the supply side (mainly focused on the educational dimension) differ from clients' expectations of a pleasant environment and friendly time. In addition, the clients' expectations may differ according to country and cultural background: the wide range of differences identified between the expectations of Alsatian and Swiss wine tourists, two groups which are nevertheless culturally quite close, may show the fact that the expectations of tourists with very different cultural backgrounds, especially those from Asia, require different experiences.

Future research on wine tourism experiences could focus on the wine tourist's expectations and integrate interculturality. For that, it is necessary to enlarge the data collection and to collect more answers from foreign wine tourists, especially from those coming from distant markets.

More precisely, this future data collection could be a support to understand:

- If foreign wine tourists, especially those from distant markets (Philippines, Japan, China, USA etc.), seek different experiences from the French ones. If yes, what differences can be identified using the Pine and Gilmore model.
- If foreign day-trippers expect different wine tourism experiences from foreign tourists
- How does the supply meet foreign expectations: 1. do the offers adapt to foreign cultural background (for example to the consumption habits – wine and food)? 2. Do foreign visitors adapt to the local culture? Especially: do they attempt to socialisation/authenticity? If yes, is the authenticity expected by a Chinese wine tourist, for example, the same as the authenticity expected by an American? 3.Is there any common ground? Our initial plan will be to consider firstly Berry's study (1980) about acculturation. This paradigm refers to reciprocity and reciprocal cultural influences. It gives the opportunity to develop new and creative forms of culture. Wine tourism is concerned by these influences as the encounter of foreign wine tourists and local stakeholders implies a mutual discover and alignment. This may be a positive or negative interaction, according to the quality of the dialogue and the offer. The concept of "interculturation" (Guerraoui, 2009) enriches the reflexion by emphasizing the psycho-cultural move and its complexity, its ambivalence and its paradoxical character which is reflected in the systems transformation.

Additional research could focus on how wine tourism experiences could be a key to personal transformation and wisdom (Pine and Gilmore's transformation pyramid, 1999, p.177), especially for foreign visitors from distant markets, and if this could complete/be an alternative theory to acculturation/interculturation.

- If the experiences expected by foreign/French wine tourists in Alsace differ from those expected by foreign/French wine tourists in the Champagne. The results could help to define a common development strategy for these two wine regions in the newly-formed Grand-Est.

This future research could provide managerial contributions to winemakers and wine tourism companies and give them keys for 1. understanding the expectations and behaviours of foreign wine tourists; 2. improving their segmentation; 3. enhancing their offers, marketing strategy and communication.

The results obtained could give the wine/tourism industry keys for developing the training, especially for the contact staff. On the scale of the Alsace wine region, our study could identify keys for developing the destination marketing strategy, particularly towards the foreign markets. On a wider scale, it could give the Grand Est Region (Alsace-Champagne) an indication of possible common actions and tools to develop a new wine-tourism ecosystem.

References

Afonso C. (2017). Wine tourism consumers: who are they and what motivates them? A field work applied to Porto, Rioja and Bordeaux. *Great Wine Capitals Global Network*.

Aldebert B., Rouzies A. (2014). Quelle place pour les méthodes mixtes dans la recherche francophone en management ? *Management international*, 19 (1): 43-60.

Agence d'attractivité de l'Alsace (2017). [online] www.experience.alsace

Atout France (2010). Tourisme et vin, les clientèles françaises et internationales, les concurrents de la France. Comment rester compétitifs ? *Coll. Marketing Touristique*, *La Documentation Française*, Paris.

Atout France (2017). [online] http://atout-france.fr/content/oenotourisme

Atout France (2017). [online] https://www.visitfrenchwine.com/

Atout France (2018). *Assises nationales de l'oenotourisme – Dossier de presse*

Ali-Knight J., Carlsen J. (2003). An exploration of the use of 'extraordinary' experiences in wine tourism. *In:* Lockshin, Rungie (eds) *Proceedings of the International Colloquium in Wine Marketing.* Wine Marketing Group, University of South Australia, Adelaide.

Arnould E.J., Price L.L. (1993). River Magic, extraordinary experience and the extended service encounter. *Journal of consumer research*, 20 (1): 24-45.

Berry J.W. (1980). Social et cultural change. *In:* Triandis, Brislin (eds.) *Handbook of Cross-cultural Psychology*, Boston, Allyn and Bacon, (5):211-279.

Bourgoin A. (2015). *Transformer la visite au domaine en expérience mémorable d'oenotourisme, oenotourisme et marketing expérientiel*. Mémoire de Master professionnel en Marketing sous la direction de Trinquecoste J.F., IAE Bordeaux.

Bruwer J., Alant K. (2009). The hedonic nature of wine tourism consumption: an experiential view. *International Journal of wine business research*, 21 (3): 235-257.

Camus S. (2010). L'authenticité d'un site touristique, ses antécédents et ses influences sur le touriste. *Gestion 2000*: 101-117

Capitello R., Begalli D., Agnoli L. (2013). Tourism experiences and wine experiences: a new approach to the analysis of the visitor perceptions for a destination - The case of Verona. *7th AWBR International Conference*: 1-14.

Caru A., Cova B. (2006). Expériences de consommation et marketing expérientiel. *Revue française de gestion*, 162: 354-367.

Caru A., Cova B. (2007). *Consuming experience*. Routledge, Abingdon: 3-16.

Charters S., Ali-Knight J. (2002). Who is the wine tourist? *Tourism management*, 23: 311-319.

Charters S., Ali-Knight J. (2000). Wine tourism - a thirst for knowledge? *International Journal of Wine Marketing*, 12(3): 70–80.

Charters S., Menival D. (2011). Wine Tourism in Champagne. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 35(1): 102-118.

Cogan L., Charters S., Fountain J., Chapuis C., Lecat B. (2015). Is good wine Enough? Place, reputation, and wine tourism in Burgundy. *In* : Thach L, Charters S (eds) *Best practices in Global Wine Tourism*. Miranda Press: 79-99.

Cohen E. (1988). Authenticity and Commoditization in Tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 15: 371–386.

Cohen E., Ben-Nun L. (2009). The important dimensions of wine tourism experience from potential visitors' perception. *Tourism & Hospitality Research*, 9(1): 20–31.

Conseil Interprofessionnel des Vins d'Alsace (2016). *Rapport de production.*

Conseil Interprofessionnel des Vins d'Alsace (2017). [online] www.vinsalsace.com

Conseil Interprofessionnel des Vins d'Alsace (2019). *Production du vignoble alsacien - 2018*.

Conseil Interprofessionnel des Vins d'Alsace (2019). *Volumes commercialisés par le vignoble alsacien - 2018.*

Debenedetti S. (2003). L'expérience de visite des lieux de loisir : le rôle central des compagnons. *Recherche et applications en marketing*, 18(4): 43-57.

Dubrule P., Mondy R., Rousseau B. (2007). *L'oenotourisme, une valorisation des produits et du patrimoine vitivinicoles. Dit « Rapport Dubrule »*.

Filser M. (2002). Le marketing de la production d'expériences : statut théorique et implications managériales. *Décisions Marketing*, 28: 13-22.

Guerraoui Z. (2009). De l'acculturation à l'interculturation: réflexion épistémologiques. *L'Autre,* La pensée sauvage.

Getz D., Carlsen J., Brown G.P., Havitz M. (2008). Wine tourism and consumers. *In*: Woodside, Martin (eds) *Tourism Management: Analysis, Behavior and Strategy*. Berkshire: CABI, p. 245–268.

Galloway G., Mitchell R., Getz D., Crouch G., Ong B. (2008). Sensation seeking and the prediction of attitudes and behaviours of wine tourists. *Tourism Management*, 29: 950-966.

Graillot L., Mencarelli R., Anteblian B. (2011). Comment gérer des expériences touristiques extraordinaires ? Analyses et recommandations à partir d'une immersion dans les parcs à thème. *Décisions Marketing*, 64.

Hall C.M., Johnson G., Cambourne B., Macionis N., Mitchell R., Sharples L. (2000). Wine tourism: an introduction. *In*: Hall et al. (eds) *Wine Tourism Around the World: Development, management and markets*. Elsevier Science, Oxford: 1-23.

Haller C., Bede S., Couderc M., Millo F. (2015). Pink wine and movie stars: how the provence Wine Trail was established. *In*: Thach L., Charters S. (eds) *Best practices in Global Wine Tourism*. Miranda Press: 99-119.

Hetzel P. (2002). *Planète conso: Marketing expérientiel et nouveaux leviers de consommation*. Economica.

Hollebeck C., Peters C. et Zinkhan G. (2008). Retail spectacles and brand meaning: insights from a brand museum case study. *Journal of Retailing*, 84(3).

Hirschman E., Holbrook M. (1982a). Hedonic consumption: emerging concepts, methods and propositions. *Journal of Marketing*, 46: 92-101.

Holbrook M., Hirschman E. (1982b). The experiential aspects of consumption: consumer fantasies, feelings and fun. *Journal of consumer Research*, 9: 132-140.

Houge Mackenzie S., Kerr J. (2014). The psychological experience of river guiding. *Journal of sport and tourism*, 19(1).

Jong-Hyeong K., Soocheong J. (2016). Determinants of authentic experiences. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(10): 2247-2266.

Kreziak D., Frochot I. (2011). Co-construction de l'expérience touristique, les stratégies des touristes en stations de sport d'hiver. *Décisions Marketing*, 64: 23-33.

Marghobi E. (2018). Analyses statistiques lexicales : une véritable aide à la disposition des recherches qualitatives en tourisme, notamment en matière d'éthique. *Association Francophone de Management du tourisme, Groupe Ethique et Tourisme*. La Semaine du Management 2018, 25 mai, Paris.

Mc Kercher B., Ho P. (2006). Assessing the tourism potential of smaller cultural and heritage attractions. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 14(5): 473-488.

Miles M., Huberman M. (1984). *Qualitative Data Analysis: a source book for new methods*. Sage Publications, 263 p.

Minkiewicz J., Evans J., Bridson K. (2014). How do consumers co-create their experiences? An exploration in the heritage sector. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 30(12): 30-59.

Mitchell R., Hall C.M. (2006). Wine tourism research, the state of play. *Tourism review international*, 9(4): 307-332.

Mossberg L. (2007). A marketing approach to the tourist experience. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 7(1): 59-74.

Office de tourisme de Kaysersberg (2017). [online] www.parenthèse-vigneronne.com

Oh H., Fiore A.M., Jeoung M. (2007). Measuring experience economy concepts: tourism applications. *Journal of travel research*, 46: 119-132.

Oiv - Organisation Internationale de la Vigne et du Vin (2017). *Eléments de conjoncture mondiale*.

Orta - Observatoire Régional du Tourisme d'Alsace (novembre 2016). *Chiffres clés du tourisme dans le vignoble alsacien*. [online] www.clicalsace.fr

Orta - Observatoire Régional du Tourisme d'Alsace (Juillet 2018). *L'investissement touristique en Alsace entre 2014 et 2016*. [online] www.clicalsace.fr

Orta - Observatoire Régional du Tourisme d'Alsace (Juillet 2018). *Offre, fréquentation, clientèles et chiffre d'affaire des lieux de visite en destination Alsace*. [online] www.clicalsace.fr

Orta - Observatoire Régional du Tourisme d'Alsace (Janvier 2019). *Chiffres clés du tourisme de la destination Alsace*. [online] www.clicalsace.fr

Orta - Observatoire Régional du Tourisme d'Alsace (mars 2019). *Etude sur les clientèles touristiques du vignoble alsacien*. [online] www.clicalsace.fr

Orta - Observatoire Régional du Tourisme d'Alsace (mars 2019). *Enquête clientèles 2016-2017. Focus : les oenotouristes*. [online] www.clicalsace.fr

Orta - Observatoire Régional du Tourisme d'Alsace (2019). *Le bilan de l'activité touristique en Alsace en 2018, une analyse de l'Observatoire du Tourisme d'Alsace* - *dossier de presse*. [online] www.clicalsace.fr

Pallud J., Elie-Dit-Cosaque C. (2011). Authenticité en ligne, expérience émotionnelle et intentions de visite. *Management et Avenir*, 45: 257-279

Pearce P., Moscardo G. (1986). The Concept of Authenticity in Tourist Experiences, *Australian and New Zealand Journal of Sociology*, 22: 121–132.

Pikkemaat B., Peters M., Boksberger P., Secco M. (2009). The staging of experiences in wine tourism. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 18(2): 237– 253.

Pine J.B., Gilmore J.H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business Review*, 76(4): 97-105.

Pine J.B., Gilmore J.H. (1999). *The experience economy: Work is Theatre and Every Business a Stage*. Harvard Business School Press Books.

Pine J.B., Gilmore J.H. (2004). Experience is Marketing. *Brand Strategy*.

Pine J.B., Gilmore J.H. (2007). *Authenticity: what consumers really want*. Harvard Business School Press Books, 320 p.

Pine J.B., Gilmore J.H. (2008a). Get Real. *Aba Bank Marketing*. Abstract from Pine J.B., Gilmore J.H. (2007). *Authenticity, what customers really want*. Harvard Business School Press Books.

Pine J.B., Gilmore J.H. (2008b). The eight principles of strategic authenticity. *Strategy and Leadership*, 36: 35-40.

Pine J.B., Gilmore J.H. (2010). In search of authenticity. *Market Leader,* 48: 52-54.

Quadri-Felliti D., Fiore A.M. (2012). Experience economy constructs as a framework for understanding wine tourism. *Journal of vacation marketing*, 18(1): 3-15.

Rüdiger J., Hanf J.H., Schweicker E. (2014). Die Erwartungshaltung von Weintouristen. *Schriftlicher Beitrag anlässlich der 54. Jahrestagung der Gesellschaft für Wirtschafts- und Sozialwissenschaften des Landbaues e.V*.

Roederer C., Filser M. (2015). *Le Marketing expérientiel, vers un marketing de la cocréation*. Vuibert, Paris.

Roederer C. (2012). Stratégies expérientielles et dimensions de l'expérience, la quête de l'avantage concurrentiel commercial. *Décisions marketing*, 67: 63-74.

Roederer C. (2012). Contribution à la conceptualisation de l'expérience de consommation : émergence des dimensions de l'expérience au travers de récits de vie. *Recherche et Applications en Marketing*, 27(3).

Route des Vins d'Alsace (2017). [online] https://www.route-des-vins-alsace.com

Schmitt B. (1999). Experiential Marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 15: 53- 67.

Syndicat des Vignerons Indépendants d'Alsace (2017). [online] www.alsace-du-vin.com

Thach L., Charters S. (2015). *Best practices in Global wine tourism*. Miranda Press.

Visseyras M. (2019). La téléréalité a fait de Colmar une destination à la mode pour les Chinois. *Le*

Figaro Economie, 8 mai 2019.

Vo Thanh T., Kirova V. (2018). Wine tourism experience: A netnography study. *Journal of Business Research*, 83: 30-37.

Appendix: Detailed results

Figure 1: The expectations of the Alsatian wine tourists (Hess, 2017)

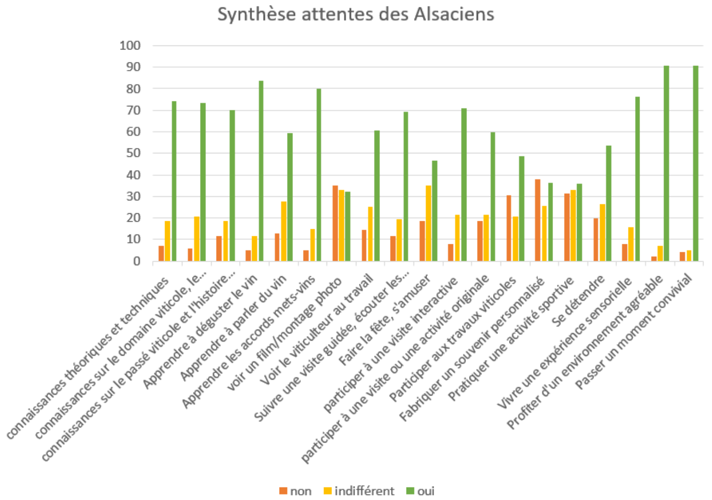
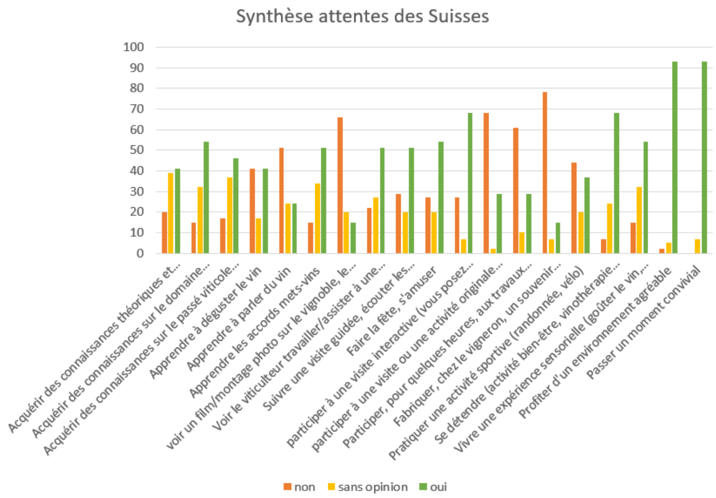


Figure 2: The expectations of the Swiss wine tourists (Hess, 2017)



How nomad entrepreneurs contribute in building: Dynamic capabilities in a global context, The case of flying winemakers

Sylvaine Castellano
PSB, Paris School of Business
59 rue nationale, 75013 - France
s.castellano@psbedu.paris

Insaf Khelladi
ICN Business School
13, rue Michel Ney, 54500, Nancy - France
insaf.khelladi@icn-artem.com

Rossella Sorio
ICN Business School
13, rue Michel Ney, 54500, Nancy - France
rossella.sorio@icn-artem.com

Introduction

The questions of entrepreneurship, globalized environment and dynamic capabilities have rarely been studied together (Teece, 2014). Over the past 30 years, a strong emphasis has been put on the convergence between globalization and the successful transfer of knowledge (Skyrme, 1997). When taking into consideration an international perspective, most studies either adopt an organizational – between organizations (Tsai, 2001), or within organizations (Inkpen, 2008) – or an expatriate (Hébert et al., 2005) level of analysis to knowledge transfer. However, few studies have analyzed the role of entrepreneurs as micro-level connectors in globalized environments, which we aim to address here. The sharing of knowledge to facilitate the development of dynamic capabilities and the effective exploitation of a geographically dispersed body of knowledge need further investigation.

Herein, we use the nomad entrepreneurship (Torrès, 2004; Marchesnay, 2011) and the specific setting of flying winemakers (hereafter: FWM) to bring together these complementary streams of the literature. The growth of FWM as a new type of nomad entrepreneur plays a major role in the knowledge creation and dissemination in the globalized context of the wine sector. FWM are external consultants hired to help firms to manage the constant innovation of the production processes (Giuliani, 2007), thereby allowing the firms to be more dynamic. Indeed, FWM contribute to move from a generation-to-generation knowledge sharing model within the 'terroirs' of the old world to a multi-localized and multidirectional model.

The objective of this paper is to investigate how nomad entrepreneurs create global dynamic capabilities in the context of FWM. We proceed in three steps: (1) we identify the types of FWM according to knowledge creation and dissemination; (2) we analyze the FWM's role from a dynamic capability perspective; and (3) we investigate the potential drawbacks of such dynamics in a globalized context.

1. Entrepreneurial dynamic capabilities in a global context

A global dynamic capability is "the creation of difficult-to-imitate combination of resources, including effective coordination of inter-organizational relationships, on a global basis that provide a competitive advantage" (Griffith and Harvey, 2001, in Zahra et al., 2006). In the other hand, the dynamic capability of a new firm formation is "a process executed at the individual level." (Nowbert, 2005). As such, entrepreneurial capabilities represent "international opportunity identification, institutional bridging, and a preference and capacity for cross-cultural collaboration" (Jones et al., 2011). Global entrepreneurs "sense, shape, and exploit opportunities" (Teece, 2014). They leverage and orchestrate their capabilities on a global scale (Pitelis and Teece, 2010). In a globalizing world, nomadic behavior (Bruinsma et al., 1998) and dynamic capabilities represent a major trend (Torres, 2004). Entrepreneurs can adopt nomadic behaviors due to globalization and environmental complexity. They live and work within diverse networks, communities and 'tribes' (Marchesnay, 2004). A nomadic approach might unveil the benefits of the global scene to entrepreneurship.

2. Nomad entrepreneurs

Over time, global entrepreneurs become connectors as they develop the capability to relocate from place to place. We associate this process with nomad entrepreneurship, which has been identified in previous work (Marchesnay 2011). A nomad entrepreneur is defined as someone whose economic activity has no geographical tie to his/her place of origin (Watson 2010). Contrary to a local entrepreneur who is embedded in the community, a nomad entrepreneur is in search of oases of economic opportunity (Dahl and Sorenson 2009). Nomad entrepreneurs are spatial opportunity seekers (Bruinsma et al. 1998). They act outside the parameters of global entrepreneurs because they think across or even beyond borders (Isenberg 2008).

Nomad entrepreneurs use distance to generate new products or services and hence gain a competitive advantage while tapping resources or serving customers worldwide (Isenberg 2008). Nomad entrepreneurs are also characterized by major competencies, such as the ability to articulate a global purpose, to build alliances, networks and partnerships and to shape global value chains (Isenberg 2008). They consider the world their playground, seeking to be multi-localized to take advantage of multiple environments and therefore develop their dynamic capabilities (Torres 2004). Nomadism involves the use of multiple localization strategies by the entrepreneur to better use and manage his/her dynamic capabilities (Castellano et al. 2015). To better understand how nomad entrepreneurs contribute in building dynamic capabilities in a global context, we use the example of FWM who relocate from winery to winery all over the world.

3. The wine industry context: FWM as nomad and global entrepreneurs

The combination of the transportation industry and the individual-based (vs. organizational-based) diffusion of practices on a global scale contributed to the emergence of a new activity: flying wine making. The expression ‘Flying winemaker’ was initially coined by Tony Laithwaite, as during the 1980s, he used many southern hemisphere winemakers to work on European cellars (Robinson and Harding 2015). Flying winemakers offer their services as experts and consultants all over the world (Anderson et al. 2001). They represent individual based connectors in this global industry. They also acquire and absorb practices and knowhow in different parts of the world and diffuse them across firms, countries and hemispheres.

The term ‘FWM’ represents a new entrepreneurial activity. These nomad entrepreneurs fly from one wine region or vineyard to another one – just as bees fly from flowers to flowers in their role of pollination – sometimes on different continents and/or during the off-season in their home region. A FWM can consequently oversee 2 to 3 harvests (and vintage) annually (Wine Republic 2007). This has facilitated the supervision of wine growing and winemaking in different countries. As such, FWM participate in re-designing the diffusion of practices and know-how transfer on a global level.

Flying winemakers are modern entrepreneurs who participate in the global exchange of know-how and traditions that have long existed in the wine industry (Veseth 2008). They establish new rules for the game worldwide. New technologies (i.e., water system for irrigation, grape trellis system, etc.) have experienced a much faster global diffusion rate than ever before.

4. Expected results: FWM model of dynamic capabilities from a nomadic entrepreneurship perspective

Dynamic capabilities, developed by nomad entrepreneurs, foster the creation of knowledge intensive products (Weerawardena et al. 2007). Although the wine sector is a traditional and established industry, the know-how, practices and innovations make it knowledge-intensive, especially over the past 30 years and the accelerated globalization of the industry. Building on Teece (2014), we can state that dynamic capabilities for FWM refer to the nomad entrepreneur who integrates, builds, and reconfigures internal and external competencies to address rapidly changing environments. The dynamic capability perspective of the nomad entrepreneur is focused on fast adaptation and flexibility across multiple environments (Pitelis and Teece 2010). Moreover, this approach helps to explain the new nature and essence of nomadic entrepreneurship in globalized and knowledge-intensive activities (Pitelis and Teece 2010). Hereafter, we analyze the underlying process behind these dynamics.

4. 1. Connector and orchestrator capabilities

FWM are knowledge dissemination facilitators (Aylward 2005). They act as knowledge suppliers (Pezzillo et al. 2014). First, strong dynamic capabilities help nomad entrepreneurs to stay informed of relocation opportunities and market needs worldwide (Teece 2014). Moreover, FWM become not only connectors but also orchestrators (Pitelis and Teece 2010). As they possess capabilities that are developed over time, they can create additional value and scale them on a global level. Orchestration opportunities increase with the dynamic capabilities (Pitelis and Teece 2010) of the FWM and their nomadism.

4. 2. External and internal dimensions of dynamic capabilities

As connectors, FWM bring together the local and the global. They orchestrate their prior knowledge gained from previous relocation decisions with the knowledge of the local winery they currently work with. Hence, in line with previous studies (Wu 2007), the more abundant nomad entrepreneurs’ own dynamic capabilities, the greater the willingness of the local winery to collaborate with FWM. Such a process reflects the two main complementary components of dynamic capabilities: external resources from the local winery and internal resources from the nomad entrepreneur (Wu 2007).

4. 3. Time and space dimensions of dynamic capabilities

Dynamic capabilities can be sequenced over time and across different geographic markets (Teece 2014). Regarding the time dimension, nomad entrepreneurs developed core resources related to wine growing and wine making activities over a time span (human capital and know-how). Additionally, the resources provided by each local winery that FWM worked with over time would fit under the time dimension (Wu 2007). Regarding the space dimension, nomad entrepreneurs' networks (Wu 2007) deriving from relocation activities in geographically dispersed wine regions are important dynamic capabilities.

4. 4. Cumulative rate of dissemination

FWM disseminate knowledge on grape growing and wine making processes across various places (Pezzillo et al. 2014). Given that prior knowledge influences the absorptive capacity of firms to obtain new knowledge (Wu 2007), dynamic capabilities represent a cumulative process as each relocation decision augments the FWM's knowledge (Weerawardena et al. 2007). Such processes influence the speed, scope and extent of the internationalization (Jones et al. 2011) of nomad entrepreneurs. Overall, FWM (1) possess connecting and orchestrating capabilities to (2) combine internal and external capabilities (3) that are developed over space and time and (4) that are cumulatively disseminated based on prior experience.

Research implications & conclusion

This conceptual article shows the extent that globalization has influenced the diffusion and transfer of practices, know-how and knowledge. Indeed, the wine industry has undergone major changes, particularly related to the process of globalization. Thus, this industry has encouraged the emergence of a new type of actor: FWM. These nomad entrepreneurs participate in the diffusion of new practices and know-how that are inherent to the globalization of the wine industry.

This research contributes on several levels. From a theoretical perspective, this article is the first to use nomad entrepreneurs to bridge the gap between dynamic capabilities, entrepreneurship and globalization. Nomadism represents a new trend that calls for further research in these streams of the literature. As this study is conceptual, it might be of interest to investigate empirically the model presented herein. In addition, nomadism can further explain intra and inter-organizational processes such as knowledge transfer (Del Giudice and Maggioni 2014), intellectual capital management (Caravannis et al. 2014) and performance (Schiavone et al. 2014), and the emerging phenomenon of company networks (Trequattrini et al. 2012). Second, while previous studies have analyzed specific context (e.g., new vs. established firms in Zahra et al. 2006), we advance the understanding of dynamic capabilities in established vs. traditional industries, specifically the wine industry. The suggested model of dynamic capabilities of the nomadic entrepreneurship can be further developed in other industries. Third, from a managerial perspective, we have identified how dynamic capabilities evolve over time and space. The initial model was characterized by a unique center (old world) creating and diffusing knowledge. In a globalized world (new world), the knowledge flow is multi-directional. Nomad entrepreneurs are connectors whose role is to pollinate firms all over the world with their knowledge through dynamic capabilities that cross borders.

Finally, while most studies emphasize the benefits of globalization and dynamic capabilities, the present study also acknowledge the drawbacks of such dynamics. Hence, on the one hand, wineries can benefit from FWM as connectors and gain access to specific know-how and practices; and still be aware of the inherent risks. On the other hand, wine specialists in general and FWM in particular can benefit by developing their skills in many ways, including by learning the practices related to wine growing and wine making in the different wine regions around the world.

References

Altintas, G. 2009. "*Capacités dynamiques, revue de la littérature, limites et voies de recherché*". In XVIIIe Conférence de l'Association Internationale de Management Stratégique, Grenoble (pp. 3-5), June.

Anderson, K., D. Norman, and G. Glyn Wittwer. 2001. "*Globalization and the world's wine markets: overview*", Centre for International Economic Studies and School of Economics, Adelaide University. CIES discussion paper # 0143.

Aylward, D. 2005. "Global landscapes: a speculative assessment of emerging organizational structures within the international wine industry." *Prometheus* 23(4): 421-36.

Aylward, D. and G. Carey. 2009. "High-value niche production: what Australian wineries might learn from a Bordeaux first growth." *International Journal of Technology, Policy and Management* 9(4): 342-357.

Bruinsma, F., C. Gorter, and P. Nijkamp. 1998. "*Nomadic Firms in a Globalizing Economy: A Comparative Analysis and Policy Perspectives*" (No. 98-120/3). Tinbergen Institute Discussion Paper.

Carayannis, E., M. Del Giudice, and M.R. Della Peruta. 2014. "Managing the intellectual capital within government-university-industry R&D partnerships." *Journal of Intellectual Capital* 15(4): 611 – 630.

Castellano, S., A. Maalaoui and A. Springuel. 2015. "Expanding location advantages from agglomeration: a legitimacy perspective of global location portfolios in the electric vehicle industry." *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation Management* 19 (5/6): 343 – 362.

Dahl, M.S., and O. Sorenson. 2009. "The embedded entrepreneur." *European Management Review* 6(3): 172-181.

Del Giudice, M. and V. Maggioni. 2014. "Managerial practices and operative directions of knowledge management within inter-firm networks: a global view." *Journal of Knowledge Management* 18(5): 841-846

Deroudille, J-P. 2003. *Le Vin face à la Mondialisation,* Paris : Hachette.

Dunning, J.H. 1998. "Location and the Multinational Enterprise: A Neglected Factor?" *Journal of International Business Studies* 29(1): 45-66.

Friedland, J. 2015. *Eatymology: the Dictionary of Modern Gastronomy.* Sourcebooks, Illinois.

Divo du Vin. 2018. "Flying wine maker (vigneron du monde)". Retrieved March 10, 2018, from http://www.dico-du-vin.com/flying-wine-maker-vigneron-du-monde

Galet, P. 2000. *Dictionnaire Encyclopédique des Cépages*. Paris: Hachette.

Giuliani, E. 2007. "The selective nature of knowledge networks in clusters: evidence from the wine industry." *Journal of Economic Geography* 7(2): 139-168.

Giuliani, E. and M. Bell. 2005. "The micro-determinants of meso-level learning and innovation: evidence from a Chilean wine cluster." *Research policy* 34(1): 47-68.

Hébert, L., P. Very, and P.W. Beamish. 2005. "Expatriation as a bridge over troubled water: A knowledge-based perspective applied to cross-border acquisitions". *Organization Studies* 26(10): 1455-1476.

Inkpen, A.C. 2008. "Knowledge transfer and international joint ventures: the case of NUMMI and General Motors." *Strategic Management Journal* 29(4): 447-453.

Johnson, H. 1990. *Une histoire mondiale du vin : de l'Antiquité à nos Jours.* Paris : Hachette.

Jones, M.V., N. Coviello, and Y. K. Tang. 2011. "International entrepreneurship research (1989–2009): a domain ontology and thematic analysis." *Journal of Business Venturing* 26(6): 632-659.

Lagendijk, A. 2004. "Global 'lifeworld' versus local 'systemworld': how flying Winemakers produce global wines in interconnected locales." *Tijdschrift voor Economische en Sociale Geografie* 95(5): 511-526.

Linnenluecke, M.K., A. Stathakis, and A. Griffiths. 2011. "Firm relocation as adaptive response to climate change and weather extremes." Global Environmental Change 21(1): 123-133.

Long Shadows. 2018. "Founder: Allen Shoup". Retrieved March 10, 2018, from https://longshadows.com/about-us/profile.php?name=Allen+Shoup&id=1

Marchesnay, M. 2011. “Fifty years of entrepreneurship and SME: a personal view.” *Journal of Small Business and Enterprise Development* 18(2): 352-365.

Marchesnay, M. 2004. “Small firms and growth: a French “hyper-modern” view, in Value Creation in Entrepreneurship and SMEs”. Paper presented to the Rencontres de St-Gall, sept. 2004.

McDougall, P. P., and B. M. Oviatt. 2000. “International entrepreneurship: the intersection of two research paths.” *Academy of Management Journal* 43(5): 902-906.

Pezzillo Iacono M., E. De Nito, V. Esposito, M. Martinez, and L. Moschera. 2014. “Investigating the relationship between coordination mechanisms and knowledge in a wine firm.” *Knowledge and Process Management* 21: 280–291.

Pigouche M.C. 1999. “Les vins de cépage : une production mondiale en plein essor.” CEVILAR (Comité Economique des Vins du Langudeoc-Roussillon), Lattes.

Pitelis, C. N., and D. J. Teece. 2010. “Cross-border market co-creation, dynamic capabilities and the entrepreneurial theory of the multinational enterprise.” *Industrial and Corporate Change* 19(4): 1247-1270.

Robinson, J. and J. Harding. 2015. *The Oxford Companion to Wine*. Oxford University

Press.Rothaermel, F. T., and A. M. Hess. 2007. “Building dynamic capabilities: Innovation driven by individual-, firm-, and network-level effects.” *Organization Science* 18(6): 898-921.

Sassyhongkong. 2015. “Man of the Month: Eddie McDougall, The Flying Winemaker”. Retrieved March 10, 2018, from http://www.sassyhongkong.com/man-of-the-month-eddiemcdougall-the-flying-winemaker-style/

Schiavone, F., A. Meles, V. Verdoliva, and M. Del Giudice. 2014. “Does location in a science park really matter for firms’ intellectual capital performance?” *Journal of Intellectual Capital* 15(4): 497-515.

Skyrme, D.J. 1997. “The Globalisation and Virtualisation of Knowledge.” *Gyosei Journal* 1(3): 71-86.

Teece, D.J. 2014. “A dynamic capabilities-based entrepreneurial theory of the multinational enterprise.” *Journal of International Business Studies* 45(1): 8-37.

Terroireexperience. 2018. “Michel Rolland: Flying WineMaker”. Retrieved March 10, 2018, from https://www.terroirexperience.fr/blog/michel-rolland/

The Flying Winemaker. 2018. “About Eddie McDougall”. Retrieved March 10, 2018, from https://flyingwinemaker.com.hk/eddie-mcdougall/

Torrès, O. 2004. “The failure of the Californian Mondavi's implantation in France: entrepreneurship and corporatisme.” *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business* 1(1): 70-99.

Trequattrini, R., G. Russo, and R. Lombardi. 2012. “Defining Business Network.” *International Journal of Business Research and Management* 3(1): 29-34.

Tsai, W. 2001. “Knowledge transfer in intraorganizational networks: Effects of network position and absorptive capacity on business unit innovation and performance.” *Academy of Management Journal* 44(5): 996-1004.

Veseth, M. 2008. “Flying Winemakers and the Glocalization of Wine”. Retrieved March 10, 2018, from http://wineeconomist.com/2008/07/20/flying-winemakers-and-the-glocalizationof-wine/

Watson, J. L. 2010. “Economic and Policy Outlook Rossland.” British Columbia Preliminary Report.

Weerawardena, J., G.S. Mort, P.W. Liesch, and G. Knight. 2007. “Conceptualizing accelerated internationalization in the born global firm: A dynamic capabilities perspective.” *Journal of World Business* 42(3): 294-306.

Wine Republic. 2007. The Flying Winemakers. Issue 26 (June-July).

Wu, L.Y. 2007. “Entrepreneurial resources, dynamic capabilities and start-up performance of Taiwan's high-tech firms.” *Journal of Business Research* 60(5): 549-555.

Zahra S.A., H.J. Sapienza, and P. Davidson. 2006. “Entrepreneurship and Dynamic Capabilities: A review, model and research agenda.” *Journal of Management Studies* 43(4): 917-955.

Zahra, S. A., and G. George. 2002. “Absorptive capacity: A review, reconceptualization, and extension." *Academy of Management Review* 27(2): 185-203.

Emotions to invest for performance in wine & spirit family business

Yosr Ben Tahar*
Associate professor, PSB (Paris School of Business)
59 Rue Nationale, 75013 Paris
y.bentahar@psbedu.paris

Coralie Haller
Associate professor, EM Strasbourg
61 Avenue de la Forêt Noire, 67000 Strasbourg
coralie.haller@em-strasbourg.eu

Jean Eric Pelet
Associate professor, ESCE
10 Rue Sextius Michel, 75015 Paris
je.pelet@gmail.com

* Corresponding author

Introduction

In order to characterize entrepreneurs, approaches developed aim to explain the commitment of some individual in the entrepreneurial process at a given moment. Since this action is by definition singular and particular, then the characteristics of the person or the situations must also be singular. Thus, entrepreneurs perceive situations, evaluate opportunities and availability of resources more positively than others (Baron, 2008; Foo, 2011; Welpe, Spörrle, Grichnik, Michl, & Audretsch, 2012). This is supported by empirical results showing that entrepreneurs have a high level of self-efficacy (Chen, Greene, & Crick, 1998; Zhao, Seibert, & Hills, 2005), believe in their abilities (Baron, 2008) and are optimistic (Hmieleski & Baron, 2009). Some argue that positive emotions towards their work and especially their business are part of the explaining factors. When they talk about their attachment and feelings toward their businesses, they use parenthood metaphors (Cardon, Zietsma, Saparito, Matherne, & Davis, 2005; Dodd, 2002). This attachment is even more important in family business, to which are added identity, history and family patrimony (Sharma & Irving, 2005) expliciting a great influence of emotions.

Research highlights relationships between emotions, stress, resilience (Corner, Singh, & Pavlovich, 2017), decision-making and business performance (Wolfe & Shepherd, 2015), especially in family business. These are explanatory relationships that bind the variables and passion is one of the factors. Entrepreneurial passion involves two components, one component related to affect and another to self-identity (Vignoles, Regalia, Manzi, Golledge, & Scabini, 2006). Identity's components and roles are the explanatory factors of the entrepreneurial behavior. Role identity have an important influence on business performance through its effect on cognitions and decision-making. Research about the relationships between emotions, cognitions and behavior are important because of the range of roles assumed by entrepreneurs. In the approach developed by Cardon and colleagues, entrepreneur has three roles: inventor, founder, developer, or a combination thereof. Entrepreneurial passion and identity are synergistic, but their relationships have not been examined empirically (Yitshaki & Kropp, 2016). Yitshaki & Kropp (2016), show the need for the development of studies on how passion and entrepreneurial role identities interact in different contexts.

Previous studies have focused distinctly on the direct relationship between place attachment, family influence and job satisfaction on business performance. In this study we are interested to explore the effects of positive emotions on family business performance in wine and spirit sectors. Place attachment have an indirect positive effect on business performance. This effect can be mediated by the entrepreneurial passion given the direct relationship between place attachment and entrepreneurial passion and the direct relationship between entrepreneurial passion and business performance. Moreover, the attachment to the place allows the realization and fulfillment of identity, especially the professional one. Therefore, it contributes to entrepreneurial job satisfaction and by the way to business performance. In family business, the influence of the family through different types of resources and governance may have a positive effect on business performance. As a mean of entrepreneurial resources, family influence may enhance entrepreneurial passion and job satisfaction.

The main contribution of this work is to highlight the associated effects of place attachment and entrepreneurial passion in the development of family business in the wine and spirits sector. Place attachment and the influence of the family become organizational and individual resources guiding identity construction. Such results support that positive emotions are crucial in resources acquisition, coping abilities and entrepreneurial behavior. Resources moderates negative outcomes of occupational stress, and enhance individual investment in occupational accomplishment. Thus, results would provide empirical explanations about emotions' contribution to decision-making process. Theoretical implications about entrepreneurial passion and self-identity, will be discussed.

1. Conceptual framework

1. 1. Positive entrepreneurial emotions

Since a decade, emotions are emerging as a hot topic in entrepreneurship field (Grichnik, Smeja, & Welpe, 2010). "Entrepreneurial emotion refers to the affect, emotions, moods, and/or feelings—of individuals or a collective—that are antecedent to, concurrent with, and/or a consequence of the entrepreneurial process, meaning the recognition/creation, evaluation, reformulation, and/or the exploitation of a possible opportunity" (Cardon, Foo, Shepherd, & Wiklund, 2012). Baron (2008), call for its integration into studies and the development of empirical results concerning their effects on the individual and organizational levels. It have a great effects on cognitions in uncertainty situations or environments impacting decisions-making, perceptions, creativity, social network, …

Studies of emotions' valence and perceptions show that positive emotions are associated with more favorable perceptions than negative ones (Baron, Hmieleski, & Henry, 2012; Foo, Uy, & Baron, 2009). In addition to effect on commitment, risk-taking, adoption of innovation, positive emotions are a motivation mean for accomplishing and goals achievement. Motivation, commitment and positive perception allow entrepreneurs to perceive situations as less complex and less risky. Therefore, perceptions play a role in the lowering of the level of stress, enhancing coping abilities.

In addition to studies about the valence of the emotions felt during the entrepreneurial process, entrepreneurial passion occupies a place in the studies to explain the entrepreneurial behavior (Cardon, Glauser, & Murnieks, 2017; Thorgren & Wincent, 2015). Two main conceptual approaches are identified in the literature. In the first one, passion is considered as levels of feelings were there is an acceptable level called harmonious and another one called obsessive (Vallerand et al., 2003). The obsessive passion is dysfunctional inducing role conflict, stress, work-family conflict but also an over positive and enthusiastic evaluation of the business situation (Spivack, McKelvie, & Haynie, 2014). In the second approach entrepreneurial passion is about positive feelings induced by the "engagement in activities that have identity meaning and salience to the entrepreneur" (Cardon, Wincent, Singh, & Drnovsek, 2009). It is considered as an intense feeling of longing that an entrepreneur feels for objects or activities that are deeply meaningful to his or her identity.

Baum & Locke (2004) found that passion have a positive effect on business growth. In addition, the results of some studies show that entrepreneurial passion is highly explanatory of the persistence of entrepreneurs. It could also explain this persistence when the financial results are not up to expectations. Hamilton (2000) pointed out that job satisfaction, a positive emotion felt towards work, is an explanation of the persistence of entrepreneurs. Empirical results from comparative studies between entrepreneurs and non-entrepreneurs show that the formers report higher levels of job satisfaction and lower levels of occupational stress and somatizations (Baron, Franklin, & Hmieleski, 2016; Bradley & Roberts, 2004; Carree & Verheul, 2012).

1. 2. Identity role and place attachment

Place attachment refers to functional and emotional attachment to a location (Debenedetti, Oppewal, & Arsel, 2014; Williams & Vaske, 2003). The concept was developed in recreational and tourism activities explaining consumer attachment to a place explaining the consumer's attachment to a place and its recurring return to consume leisure and tourism activities. It occurs at both individual and group levels (Scannell & Gifford, 2010). At the individual level, it refers to personal connections to a place contributing to the sense of self because it made the place meaningful (Manzo, 2005; Twigger-ross & Uzzell, 1996). At the group level, the attachment is related to shared symbols and valued referring to culture (Low & Altman, 1992). This can be located at family level, particularly in family business context.

The functional dimension of place attachment is place dependence. It refers to the opportunity given by the place to meet the needs and expectations of the person (Stokols & Shumaker, 1981). Place attachment is associated to notions of self-accomplishment, identity building and motivation. It leads to a positive feelings supporting the investment of resources in order to align the image with the identity and respond to the accomplishment of the person through his or her activities (Burke & Reitzes, 1991). Identity, a way of a sensemaking (Weber & Glynn, 2006), defines and gives meaning to an entity (Corley et al., 2006).

The emotional component of the concept is defined as the attachment of a person to place because what it means and symbolizes for him or her. Defined as a sub-structure of the identity, place identity, consists in cognitions representing memories, ideas, feelings, attitudes, values, preferences, meanings and conceptions of behavior (Proshansky, Fabian, & Kaminoff, 1983). Entrepreneurial identities are cognitive schemas of interpretations and behavioural meanings (Anderson & Warren, 2011; Shepherd & Haynie, 2009). Those cognitions are explicative of the investment in a particular location.

Place is a social construction, plays a role in identity formation, and refers to space infused with people, objects, symbols, and social meanings and values. In this article, we conceive of place as a "discursive resource" drawn from social, cultural, and historical understandings of particular geographic, physical locations (Larson & Pearson, 2012). Kibler, Fink, Lang, & Muñoz (2015) found out that place attachment have a positive effect on entrepreneurial legitimacy and commitment to the development of economic activities in a specific location. These results support findings of Hallak, Brown, & Lindsay (2012) support an indirect relationship between place attachment and business performance.

1. 3. Family influence and emotional ownership

Family business is defined "a business governed and/or managed with the intention to shape and pursue the vision of the business held by a dominant coalition controlled by members of the same family or a small number of families in a manner that is potentially sustainable across generations of the family or families" (Chua, Chrisman, & Sharma, 1999). Consistent with this definition, Gundry and Welsch (1994) found that one important indicator of the influence that families have is "their numbers in terms of being engaged as employees" and as "family investors".

While entrepreneurs, new founders, refer to the parenthood relationship to describe their attachment to the company, the family business represents a part of everyone's story, the pride of parents' or grandparents' accomplishment, and children's future. It concentrate values, culture, image and identity. Gómez-Mejía, Haynes, Núñez-Nickel, Jacobson, & Moyano-Fuentes (2007) call the emotional values to family business and the control derived from it as 'socioemotional wealth'. They state that the perpetuation of the family's socioemotional wealth guide the decision-making. Divergent implications are associated to it. On the one hand, it is a mean of accumulation and sharing resources crucial for the development of the business. On the other hand, it is associate with a lack of control and less autonomy for the entrepreneur.

What is certain is that interactions between the company and the family carry emotions affecting decision-making. It explains the lack of rationality regarding the evaluation of the company and the choices of development (Stanley, 2010; Zellweger & Astrachan, 2008). Results from McConaughy, Matthews, & Fialko (2001) and Astrachan, Klein, & Smyrnios (2002) support that this influence have a positive effect on business performance. In this case, several characteristics are considered as resources helping the leadership in the decision-making. It gives him a coherent framework aligning his personal goals with those of the company. In this way it helps to reduce ambiguity, support motivation and job satisfaction. The availability of resources contributes to the fulfillment of identity roles. It also contributes to the positive emotions needed to sustain engagement.

2. Method

2. 1. Sample

Data will be collected through an online survey that will be distributed to wine and spirit makers. Professional networks will be used to disseminate the questionnaire. The goal is to manage to collect 300 complete and relevant answers. The target of our study is made up of family businesses producing wine or spirits, managed by one of its members. We expect to have an unequal sample of men and women for different reasons. It will be interesting to reach comparable groups to observe potential gender differences. Although we do not expect significant differences between wine and spirit producers, the comparison of groups can be interesting.

2. 2. Measures

2. 2. 1. Place attachment

Two dimensions are associated to place attachment construct: place identity and place dependence (Kyle, Absher, & Graefe, 2003). The measure used in the questionnaire was developed by Williams & Vaske (2003), each dimension is measured by six items. The scale was developed and validated in the context of tourists. Item formulation for place identity and place dependance were modified to be coherent with the context of the study. The objective is to capture the attachment of entrepreneurs to the location where their family created the business and made its wine or spirit.

2. 2. 2. Family influence

Family influence is measured by the scale developed by Astrachan, Klein, & Smyrnios (2002). The measure have three dimensions: power, experience and culture. Power subscale is measured by 4 questions about the capital structure, the type of governance and the participation of family members in the governance of the company. Experience subscale encompass 6 questions evaluating the active participation of family members to running the business. Culture subscale is composed of 13 statements with likert scale about support, loyalty, pride and the influence of participating to the business on personal life.

2. 2. 3. *Entrepreneurial passion*

Entrepreneurial passion resulted in the development of three different entrepreneurial role identities: (1) an inventor identity, (2) a founder identity, and (3) a developer identity (Cardon, Gregoire, Stevens, & Patel, 2013). Inventor subscale is measured through 5 items while founder and developer subscales are measured with 4 items each.

2. 2. 4. *Job satisfaction*

Job satisfaction comes from two main categories of variables (Locke, 1976; Spector, 1997). The first category is the work environment and the associated factors (tasks, rewards, etc.). The second category is that of individual factors (personality, experiences, etc.). The 3 items subscale from the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire (MOAQ; Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979) is used.

2. 2. 5. *Business performance*

In accordance with previous studies, 3 questions about objective performance (growth, profits, market shares) and 3 other about subjective performance (perceived business performance assessed by the entrepreneur) will be used.

References

Astrachan, J. H., Klein, S. B., & Smyrnios, K. X. (2002). The F-PEC Scale of Family Influence: A Proposal for Solving the Family Business Definition Problem. *Family Business Review*, *15*(1), 45–58. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1741-6248.2002.00045.x

Baron, R. A. (2008). The Role of Affect in the Entrepreneurial Process. *The Academy of Management Review*, *33*(2), 328–340. https://doi.org/10.2307/20159400

Baron, R. A., Franklin, R. J., & Hmieleski, K. M. (2016). Why Entrepreneurs Often Experience Low, Not High, Levels of Stress: The Joint Effects of Selection and Psychological Capital. *Journal of Management*, *42*(3), 742–768. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206313495411

Baron, R. A., Hmieleski, K. M., & Henry, R. A. (2012). Entrepreneurs' dispositional positive affect: The potential benefits – and potential costs – of being "up". *Journal of Business Venturing*, *27*(3), 310–324. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2011.04.002

Baum, J. R., & Locke, E. A. (2004). The Relationship of Entrepreneurial Traits, Skill, and Motivation to Subsequent Venture Growth. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *89*(4), 587–598. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.89.4.587

Bradley, D. E., & Roberts, J. A. (2004). Self-Employment and Job Satisfaction: Investigating the Role of Self-Efficacy, Depression, and Seniority. *Journal of Small Business Management*, *42*(1), 37–58. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-627X.2004.00096.x

Burke, P. J., & Reitzes, D. C. (1991). An Identity Theory Approach to Commitment. *Social Psychology Quarterly*, *54*(3), 239–251. https://doi.org/10.2307/2786653

Cammann, C., Fichman, M., Jenkins, D., & Klesh, J. (1979). *The Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire* (Unpublished Manuscript). MI: University of Michigan.

Cardon, M. S., Gregoire, D. A., Stevens, C. E., & Patel, P. C. (2013). Measuring entrepreneurial passion: Conceptual foundations and scale validation. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *28*(3), 373–396. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2012.03.003

Cardon, M. S., Zietsma, C., Saparito, P., Matherne, B. P., & Davis, C. (2005). A tale of passion: New insights into entrepreneurship from a parenthood metaphor. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *20*(1), 23–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2004.01.002

Carree, M. A., & Verheul, I. (2012). What Makes Entrepreneurs Happy? Determinants of Satisfaction Among Founders. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, *13*(2), 371–387. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10902-011-9269-3

Chen, C. C., Greene, P. G., & Crick, A. (1998). Does entrepreneurial self-efficacy distinguish entrepreneurs from managers? *Journal of Business Venturing*, *13*(4), 295–316. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026(97)00029

Chua, J. H., Chrisman, J. J., & Sharma, P. (1999). Defining the Family Business by Behavior. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *23*(4), 19–39. https://doi.org/10.1177/104225879902300402

Corner, P. D., Singh, S., & Pavlovich, K. (2017). Entrepreneurial resilience and venture failure. *International Small Business Journal*, *35*(6), 687–708. https://doi.org/10.1177/0266242616685604

Debenedetti, A., Oppewal, H., & Arsel, Z. (2014). Place Attachment in Commercial Settings: A Gift Economy Perspective. *Journal of Consumer Research*, *40*(5), 904–923. https://doi.org/10.1086/673469

Dodd, S. D. (2002). Metaphors and meaning: A grounded cultural model of us entrepreneurship. *Journal of Business Venturing*, *17*(5), 519–535. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0883-9026(01)00072-6

Foo, M. (2011). Emotions and Entrepreneurial Opportunity Evaluation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *35*(2), 375–393. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2009.00357.x

Foo, M.-D., Uy, M. A., & Baron, R. A. (2009). How do feelings influence effort? An empirical study of entrepreneurs' affect and venture effort. *The Journal of Applied Psychology*, *94*(4), 1086–1094. https://doi.org/10.1037/a0015599

Gómez-Mejía, L. R., Haynes, K. T., Núñez-Nickel, M., Jacobson, K. J. L., & Moyano-Fuentes, J.

(2007). Socioemotional Wealth and Business Risks in Family-controlled Firms: Evidence from Spanish Olive Oil Mills. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, *52*(1), 106‑137. https://doi.org/10.2189/asqu.52.1.106

Grichnik, D., Smeja, A., & Welpe, I. (2010). The importance of being emotional: How do emotions affect entrepreneurial opportunity evaluation and exploitation? *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, *76*(1), 15‑29. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jebo.2010.02.010

Hallak, R., Brown, G., & Lindsay, N. J. (2012). The Place Identity – Performance relationship among tourism entrepreneurs: A structural equation modelling analysis. *Tourism Management*, *33*(1), 143‑154. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tourman.2011.02.013

Hamilton, B. H. (2000). Does Entrepreneurship Pay? An Empirical Analysis of the Returns to Self-Employment. *Journal of Political Economy*, *108*(3), 604‑631. https://doi.org/10.1086/262131

Hmieleski, K. M., & Baron, R. A. (2009). Entrepreneurs' Optimism And New Venture Performance: A Social Cognitive Perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, *52*(3), 473‑488. https://doi.org/10.5465/amj.2009.41330755

Kibler, E., Fink, M., Lang, R., & Muñoz, P. (2015). Place attachment and social legitimacy: Revisiting the sustainable entrepreneurship journey. *Journal of Business Venturing Insights*, *3*, 24‑29. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbvi.2015.04.001

Kyle, G. T., Absher, J. D., & Graefe, A. R. (2003). The Moderating Role of Place Attachment on the Relationship Between Attitudes Toward Fees and Spending Preferences. *Leisure Sciences*, *25*(1), 33‑50. https://doi.org/10.1080/01490400306552

Larson, G. S., & Pearson, A. R. (2012). Placing Identity: Place as a Discursive Resource for Occupational Identity Work Among High-Tech Entrepreneurs. *Management Communication Quarterly*, *26*(2), 241‑266. https://doi.org/10.1177/0893318911435319

Locke, E. A. (1976). The Nature and Causes of Job Satisfaction. In *Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology* (IL: Rand McNally, Vol. 1 st Ed., p. 1297‑1349). Chicago: Dunnette, M. D. Handbook of Industrial and Organizational Psychology (1st Ed.), Chicago, IL: Rand McNa.

Low, S. M., & Altman, I. (1992). Place Attachment. In I. Altman & S. M. Low (Éd.), *Place Attachment* (p. 1‑12). Boston, MA: Springer US. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-1-4684-8753-4_1

Manzo, L. C. (2005). For better or worse: Exploring multiple dimensions of place meaning. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *25*(1), 67‑86. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2005.01.002

McConaughy, D. L., Matthews, C. H., & Fialko, A. S. (2001). Founding Family Controlled Firms: Performance, Risk, and Value. *Journal of Small Business Management*, *39*(1), 31‑49. https://doi.org/10.1111/0447-2778.00004

Scannell, L., & Gifford, R. (2010). Defining place attachment: A tripartite organizing framework. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *30*(1), 1‑10. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jenvp.2009.09.006

Sharma, P., & Irving, P. G. (2005). Four Bases of Family Business Successor Commitment: Antecedents and Consequences. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *29*(1), 13‑33. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2005.00067.x

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA, US: Sage Publications, Inc.

Spivack, A. J., McKelvie, A., & Haynie, J. M. (2014). Habitual entrepreneurs: Possible cases of entrepreneurship addiction? *Journal of Business Venturing*, *29*(5), 651‑667. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusvent.2013.11.002

Stanley, L. J. (2010). Emotions and Family Business Creation: An Extension and Implications. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *34*(6), 1085‑1092. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2010.00414.x

Stokols, D., & Shumaker, S. A. (1981). People in places: A transactional view of settings. In *Cognition, Social Behavior, and the Environment* (J. Harvey, p. 441‑488). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Twigger-ross, C. L., & Uzzell, D. L. (1996). PLACE AND IDENTITY PROCESSES. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, *16*(3), 205‑220. https://doi.org/10.1006/jevp.1996.0017

Vallerand, R. J., Blanchard, C., Mageau, G. A., Koestner, R., Ratelle, C., Leonard, M., … Marsolais, J. (2003). Les passions de l'ame: on obsessive and harmonious passion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*(4), 756‑767. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.4.756

Welpe, I. M., Spörrle, M., Grichnik, D., Michl, T., & Audretsch, D. B. (2012). Emotions and Opportunities: The Interplay of Opportunity Evaluation, Fear, Joy, and Anger as Antecedent of Entrepreneurial Exploitation. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *36*(1), 69‑96. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2011.00481.x

Williams, D. R., & Vaske, J. J. (2003). The measurement of place attachment: validity and generalizability of a psychometric approach. *Forest Science. 49(6): 830–840*. Consulté à l'adresse https://www.fs.usda.gov/treesearch/pubs/23746

Wolfe, M. T., & Shepherd, D. A. (2015). "Bouncing Back" from a Loss: Entrepreneurial Orientation, Emotions, and Failure Narratives. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *39*(3), 675‑700. https://doi.org/10.1111/etap.12057

Yitshaki, R., & Kropp, F. (2016). Entrepreneurial passions and identities in different contexts: a comparison between high-tech and social entrepreneurs. *Entrepreneurship & Regional Development*, *28*(3‑4), 206‑233. https://doi.org/10.1080/08985626.2016.1155743

Zellweger, T. M., & Astrachan, J. H. (2008). On the Emotional Value of Owning a Firm. *Family Business Review*, *21*(4), 347‑363. https://doi.org/10.1177/08944865080210040106

Zhao, H., Seibert, S. E., & Hills, G. E. (2005). The Mediating Role of Self-Efficacy in the Development of Entrepreneurial Intentions. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *90*(6), 1265‑1272. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.90.6.1265

An exploration of digital innovation activity of German wineries in the regional tourism context: Differentiation and complementarity

Prof. Dr. Marc Dressler
Weincampus Neustadt, University of Ludwigshafen,
Neustadt/Weinstrasse, Germany
marc.dressler@hs-lu.de

Dr. Ivan Paunovic*
Weincampus Neustadt, Rural service center Rhenish Palatinate,
Neustadt/Weinstrasse, Germany
ivan.paunovic@dlr.rlp.de

* Corresponding author

Abstract

The purpose of the research is to contribute to destination as well as to innovation management research by exploring regional differences of the German wine regions assessing innovativeness of their belonging wineries. Thirteen German wine regions compete to attract tourists and wine tourists. Their wineries, as key players for wine tourism, were analysed in regards to observable brand and innovation strategies. The research used a dataset of N=894 winery's websites to uncover the regional difference and specificities in the innovation activity and has applied a set of indicators in order to measure the innovation activity of wineries covering business models, website communication, and branding.

The findings indicate that innovation activities of the wineries are not evenly distributed among German wine regions. Some wine regions, like Hessische Bergstrasse (high business model and brand innovativeness), Württemberg (high website communication and brand innovativeness), Sachsen, Franken, Rheingau, Saale-Unstrut (high business model and website communication innovativeness) demonstrate high innovation activity in certain areas in comparison to the other wine regions. These differences offer potential for the region´s destination marketing to differentiate. Though further investigations through field research and case studies is needed.

Keywords: innovation, regional development, cluster, strategy, beverage industry

Acknowledgment

The research has been financed by a research grant from FDW (Forschungsring des Deutschen Weinbaues; project name: „*Innovation und strategische Markenpositionierung als Erfolgsfaktoren in der Weinwirtschaft: Exploration strategischer Typen*“).

Introduction

Germany is an interesting case for analysis of winery's innovation activity in a regional tourism context for several reasons. Firstly because of its' stagnating market for wine sales which is characterized by richness of offerings and wine varieties and secondly because of fierce competition (Dressler, 2018b, Szolnoki and Hoffmann, 2014). In this sense, providers in the German market need to differentiate and profile themselves away from the dominant product focus through innovation (e.g. customer orientation, direct sales, brand creation). (Dressler, 2017a, Dressler, 2012) As a result, service and especially the identification and exploitation of tourism based market opportunities, additional sources of income and direct sales could also represent the strategic levers to outperform competition (Faugère, 2013, Dressler, 2017c). Wine tourism not only provides wineries with additional sales channel but can also support the sales of wine-related attractions and imagery, as well as promote and develop the territory of the wine region as a whole (Dressler and Paunović, 2018, Getz and Brown, 2006, Wargenau and Che, 2006, Bruwer et al., 2013, Getz, 2000), thus contributing to brandings efforts. The need for this type of territorial and regional branding is often supported by the sheer fact that quality of the wine at offer is often associated with its geographic origin (Jovanović-Tončev et al., 2016, Gómez et al., 2015, Famularo et al., 2010). Reversely viewed, regions can also profit from appealing wineries and winescapes. As Bruwer et al. (2013) explain, nature related factors are the most significant determinant for destination choices, especially in the context of vineyards and wineries. In the German regional touristic offer, wine builds a strong offer component and a differentiator by communicating regional culture, nature, attractions, and wine, but the brand slogans appear similar and thus mutually exchangeable (e.g. WeinKulturLand Mosel, Kulturland Rheingau, Weinreich Rheinland-Pfalz, Franken Wein.Schöner.Land …) (Dressler, 2016a).

Innovation as a process and innovativeness as a characteristic are of paramount importance sustaining competitive advantage in an open global economy, by increasing output and productivity (OECD, 2018). However, the identification of the sources of innovation has become more difficult as they are increasingly geographically and organisationally dispersed, especially because the combination of multiple inventions is usually needed for successful market entrance (Teece, 2007, Somaya and Teece, 2007). This holds true also for modern wine business as competition between wine regions for attracting wine tourists has been steadily increasing (Williams and Kelly, 2001). One solution would be leaving the Porter-like (Porter, 1998) red ocean of competition by turning to the blue ocean of business model innovation, exploring new markets, turning non-customers to customers and beating the competition without beating the competition (Kim and Mauborgne, 2014, Gassmann et al., 2013, Kim and Mauborgne, 2005). However, regional innovation for tourism should not be a goal in itself, but should be promoted in the balanced way and under thorough consideration of impacts in the context of competing and complementary destinations, as well as cross-border cooperation (Paunović and Jovanović, 2019, Paunović and Jovanović, 2017, Sheng, 2011, Contò et al., 2014).

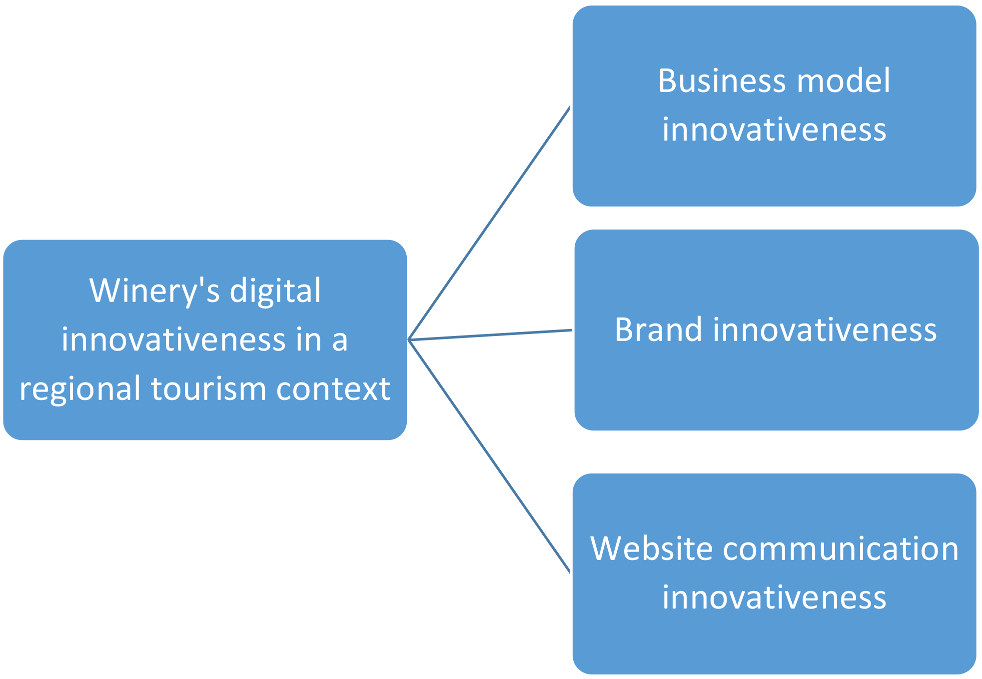
Europe´s wine tourism offerings and the exploitation of synergies of wine and tourism are stated to depend either on authorities or on wine producers seizing opportunities to increase wine sales (Menival, 2013). In this context, destination management in the wine regions and the creation of wine tourism experience has received significant attention in the literature (Choisy, 1996, Dreyer, 2011, Faugère, 2013, Getz, 2006, Miller, 2007, Orth and Stöckl, 2011, Schätzel, 2011, Thach, 2007). Cluster theory also supports and explains the value-creation potential for the organizations that are parts of the regional cluster (Hira, 2013, Charters et al., 2011, Porter, 2000). On the other hand, there are various possible approaches deployed by wineries regarding branding for wine tourism, although many wineries do not fully recognize the potential of wine tourism for wine sales (Charters et al., 2011).This paper therefore aims at empirically exploring strategic regional perspective of wine suppliers in order to contribute to the under researched area of identifying the value of wine tourism from strategic and regional perspective, as defined by Faugère (2013) and Charters and Menival (2011).

It has been identified that the German wine market lags behind more successful national destinations regarding regional value creation and this is especially pronounced in the areas of wine tourism offer and setting up web sites with online shops (Dressler, 2017b, Koch et al., 2013, Szolnoki et al., 2014). This findings are especially important because regional and destination-level initiatives are identified to be a crucial part of *enhancing accommodation offer*, *attracting visitors* and *enhancing communication strategies* (Scuttari et al., 2013) Having this research gap in mind, the research focuses on the regional differences between the thirteen German wine regions regarding innovativeness of winery's *business model*, *branding* and *communication* in the digital space. The research results should therefore set the stage for future coordinated research and policy creation activities.

The article first gives an overview of the German wine market and wine tourism activity as well as major innovation concepts for regional development of tourism. It also presents the specificities of the German wine tourism and major development directions identified in the literature. It then goes on to present the results and analysis regarding the German winery's digital innovativeness in a regional tourism context, measured by business model innovativeness, brand innovativeness and website communication innovativeness. In the discussion section the results are being further discussed in relation to the relevant literature, both from the thematic perspective as well as from the regional perspective. Based on the discussion and the future research direction, conclusions are than given and implications elaborated.

1. Materials and methods

In order to explore innovativeness and profiling three strategic aspects of wineries (business model innovativeness, brand innovativeness, website communication innovativeness) were observed and annotated through a binary scale (0 for "not present", and 1 for "present"). The created database with N=894 wineries from all thirteen German wine regions served to explore regional clusters and to observe the respective regional differences. The data has been analyzed with IBM SPSS 23 partly graphically represented via Excel.



Each of the three innovation categories of the wineries has been represented by a number of indicators as represented in the table 1: The business model innovation was analyzed by three indicators- events, online shop, and guest rooms, building on the work from Schneider and Spieth (2013) and Chesbrough (2010). The indicators endorsement by celebrities, connection with sport and/or arts, connection with sustainability and/or environment, certification/award served to assess the brand approach, similarly to the work of Ahmed and Zairi (1999). The innovation character of the website was investigated using graphical representation of driving directions, price lists, high-quality photos, audio content, video content, and verification of legal drinking age, building on the work of several authors (Wirtz et al., 2010, Bonnardel et al., 2011, Deng and Poole, 2010). Direct observation of the winery's website and the presence/absence of a particular category was recorded in a binary (0 vs. 1) fashion. The results are presented by mean values and by plot diagrams of these mean values.

Table 1: Innovation categories research and respective indicators

Innovation category	No.	Indicator
Business model innovativeness	1.	Events
	2.	Online Shop
	3.	Guest rooms
Brand innovativeness	4.	Endorsement by celebrities
	5.	Connection with sport and/or arts
	6.	Connection with sustainability-environment
	7.	Certification/Award
Website communication innovativeness	8.	Graphical representation of driving directions
	9.	Price list
	10.	High quality photos
	11.	Audio content
	12.	Video content
	13.	Verification of legal drinking age

2. Results

The result section is split into two parts. Part one reveals the results of the descriptive analyses regarding the level of innovation by region for all three innovation categories (see table 2) and part two provides profiles of regional innovativeness via multidimensional innovation plots.

The descriptive analysis table provides information on the production capacity of the different German wine regions. The population of observed wineries by region reflects the size of the wine growing region.

The analysis of the business model innovativeness reveals an order and therefore different levels of innovation. The database identifies Sachsen to communicate extensively on business model innovation (0.74), followed by Hessische Bergstrasse (0.72), Franken (0.62), and Saale-Unstrut (0.55). The wineries of the regions Rheinhessen (0.41), Pfalz (0.43), Nahe (0.43) and Mosel (0.48) put less emphasis on business model innovation.

For the brand innovativeness, Mittelrhein wineries stood out (0.64), followed with some distance by a group including Rheinhessen (0.48), Württemberg (0.47), and Hessische Bergstrasse (0.46). The analysis identifies a second group at the lower end of brand innovation intensity consisting of the regions Nahe (0.42), Saale-Unstrut (0.37), and Baden (0.38). The wineries of Ahr (0.19) placed at the lower end of the scale.

Regarding website communication innovativeness, the differences between the different German wine regions are less striking. The regions of Sachsen (0.51), Saale-Unstrut (0.49), Franken (0.48) and Rheingau (0.48) profile at the upper end of the measured innovativeness and the wineries of Ahr (0.38), Hessische Bergstrasse (0.39), Rheinhessen (0.39), and Mosel (0.42) at the lower end. The upper and lower regions cluster with their peers.

Table 2: Ranking of German wine regions by strategic activity

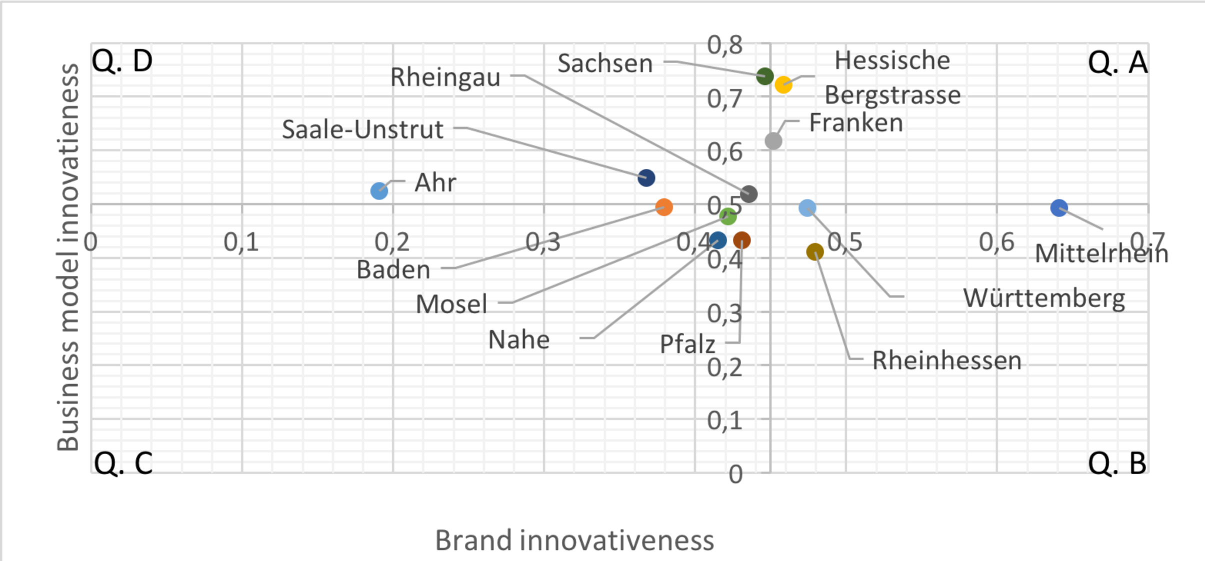
Wine region	N	Surface in ha x1000**	Mean business model innovativeness	Std. deviation	Mean brand innovativeness	Std. deviation	Mean website comm Innov.	Std. deviation
Ahr	21	562	0.52	0.27	0.19	0.24	0.38	0.16
Baden	116	15800	0.49	0.24	0.38	0.24	0.47	0.21
Franken	88	6087	0.62	0.31	0.45	0.22	0.48	0.18
Hessische Bergstraße	6	455	0.72	0.25	0.46	0.43	0.39	0.09
Mittelrhein	23	469	0.49	0.22	0.64	0.26	0.43	0.17
Mosel	125	8812	0.48	0.34	0.42	0.24	0.42	0.21
Nahe	47	4202	0.43	0.29	0.42	0.24	0.45	0.22
Pfalz	148	23613	0.43	0.28	0.43	0.27	0.45	0.19
Rheingau	70	3178	0.52	0.28	0.44	0.24	0.48	0.18
Rheinhessen	132	26578	0.41	0.29	0.48	0.24	0.39	0.18
Saale-Unstrut	17	765	0.55	0.23	0.37	0.31	0.49	0.17
Sachsen	14	502	0.74	0.27	0.45	0.24	0.51	0.27
Württemberg	88	11481	0.49	0.25	0.47	0.25	0.46	0.18
Total	895	102504						

** Source for the data on surface of the wine regions: DWI (2017)

The developed innovation scales with the three aforementioned areas was further exploited to assess groupings. In the following, three matrix plots have been created, where the X and Y axis are interchangeably the three categories: business model innovativeness, brand innovativeness, and website communication innovativeness, assessing where the 13 wine regions position in the four quadrants.

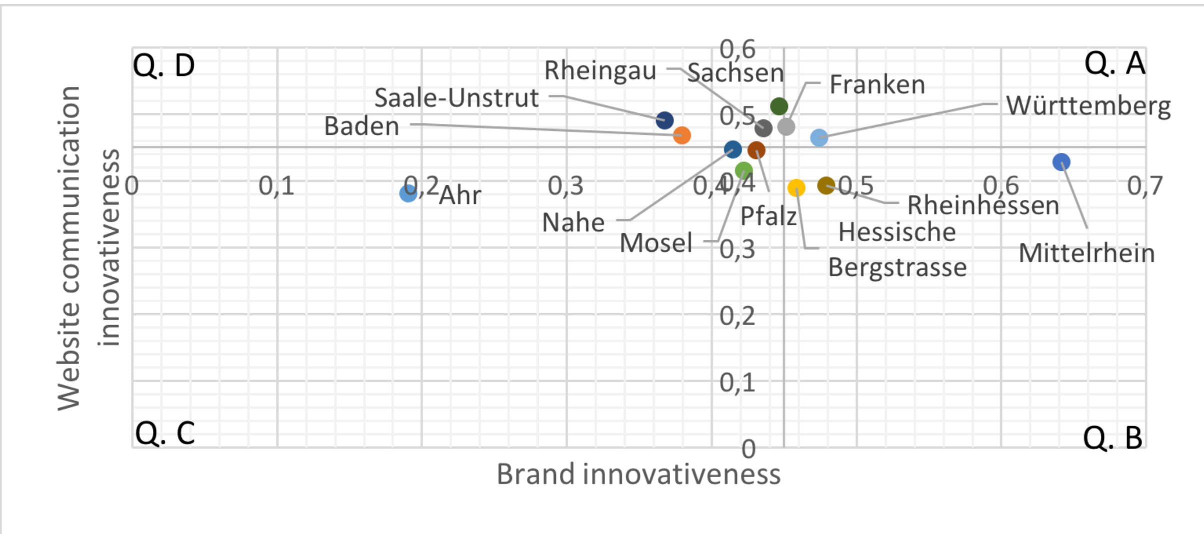
Two regions - Hessische Bergstrasse and Sachsen - are home to wineries who emphasize both, innovative business models as well as winery's brand. The regions of Mittelrhein, Württemberg and Rheinhessen focus on innovative brand representation and less on innovativeness of business models (Quadrant B). The regions of Baden, Mosel, Nahe and Pfalz apparently strategically focus on tradition in their business models and brand communication. In the regions Rheingau, Saale-Unstrut and Ahr, wineries are profiling innovative regarding business model and less innovative regarding brand representation.

Figure 1: Business model and brand innovativeness in the German wine regions



The second matrix offers grouping insights on the two innovation dimensions of brand and website communication. Here, apart from Ahr and Mittelrhein the regions show a rather homogeneous innovation strategy. Mittelrhein deviates with a stronger brand innovation. Ahr´s positioning in the matrix tells a strong focus on tradition. Whereas the two outlying regions do not deviate much in size, their crop portfolios diverge strongly. Ahr produces predominantly red and Mittelrhein more than 85% white wine.

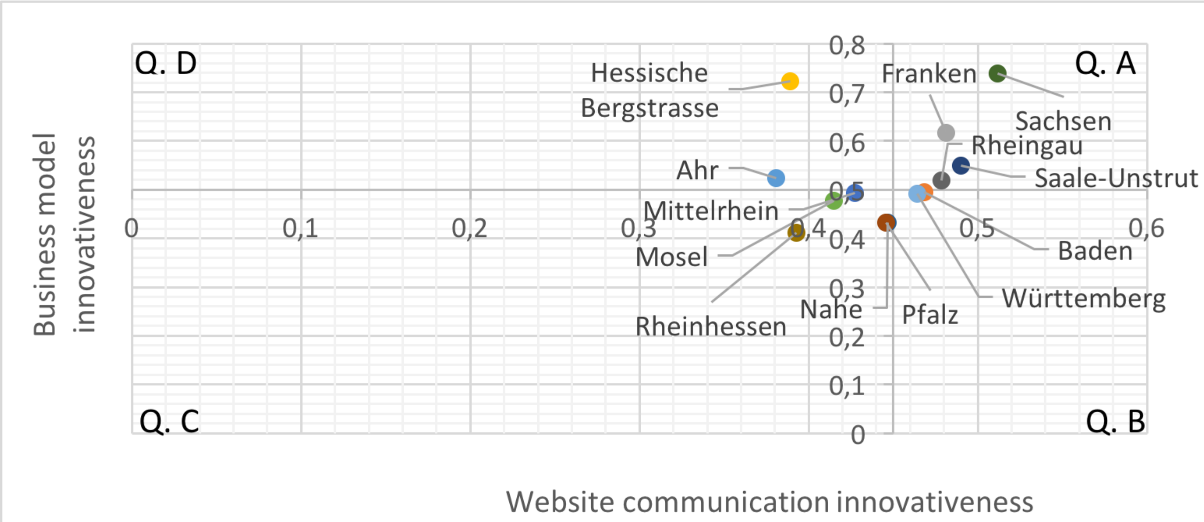
Figure 2: Website communication and brand innovativeness in the German wine regions



The third plot on the two perspectives business model and website innovation identifies the regions of Sachsen, Franken, Rheingau and Saale-Unstrut wineries for innovativeness in their business model as well as website communication (Quadrant A). The regions of Baden and Württemberg have wineries with highly innovative website communication and low innovativeness of business model (Quadrant B). Here, the regions of Mittelrhein, Mosel, Nahe and Rheinhessen play on tradition. The regions of Hessische

Bergstrasse and Ahr are home to wineries which are highly innovative regarding business models and less innovative regarding website communication activities (Quadrant D).

Figure 3: Business model and website communication innovativeness in the German wine regions



In regards to destination profiling, the insights provide perspectives to eventually exploit the wineries´ innovation emphases or to orchestrate a change and alignment. This could allow regions to potentially target different target segments.

Several limitations of the study need to be considered. For Hessische Bergstrasse, only six wineries have been analyzed. The descriptive and portfolio analyses needs to be validated by further statistical calculations as well as further causal analyses. Reliability of the data base can be increase by a second assessment by a different researcher. Other criteria to measure innovativeness can result in different regional characteristics.

3. Discussion

The 13 regions differ in terms of the wineries´ innovation focus (business model, brand, website communication) and level. Some regions are ahead of the others or lag behind, or in some cases the levels of innovation of several regions are concentrated around similar values. However, it should be said that regarding business model, brand and website communication, innovation is not the only important aspect, but much more strategic approach to innovation. In this sense, tradition for example often plays a very important role regarding all three researched aspects in the wine industry. In the wine business, a more traditional approach is apparently used to build reputation and underline quality of the products (Dressler, 2016b). A more traditional approach can also be deployed to increase brand equity by exerting social power (Crosno et al., 2009), as well as strengthening associations about local food & beverage traditions and enhancing communication of marketers towards customers (Warner, 2007). In addition, the dichotomy of tradition and innovation has also been an important aspect, for craft and artisanry production (Ferrara, 2011, Mieder and Mieder, 1977).

Innovation can be defined as the smart deployment of advanced knowledge (Capello, 2011). Regions with high innovation potential are able to activate and deploy resources from a wide variety of fields: from religious, ethnic and sports groups to economic interest groups (Tura and Harmaakorpi, 2005).

Regarding German wine regions, the ones that excel in terms of innovativeness and being able to deploy various resources are: (1) Sachsen, Hessische Bergstrasse, Franken and Saale-Unstrut for business model innovation; (2) Mittelrhein, followed by Rheinhessen, Württemberg and Hessische Bergstrasse for brand innovativeness; and (3) Sachsen, Saale-Unstrut, Franken and Rheingau for website communication innovativeness.

Modern business model innovation doesn't take place in a vertical manner and only within an organization, but takes place through an open innovation concept and it is distributed across different stakeholders (Behnam et al., 2018, Bogers and West, 2012, Cohen et al., 2017), which is why regional and cluster approaches are important for tracking and measuring business model innovation, in addition to the company-level measurement. In this sense, business models in the regions of Sachsen, Hessische Bergstrasse, Franken and Saale-Unstrut should be further explored from the cluster, regional perspective. The measurement of business models in the agri-food sector is a very important aspect as the actors are facing increasing competition due to globalization (Tell et al., 2016, Brinkmann et al., 2014).

Branding is important because consumers actively seek visual and other cues that confirm authenticity (Beverland and Farelly, 2010). In this sense, brand has many aspects that make it a brand: functional, symbolic, shorthand, legal, strategic, differentiating, risk reducing, organizational ownership sign (de Chernatony and McDonald, 2003). Branding strategy development should include both innovative processes, as well as knowledge creation and dynamic capabilities (Rufaidah, 2016). The results demonstrate by far the most innovative winery brands in the region of Mittelrhein, as well as to a lesser extent in Rheinhessen, Württemberg and Hessische Bergstrasse. Different cues that make this brands innovative should be further investigated, as well as which type of relational power do they build with the consumers: legitimate, reward, coercive, expert or referent power? (Crosno et al., 2009, French and Raven, 1959) In addition, innovative branding should be strategically developed as to both build on the parent brand strength as well as to clearly differentiate new products from existing product in order to avoid the cannibalization of existing product (Sinapuelas et al., 2015).

Authentic experience and customer attachment to the winery is facilitated through communicating the passion and knowledge of small winery staff about the wine production process (Fountain et al., 2008). Having in mind that the proliferation of online interactions has shifted the task of a marketer from decreasing the information search cost for the customer to decreasing the cognitive cost of managing the abundance of information for the customer (Liu and Park, 2015), the task of innovating and optimizing the communication tools seems of paramount importance for the winery. This task is particularly well done by the wineries in the wine regions of Sachsen, Saale-Unstrut, Franken and Rheingau. The internet, and especially website communication has a decisive role on forming destination images and opinions in the heads of tourists (Rodríguez-Molina et al., 2015, Buhalis and Law, 2008), which makes it even more important for wineries trying to expand the business model into tourism to consider their website communication as an important part of expanding into tourism. This is something that has been achieved most successfully by the wineries in the three eastwards positioned German wine regions: Franken, Saale-Unstrut and Sachsen. The successful strategic development of wine tourism in the region of Franken has already been confirmed and analyzed in detail by Harms (2017). The author singles out the strong support of the "Agency for Wine and Garden Cultivation" (LWG) and the "Association of Franconian Wine Experience Guides" as having crucial importance to the successful wine tourism experience, by providing training, support, coordination and gatekeeping towards media and institutions for all wine guides, younger ones especially benefiting from this network.

Conclusion

Regions can profit from the innovation activities of the wineries, and destination marketing can build on the innovation capabilities present in their local networks. The paper singles out wineries in the regions of Hessische Bergstrasse (business model-brand innovativeness), Württemberg (website communication-brand innovativeness), Sachsen, Franken, Rheingau, Saale-Unstrut (business model-website communication innovativeness) where wineries exhibit strategic innovations in the fields of business model, brand and website communication innovativeness. Further research should go more deeply into the reasons and factors standing behind the differences in the innovation activities in the different regions. It can be worth researching the distribution of dynamic capabilities in the regional context, as they have been identified as one of the most important factors influencing firm innovation activities in the cluster context (Röttmer, 2011) however no research has been done in the wine industry in this area. In this sense, it could also be worth researching whether differences in dynamic capabilities for business model, branding and website communication exist between small wineries and cooperatives, and whether this affects regional innovation activity. For example, in Rheingau and Rheinhessen, less than 10% of the wine is produced by cooperatives, while in Baden or Württemberg almost 80% of the regional wine production is produced by cooperatives (Dressler, 2018a). This differences influence the industry structure within the regions as well as the relationship between different actors, and future research should investigate this subject in detail.

References

AHMED, P. & ZAIRI, M. 1999. Benchmarking for brand innovation. *European Journal of Innovation Management,* 2**,** 36-48.

BEHNAM, S., CAGLIANO, R. & GRIJALVO, M. 2018. How should firms reconcile their open innovation capabilities for incorporating external actors in innovations aimed at sustainable development? *Journal of Cleaner Production,* 170**,** 950-965.

BEVERLAND, M. B. & FARELLY, F. J. 2010. The quest for authenticity in consumption: Consumer's purposive choice of authentic cues to shape experienced outcomes. *Journal of Consumer Research,* 36.

BOGERS, M. & WEST, J. 2012. Managing Distributed Innovation: Strategic Utilization of Open and User Innovation. *Creativity and Innovation Management,* 21**,** 61-75.

BONNARDEL, N., PIOLAT, A. & LE BIGOT, L. 2011. The impact of colour on Website appeal and users' cognitive processes. *Displays,* 32**,** 69-80.

BRINKMANN, P., HAKANSSON, A., BUTIENE, I., KJAERSGARD, H., MORTENSEN, B. K., MARTENS, J., MÜLLER-HANSEN, B. & PETRENKO, A. 2014. The use of networks as a strategic approach of micro-enterprises in the agri-food sector. *The international Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation,* 15**,** 169-178.

BRUWER, J., LESSCHAEVE, I., GRAY, D. & SOTTINI, V. A. 2013. Regional brand perception by wine tourists within a winescape framework. *In:* AWBR (ed.) *7th International Conference* St. Catherines.

BUHALIS, D. & LAW, R. 2008. Progress in information technology and tourism management: 20 years on and 10 years after the Internet—The state of eTourism research. *Tourism Management,* 29**,** 609-623.

CAPELLO, R. 2011. Spatial Transfer of Knowledge- Preconditions for Collective Learning Processes. *In:* PECHLANER, H., FISCHER, E. & BACHINGER, M. (eds.) *Kooperative Kernkompetenzen.* Wiesbaden: Gabler Verlag.

CHARTERS, S. & MENIVAL, D. 2011. Wine tourism in Champagne. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research,* 35**,** 102-118.

CHARTERS, S., MITCHELL, R. & MENIVAL, D. 2011. The territorial brand in wine. *In:* AWBR (ed.) *6th International Conference.* Bordeaux, France: AWBR.

CHESBROUGH, H. 2010. Business model innovation: opportunities and barriers. *Long Range Planning,* 43**,** 354-363.

CHOISY, C. 1996. Le poids du tourisme viti-vinicole. *Espaces***,** 30-33.

COHEN, B., ALMIRALL, E. & CHESBROUGH, H. 2017. The City as a Lab. *California Management Review,* 59**,** 5-13.

CONTÒ, F., RENKO, S., VRONTIS, D., FIORE, M. & THRASSOU, A. 2014. Strengthening regional identities and culture through wine industry cross border collaboration. *British Food Journal,* 116**,** 1788-1807.

CROSNO, J. L., FRELING, T. H. & SKINNER, S. J. 2009. Does brand social power mean market might? Exploring the influence of brand social power on brand evaluations. *Psychology and Marketing,* 26**,** 91-121.

DE CHERNATONY, L. & MCDONALD, M. 2003. *Creating Powerful Brands in Consumer, Service and Industrial Markets,* Oxford, Elsevier Butterworth Heinemann.

DENG, L. & POOLE, M. S. 2010. Affect in web interfaces: a study of the impacts of web page visual complexity and order. *Mis Quarterly***,** 711-730.

DRESSLER, M. 2012. Innovative Weinwelt: der "aktive Kunde". *Der Deutsche Weinbau,* 6**,** 16-18.

DRESSLER, M. 2016a. Strategic Winery Management and Tourism: Value-Added Offerings and Strategies Beyond Product Centrism. *Strategic Winery Tourism and Management.* Apple Academic Press.

DRESSLER, M. 2016b. Strategic winery reputation management – exploring German wine guides.

International Journal of Wine Business Research, 28**,** 4-21.

DRESSLER, M. 2017a. Strategic grouping in a fragmented market: SMEs' strive for legitimacy. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business,* 32**,** 229-253.

DRESSLER, M. 2017b. Strategic profiling and the value of wine & tourism initiatives. *International Journal of Wine Business Research,* 29**,** 484-502.

DRESSLER, M. 2017c. Strategic profiling and the value of wine & tourism initiatives: exploring strategic grouping of German wineries. *International Journal of Wine Business Research,* 29**,** 484-502.

DRESSLER, M. 2018a. The German Wine Market: a Comprehensive Strategic and Economic Analysis. *Beverages,* 92.

DRESSLER, M. 2018b. The German Wine Market: A Comprehensive Strategic and Economic Analysis. *Beverages,* 4**,** 92.

DRESSLER, M. & PAUNOVIĆ, I. 2018. Economic Aspects of Wine Tourism Sustainability at a UNESCO World Heritage Region of Upper Middle Rhine, Germany. *Proceedings of the 4th International Scientific Conference - SITCON 2018.*

DREYER, A. (ed.) 2011. *Wein und Tourismus - Erfolg durch Synergien und Kooperationen*: Erich Schmidt Verlag.

DWI 2017. Deutscher Weinstatistik. Deutsches Weininstitut.

FAMULARO, B., BRUWER, J. & LI, E. 2010. Region of origin as choice factor: wine knowledge and wine tourism involvement influence. *International Journal of Wine Business Research,* 22**,** 362-385.

FAUGÈRE, C. B.-C., T.; DURRIEU, F.; PESME, J.-O. 2013. The impact of tourism strategies and regional factors on wine tourism performance. *7th International Conference AWBR.* St. Catherines.

FERRARA, M. 2011. Design and self-production. The advanced dimension of handcraft. *Strategic Design Research Journal,* 4**,** 5-13.

FOUNTAIN, J., BRUWER, J., FISH, N. & CHARTERS, S. 2008. Making a connection: tasting rooms and brand loyalty. *International Journal of Wine Business Research,* 20**,** 8-21.

FRENCH, J. J. R. P. & RAVEN, B. 1959. The bases of social power. *In:* CARTWRIGHT, D. (ed.) *Studies in social power.* The University of Michigan Press.

GASSMANN, O., FRANKENBERGER, K. & CSIK, M. 2013. *Geschäftsmodelle Entwickeln: 55 Innovative Konzepte mit dem St. Galler Business Model Navigator*, Hanser.

GETZ, D. 2000. *Explore wine tourism: management, development & destinations,* New York, Cognizant Communication Corporation.

GETZ, D. & BROWN, G. 2006. Critical success factors for wine tourism regions: a demand analysis. *Tourism Management,* 27**,** 146-158.

GETZ, D. B., GRAHAM 2006. Critical success factors for wine tourism regions: a demand analysis. *Tourism Management,* 27**,** 146-158.

GÓMEZ, M., GONZÁLEZ-DÍAZ, B. & MOLINA, A. 2015. Priority maps at wine tourism destinations: An empirical approach in five Spanish wine regions. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management,* 4**,** 258-267.

HARMS, T. 2017. The Importance of Networks and Cooperation in Wine Tourism- A Comparison of Touristic Stakeholders in the German Moselle and Franconia Wine Regions/Die Bedeutung von Netzwerken und Kooperation im Weintourismus – Ein Vergleich der touristischen Stakeholder in den deutschen Weinbauregionen Mosel und Franken. *Kulinarischer Tourismus und Weintourismus.*

HIRA, A. G., S.; HOWLETT, M. 2013. Explaining the Success of Clusters: A Framework for the Study of Global Wine Industry Dynamics. *In:* HIRA, A. (ed.) *What Makes Clusters Competitive - Cases from the Global Wine Industry.*

JOVANOVIĆ-TONČEV, M., JOVANOVIĆ, D., MALIĆANIN, M. DIMITRIJEVIĆ, B. 2016. Push and Pull Factors Determining Wine Tourism Development In The "Tri Morave" Sub-Region. *Economics of Agriculture,* 3**,** 781-800.

KIM, W. C. & MAUBORGNE, R. 2005. *How to Create Uncontested Market Space and Make the Competition Irrelevant*, Harvard Business School Publishing Corporation.

KIM, W. C. & MAUBORGNE, R. 2014. Blue ocean leadership. *Harvard Business Review,* 92**,** 60-72.

KOCH, J., MARTIN, A. & NASH, R. 2013. Overview of perceptions of German wine tourism from the winery perspective. *International Journal of Wine Business Research,* 25**,** 50-74.

LIU, Z. & PARK, S. 2015. What makes a useful online review? Implication for travel product websites. *Tourism Management,* 47**,** 140-151.

MENIVAL, D. H., J. Y. 2013. Wine tourism: futures sales and cultural context of consumption. *7th International Conference AWBR.* St. Catherines.

MIEDER, B. & MIEDER, W. 1977. Tradition and innovation: Proverbs in advertising. *Journal of Popular Culture,* 11**,** 308.

MILLER, J. Weintourismus liegt voll im Trend. 2nd symposium of international wine tourism, 2007 Iphofen. Bayerisches Staatsministerium für Landwirtschaft und Forsten.

OECD 2018. Oslo Manual 2018: Guidelines for collecting, reporting and using data on innovation. OECD Directorate for Science, Technology and Innovation.

ORTH, U. & STÖCKL, A. 2011. Wein & Tourismus: Determinanten und Konsequenzen emotionaler Bindung zu Regionen und deren Marken. *In:* DREYER, A. (ed.) *Wein und Tourismus.* Munich: Erich Schmidt Verlag.

PAUNOVIĆ, I. & JOVANOVIĆ, V. 2017. Implementation of Sustainable Tourism in the German Alps: A Case Study. *Sustainability,* 9.

PAUNOVIĆ, I. & JOVANOVIĆ, V. 2019. Sustainable mountain tourism in word and deed: A comparative analysis in the macro regions of the Alps and the Dinarides. *Acta Geographica Slovenica,* 59**,** 59-69.

PORTER, M. E. 1998. *On Competition,* Boston, The Harvard Business Review.

PORTER, M. E. 2000. Location, Competition, and Economic Development: Local Clusters in a Global Economy. *Economic Development Quaterly,* 14**,** 15-34.

RODRÍGUEZ-MOLINA, M. A., FRÍAS-JAMILENA, D. M. CASTAÑEDA-GARCÍA, J. A. 2015. The contribution of website design to the generation of tourist destination image: The moderating effect of involvement. *Tourism Management,* 47**,** 303-317.

RÖTTMER, N. 2011. *Innovation Performance and Clusters: A Dynamic Capability Perspective on Regional Technology Clusters,* Wiesbaden, Gabler Verlag, Springer Fachmedien.

RUFAIDAH, P. 2016. Branding strategy development model testing. *Academy of Strategic Management Journal,* 15.

SCHÄTZEL, O. 2011. Tourismusmanagement. *3. Rheinhessen-Konferenz.* Mainz: DLR Rheinhessen.

SCHNEIDER, S. & SPIETH, P. 2013. Business model innovation: Towards and integrated future research agenda. *International Journal of Innovation Management*.

SCUTTARI, A., LUCIA, M. D. & MARTINI, U. 2013. Integrated planning for sustainable tourism and mobility. A tourism traffic analysis in Italy's South Tyrol region. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism,* 21**,** 614-637.

SHENG, L. 2011. Regional Competition and Sustainable Development: A Game Theory Model for Tourism Destinations. *European Planning Studies,* 19**,** 669-681.

SINAPUELAS, I. C. S., WANG, H.-M. D. & BOHLMANN, J. D. 2015. The interplay of innovation, brand, and marketing mix variables in line extensions. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science,* 43**,** 558-573.

SOMAYA, D. & TEECE, D. J. 2007. Patents, licencing and entrepreneurship: effectuating innovation in multi-invention contexts. *In:* SHESHINSKI, E., STROM, R. J. & BAUMWOL, W. J. (eds.) *Entrepreneurship, Innovation and the Growth Mechanism of the Free-Market Enterprise.* Princeton: Princeton University.

SZOLNOKI, G. & HOFFMANN, D. 2014. Consumer segmentation based on usage of sales channels in the German wine market. *International Journal of Wine Business Research,* 26**,** 27-44.

SZOLNOKI, G., TAITS, D., NAGEL, M. & FORTUNATO, A. 2014. Using social media in the wine business. *International Journal of Wine Business Research,* 26**,** 80-96.

TEECE, D. J. 2007. Explicating dynamic capabilities: the nature and microfoundations of (sustainable) enterprise performance. *Strategic Management Journal,* 28**,** 1319-1350.

TELL, J., HOVESKOG, M., ULVENBLAD, P., ULVENBLAD, P. O., BARTH, H.

STAHL, J. 2016. Business model innovation in the agri-food sector: a literature review. *British Food Journal,* 118**,** 1462-1476.

THACH, L. 2007. Trends in wine tourism. *Wine Business monthly,* 14**,** 86-89.

TURA, T. & HARMAAKORPI, V. 2005. Social Capital in Building Regional Innovative Capability. *Regional Studies,* 39**,** 1111-1125.

WARGENAU, A. & CHE, D. 2006. Wine tourism development and marketing strategies in Southwest Michigan. *International Journal of Wine Marketing,* 18**,** 45-60.

WARNER, K. D. 2007. The quality of sustainability: Agroecological partnerships and the geographic branding of California winegrapes. *Journal of Rural Studies,* 23**,** 142-155.

WILLIAMS, P. & KELLY, J. 2001. Cultural wine tourists: product development considerations for British Columbia's resident wine tourism market. *International Journal of Wine Marketing,* 13**,** 59-77.

WIRTZ, B. W., SCHILKE, O. & ULLRICH, S. 2010. Strategic development of business models: implications of the Web 2.0 for creating value on the internet. *Long range planning,* 43**,** 272-290.

Newcomers in the wine sector: What stories should they tell to become true winemakers?

Sarah Mussol
Assistant professor, University of Montpellier
MRM EA 4557, Labex Entreprendre
Rue Vendémiaire Bât D - CS 19519 34960 Montpellier Cedex 2
sarah.mussol@umontpellier.fr

Yosr Ben Tahar*
Associate professor, Paris School of Business (PSB)
PSB Research LAB, 200922199V
59, rue nationale 75013 Paris
y.bentahar@psbedu.paris

* Corresponding author

Introduction

Like Joël Fernandez who began his new life as an independent winemaker at the Domaine La Grange Léon after a mid-life crisis[7], some winemakers start from scratch in the wine sector. This research focuses on newcomers in the wine sector and specifically on people who decided to gave up previous jobs unrelated with wine to enter this industry as Tine and Marc Verstraete, business man and costume designer, who *"sold [their] packaging company and wanted to buy a property in the South for the sun"*, establishing Château Castigno[8]. As other emergent ventures they have to be identified as new members within an activity, an industry, or a sector, but in this particular sector, they also have to acquire legitimacy to grow wine. In the wine sector, nascent entrepreneurs are challenged to integrate a social group labeled entrepreneurs as well as a group of winemakers. It is crucial for them to develop an identity for their wine, as underlined in Lapsley & Moulton (2001). Often the product identity is linked to their own identity, that comes from their specific trajectory of life and career choice. People draw on a wide array of discourses to construct their identities (Kuhn, 2006). As discourse is essential, some of these new winemakers use storytelling to highlight their specific story. The use of narrative analysis is then appropriate to understand how entrepreneurs construct the identities that enable them to make sense by articulating their thoughts and beliefs (Downing, 2005; Jones, Latham, & Betta, 2008). Narrative analysis could contribute to enhanced conceptual, epistemological, and methodological reflections since it offers multi-voiced representations of the reality (Johansson, 2004). The purpose of this research is to identify legitimacy strategies of entrepreneurs (newcomers) in wine industry and to explore how it affects their positioning as a winemaker. Through a qualitative exploratory study this research will explore whether they use storytelling to build their identity and acquire some legitimacy in this sector.

1. Narrative sensemaking for identity building

Entrepreneurial stories depict mythical or heroic action-oriented characters (Down & Warren, 2008; Nicholson & Anderson, 2005). Stories aim to identify construction through the creation of attractive characters, history, and hyperbolic metaphors. Stories are sensemaking and sensegiving (Gioia & Chittipeddi, 1991; Weick, Sutcliffe, & Obstfeld, 2005) and entrepreneurs use different stories depends on the situation. Personal stories built and told by an entrepreneur are called narratives referring to the ways they build their identity through sensemaking. O'Connor (2002) suggests three categories of entrepreneurial narratives: personal stories (founding or vision stories), generic stories (marketing or strategy stories) and situational stories (historical or conventional stories). The ability of the entrepreneur to adjust the story in terms of coherence with the expectations of the audience depending on the situation is called narrative sensemaking (O'Connor, 2004).

Individuals select from their past, present and future, features valued and considered as relevant according the targeted role. They build a coherent story from those features highlighting the salient roles. Two main objectives are expected from the use of narratives, the first one is identity building (achieving roles considered as important for self-identification and belonging to a group) which is crucial to reach the second one referring to legitimacy and resources' acquisition. In the case of entrepreneurs, legitimacy is achieved through conformity and distinctiveness of behaviors towards stakeholders with divergent roles. Such multiple identities incorporate competing tensions (Pratt & Foreman, 2000). Sveningsson & Alvesson (2003) showed that managing stories and narrating them is useful for individuals, helping to cope with work identity strains and components (Ibarra, 1999).

Narratives reflect the self as a reflexive conception enacted in social interactions, crucial for identification (Stets & Burke, 2000). Entrepreneurs use narratives in order to position themselves in a specific occupation (Davis & Harre, 1990). According to Cheney & Ashcraft (2007) occupation "helps

[7] Story from Jaroniak,F. Nagel,S. "Un terroir des hommes, Saint-Chinian" - Terroirs d'exception
[8] Id.

individuals to narrate a sense of self and provides a way of managing and organizing the other aspects of identity". According to Cooper & Thatcher (2010), identity aspects are activated in different social settings at different times. This is correlated to narrative sensemaking process supporting that the entrepreneurial self is multiple and dynamic.

2. Self-identity as a discursive resource

Considering identity in a narrative way, connected and reflected in the individual storytelling is useful for understanding its dynamics in particular, in situations of identity transitions (Ibarra & Barbulescu, 2010). Ibarra & Barbulescu (2010) highlight the need to better understanding for dynamics between identity work and narratives. The self remains an ongoing project leading to re-crafting self-identity (Giddens, 1991) and narratives (Somers, 1994).

Identity results from interactions between the individual, the society and the culture (Giddens, 1991). It is negotiated through and within the sensemaking systems of the cultural environment (Jenkins, 1996). As culturally skilled individuals, entrepreneurs are the main influencers of their narratives, juggling between sameness and distinctiveness (Lounsbury & Glynn, 2001). One of the constraints on roles associated with the entrepreneur is induced by the notion of innovation. Thus, entrepreneurs must be part of a scheme that can be re-scored and classified in the category: process or entrepreneurial compromise and both intrigue, do otherwise, innovate, be creative about how to build and express entrepreneurial behavior (Anderson & Warren, 2011). Proactiveness, distinctive characteristics of entrepreneurs were largely investigated at the organizational level.

Recent studies use proactiveness in order to describe how entrepreneurs use narratives as a mean for identity building, changes and acception (Bjusell & Melin, 2011; Lounsbury & Glynn, 2001; O'Connor, 2004). Individuals, undergo social, cultural and family norms. These norms concern both the roles and characteristics that the individual must express or bear. They concern professional and non-professional roles. Individual's identities are composed of the different roles (sent and received) leading to multiple role identities (Burke, 1980). Down & Warren (2008), show that entrepreneur use clichés about entrepreneurial roles and characteristics in order to legitimate themselves. In their narratives, both clichés and metaphor carry meaning necessary in the identity building process. Thus, it becomes a discursive resource because it is socially and culturally framed and meaning providing (Kuhn & Nelson, 2002).

3. Role identity multiplicity

Occupation is important in identity building process because it provides affiliation (Van Maanen & Barley, 1984). Moreover, as socially constructed categories including practices and actors (Anteby, Chan, & DiBenigno, 2016), it refers to the set of normative guidelines shaping the entrepreneurial behavior. Identity work refers to the process of constructing identity, the term social identity describes the extent to which people see themselves as members of specific groups (Alvesson, Lee Ashcraft, & Thomas, 2008).

In addition to the influence of norms, the construction of entrepreneurial identity is subject to the influence of emotions that the entrepreneur has or develops towards the project in which he is engaged. Thus, many entrepreneurs for family businesses or not, use a lexicon referring to the parenthood relationship to describe their business. They describe an important emotional attachment. Involvement, attachment and identification influence the behavior of the entrepreneur.

Understanding how individuals use stories, construct them, and modify them helps to understand the implications of constructing identity for decision-making. Results form Mathias & Williams (2017) and Farmer, Yao, & Kung-McIntyre (2011) confirm the relationship between roles, identity and the perception of opportunities. Mathias & Williams (2017), argue that role identity encompass different roles that may be conflicting and challenging. For example, Cardon, Gregoire, Stevens, & Patel, (2013), argue that entrepreneur adopt different roles as inventor and founder. Entrepreneurs act consciously in the selection and use of stories to fulfill the role considered according to the interlocutor.

Performing the different roles concomitantly can be a source of tension. In addition, individuals may not have access to all the information needed to perform the expected roles. These two situations describe situations of role stress that are harmful to the mental health of individuals and especially entrepreneurs (Wincent & Örtqvist, 2009). Other sources of tension exist in family businesses where family identity and family business identity are two other frameworks that may arise role conflicts.

4. Considered method and perspectives

After developing the theoretical model, the authors will use an exploratory qualitative study involving different interviews with newcomers in the wine industry. Several newcomers will be interviewed with an objective of analysis of their narratives. Some of them have been identified in function of their profile and the reason why they started to grow wine. The sample will be constituted of various winemakers (different regions, different sizes, various nature of business : grower vs. fully integrated vs. virtual winery vs. wine support business and different previous jobs). Narrative analysis is useful in that case to understand how these new entrepreneurs in the wine sector construct their identities, how they produce meaning that make sense in the sector (Downing, 2005; Jones et al., 2008). Narratives, discourse and storytelling, in the entrepreneurship field is associated to legitimacy building, identity building, sensemaking and organizational strategy.

The interview guide will be constituted of three parts: (1) their profile, their previous job, their career choice and how they made their decision to enter the world of wine, (2) the narratives they use and the building of their storytelling, with the use or not of an actantial scheme and their positioning and, (3) the different role they assume in the narratives and how those roles interacts in order to build legitimacy and to give access to resources according to sector's norms.

A contribution of this paper is then to explore how these new entrepreneurs in the wine industry build an identity, either as entrepreneurs or as winemakers and how they use their narratives to gain legitimacy for their ventures. These narratives are useful both to set expectations and to create a positioning in the sector. We can wonder if they have a different approach to marketing, with a more instrumental use of storytelling. Indeed one of their stake is to create some meaning with new stories, in a sector where many winemakers stories are rooted in the past and in the tradition. One can also wonder about the reflection of their particular life trajectory into this sense making, as said by Alain Clerbout in Domaine Lou Colombier *"Whilst working as a sales representative even though I was earning a very good living, I felt the need to create something myself. My friends and family thought I was crazy but I have absolutely no regrets."*[9]. Is this particular approach also going to change their relationship to wine making?

[9] Id.

References

Alvesson, M., Lee Ashcraft, K., & Thomas, R. (2008). Identity Matters: Reflections on the Construction of Identity Scholarship in Organization Studies. *Organization*, *15*(1), 5‑28. https://doi.org/10.1177/1350508407084426

Anteby, M., Chan, C. K., & DiBenigno, J. (2016). Three Lenses on Occupations and Professions in Organizations: Becoming, Doing, and Relating. *The Academy of Management Annals*, *10*(1), 183‑244. https://doi.org/10.1080/19416520.2016.1120962

Downing, S. (2005). The Social Construction of Entrepreneurship: Narrative and Dramatic Processes in the Coproduction of Organizations and Identities. *Entrepreneurship Theory and Practice*, *29*(2), 185‑204. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-6520.2005.00076.x

Giddens, A. (1991). *Modernity and Self-identity: Self and Society in the Late Modern Age*. Stanford University Press.

Ibarra, H., & Barbulescu, R. (2010). Identity As Narrative: Prevalence, Effectiveness, and Consequences of Narrative Identity Work in Macro Work Role Transitions. *Academy of Management Review*, *35*(1), 135‑154. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.35.1.zok135

Jones, R., Latham, J., & Betta, M. (2008). Narrative construction of the social entrepreneurial identity. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, *14*(5), 330‑345. https://doi.org/10.1108/13552550810897687

Kuhn, T. (2006). A 'Demented Work Ethic' and a 'Lifestyle Firm': Discourse, Identity, and Workplace Time Commitments. *Organization Studies*, *27*(9), 1339‑1358. https://doi.org/10.1177/0170840606067249

Lapsley, J., & Moulton, K. (2001). *Successful Wine Marketing*. Consulté à l'adresse https://www.springer.com/us/book/9780834219625

Somers, M. R. (1994). The Narrative Constitution of Identity: A Relational and Network Approach. *Theory and Society*, *23*(5), 605‑649. Consulté à l'adresse JSTOR.

Van Maanen, J., & Barley, S. R. (1984). Occupational communities: Culture and control in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, *6*, 287‑365.

The role of Internet of Things to balance tradition and innovation in the wine industry

Sylvaine Castellano
Associate professor, Research and Academic Dean,
PSB, Paris School of Business
59 rue nationale, 75013 - France
s.castellano@psbedu.paris

Insaf Khelladi
Associate professor, ICN Business School
13, rue Michel Ney, 54500, Nancy - France
insaf.khelladi@icn-artem.com

David Kalisz
Associate professor, PSB, Paris School of Business
59 rue nationale, 75013 - France
d.kalisz@psbedu.paris

Introduction

Cultural and creative industries (CCI) (O'Connor, 2010) play a major role in the development of touristic activities (Richards and Marques, 2012). Among the CCIs, the wine industry is an established industry created 5000 years ago with traditional features developed over time such as "terroir" and authenticity (Castellano and Khelladi, 2015) and with innovative elements (Castellano and Khelladi, 2016). Over the past fifteen years, the wine market has gone through major changes: globalization, new entrants – from the 'New World', and new products, all of which intensified competition. New processes of wine making – based on increased investments in R&D – and innovative marketing techniques – i.e., advertising, packaging, and labeling – disrupted the traditions in the mature wine industry.

Such changes were intensified with the development of the Internet, the digital revolution and the era of big data. Of particular interest in these emerging trends is the Internet of Things. However, even though the IoT have particularly been analyzed in high tech sectors (Del Giudice, 2016) and in particular settings such as smart cities or seaports (Ferretti and Schiavone, 2016), few studies have examined their role in CCI (Solima et al., 2016). In addition, while past studies focused on specific theoretical background – such as IT and knowledge management (Del Giudice, 2016) – the IoT represent a new research avenue in Cultural and Creative Industries (CCI), and offers many opportunities to study the dynamics between tradition and innovation.

We contribute to the Innovation Through Tradition (ITT) stream of the literature. While past research examined the development of new products within cultural and creative industries resulting from the use of traditional elements, we herein look at the other side of the coin. We investigate the role of innovation to reinforce the traditions. The aim of this paper is two-fold: first, to explore the nature of the relationship between tradition and innovation in CCI and; second, to examine the role of IoT to balance tradition and innovation. Therefore, the research question in the present study is "What is the role of IoT to balance tradition and innovation in the wine industry?"

1. Linking traditions and innovations

1.1. Traditions and innovation from organizational and industry perspective

From general perspective, tradition refers to "the maintenance of fixed behaviors, and conventions, which are characterized by their invariance" (Balmer, 2011). From organizational perspective, traditions are related to practices and techniques, customs and values preserved and transmitted from generation to generation within and/or between organizations (Capul and Garnier, 2015). More specifically, traditions are repositories of elements through which it is possible to evoke collective memories, identities and social cohesion (Messeni Petruzzelli and Savino, 2015). From a resource-based view approach (Barney, 1991), tradition is a distinctive and unique resource, which is rare, difficult to imitate. Traditions can refer to "stock of knowledge, competencies, materials, manufacturing processes, signs, values, and beliefs pertaining to the past" (Messeni Petruzzelli and Albino, 2012). Because tradition links the past and the present, a dynamic approach seems more appropriate. Tradition involves a process of accumulation and transfer over time, which can be linked the concept of dynamic capabilities (Messeni Petruzzelli and Albino, 2012).

Traditions exert a double-edge sword effect. Past research emphasized the perceived negative and positive dimension of referring to the past. First, tradition can lead to negative outcomes in comparison to the innovation path. Over relying on the past can lead to resistance to change, inertia, and path dependence; the firms' asset turns into a liability, which is known as the core rigidity concept (De Massis et al., 2016). Second, traditions also possess positive dimensions. In particular, past knowledge can make sense of the present and can lead to unique source of innovation advantage (De Massis et al., 2016).

Overall, we can emphasize the double-edge of traditions. On the one hand, we can emphasize the benefits of traditions. Traditions are not only related to a set of practices with certain values and norms, they also imply continuity with the past (Balmer, 2011) in the sense that they connect the old with the new. Traditions play a key role in constructing the future (Messeni Petruzzelli and Savino, 2015). On the other hand, traditions can impede organizational competitiveness when faced with new and novel practices and norms (Castellano and Ivanova, 2007). In addition, the combination of traditional and novel elements can reveal a number of difficulties to overcome. Furthermore, organizations can over time become over dependent on traditions and disregard new practices and norms (Castellano and Ivanova, 2007). Another illustration of the double edge of tradition lies in its consequence on organizational behavior. On one side, traditions, as rules and norms of behavior, are institutionalized through the adoption of similar practices. Such conformity might derive from technology and/or market uncertainty (Cyert and March, 1963), and can lead to isomorphic behavior (DiMaggio and Powell, 1983), which ultimately reinforces the traditional features of some industries as a collective or aggregate level. On the other side, traditions involve a certain degree of distinctiveness, differentiation (Balmer, 2011). Therefore, one needs to take into consideration the complexity of tradition in organizational life, which is even more the case when confronting tradition and innovation, and when analyzing how organizations balance between these two forces.

Following Nelson and Winter (1982), Pouder and St. John (1996) defined innovation as the new products or services, new processes and new organizational structures that firms use to compete with one another and meet customer demand; and also the adoption of a new idea, process, product, or service developed internally or acquired from the external environment as a function of the firm's technical, strategic and administrative skills. Other definitions of innovation emphasize the link with the past. According to Van de Ven, (1986: 591 cited by Capaldo et al. 2014), an innovation can be defined as "a new idea, which may be a recombination of old ideas". Innovation is a process of search and recombination of existing components (Petruzzelli and Savino, 2014). It is therefore to further investigate and to bridge the past and the present, the old and the new (Castellano et al., 2013).

1.2. Bridging tradition and innovation in Cultural and Creative Industries

There is no consensus yet in the academic literature on how tradition and innovation can be linked. They can be considered as two extreme of the same continuum, which implies that they are mutually exclusive. The two concepts can also be used as two independent concepts. For instance, tradition is perceived to be linked to the past while innovation is future-oriented (Castellano et al., 2013). On another note, they both share a common outcome as tradition and innovation can be considered as a source of competitiveness (Messeni Petruzzelli and Savino, 2015). In addition, De Massis et al. (2016) show that firms can innovate while remaining anchored to the past. Hence, the literature needs clarification on how they influence each other, what sets them apart, and the factors that bring them together. On another note, it is pertinent to analyze the link between the past, the present and the future in specific industries that face a tension between preservation and adaptation (De Massis et al., 2016). Previous research has emphasized the appropriateness of the tradition and innovation concepts to analyze creative and cultural industries. First, traditions facilitate the adoption of novelties in creative and cultural industries (Messeni Petruzzelli and Savino, 2015). Second, traditions are "collections of cultural elements that may include symbols, material objects, myths, custodians, rituals, temporal qualities as well as collective identities and memories" (Dacin and Dacin, 2008: 11) that particularly fit the specificities of CCIs. Third, as cultural and creative industries combine technical functionalities with aesthetic, symbolic, sensory and experiential content, they are appropriate to analyze innovation processes (Messeni Petruzzelli and Savino, 2015). Finally, recombination mechanisms to innovate have received great attention creative and cultural industries (Petruzzelli and Savino, 2014).

2. The role of internet of things

Existing research offers little understanding of why the past can be valuable and how managers can leverage it to innovate. We build on Petruzzelli and Savino (2014) and we herein analyze how the adoption of disruptive technologies may be fruitful to leverage the positive dimensions of traditions and to balance between tradition and innovation in CCI. The term "Internet of Things (IoT)" is applied to refer to (1) the global network interconnecting smart objects using Internet technologies, (2) the set of supporting technologies used to build such a global network (e.g. RFIDs, sensors/actuators, machine-to-machine communication devices), and (3) the group of applications and services that leverage such technologies to create new business opportunities and models (Miorandi et al., 2012).

IoT covers numerous aspects related to the extension of the Internet into the physical territory, through the extensive deployment of devices with embedded identification, sensing and/or actuation capabilities (Miorandi et al., 2012). IoT is based on "the paradigm of computing and communications anywhere, anytime and by anything." (Miorandi et al., 2012, p.1500). As such, IoT enables to connect things anytime, anyplace, with anything and anyone, using any network and any service (Vermesan et al., 2013). IoT drives the behavior change, and allows for a social engagement and gamification (Swan, 2012). The major challenging aspects of IoT for firms are privacy and regulatory compliance, acquisition of the needed skills to leverage IoT data, data management in terms of volumes and security (Bartolomeo, 2014). From user standpoint, the major issue with IoT is the lack of sustainable usage. Early adopters tend to buy IoT solutions, try them briefly, then they don't find them enduringly useful, and then let them (Swan, 2012).

The Internet of Things is pertinent to analyze the balance between tradition and innovation. First, they are considered as a disruptive technology (Del Giudice, 2016). Disruptive technologies can cause major shifts, create entirely new industries and provide a basis for a new competitive paradigm (Kostoff et al., 2004). Therefore, the shift between the old and the new is of greater extent. Second, the contexts of application of IoT technologies are currently various (Del Giudice, 2016). While their implications and effects for innovativeness and performance were conducted in mature industries (Del Giudice, 2016), we contribute to the analysis of IoT in the particular context of CCI (Solima et al., 2016). Past research analyzed how the recombination of old components positively influences the creation of successful innovations and the main characteristics of old components contributing to the success of innovations (Petruzzelli and Savino, 2014). We herein look at the same concepts and looking at the same phenomenon but the other way around. We analyze the role of the Internet of Things as a particular innovation on the balance between old and new elements.

3. Illustrative case of the French wine industry

We complement the theoretical development with an illustration from the wine industry which, contrary to the conventional view, is extremely innovative and also remains anchored to tradition. We chose this industry because of its capacity to innovate by maintaining a strong link with the past (De Massis et al., 2016). The French wine industry represents a pertinent setting for this study as it is a CCI characterized with a combination of traditional and innovative elements. We drew on multiple and varied sources of information in finding evidence on IoT application in the wine industry (De Massis et al., 2016).

Elements of Tradition and Innovation in the Wine Industry and the role of IoT Following McCarthy, Ewing-Mulligan, and Cassetari (2001), we can identify traditional and innovative elements for the following activities that encompass the wine industry from value creation perspective (Bhatiasevi and Dutot, 2014): (1) Research and Development (applied R&D excluded); (2) Wine growing; (3) Wine making; (4) Types of wine, and; (5) Wine marketing. Each organization might be more traditional on some dimensions, and also considered very innovative on some other dimensions, showing the complexity of the dynamic between traditions and innovations (Torrès, 2006).

4. Expected results

An investigation of IoT applications on the Wine industry processes – ranging from R&D to the wine type, Research and development, wine growing, winemaking and wine marketing – shows that the Internet of Things is not equally present in all wine-related activities. There is no direct application in the wine type as well as R&D activities. The role of IoT is therefore neutral in balancing between tradition and innovation when related to upstream activities in the wine industry. Overall, the IoT represents a facilitator in balancing traditional and innovative features in the wine growing activities. The new brings supports the old. For downstream activities, IoT also provides new solutions for wine marketing or wine logistics. IoT facilitate the link between the old and the new. Traditions do not not only embody negative features, and disruptive innovations can reinforce the anchor-points of the pastoriented characteristics of CCIs.

Conclusion

In this article, we aim at investigating the relationship between the old and the new. More specifically, our objective lies in examining the role of the Internet of Things in balancing tradition and innovation in the context of creating industries (Messeni Petruzzelli and Savino, 2015). Previous work showed that in the context of CCI, referring to old elements can represent a mean to eliminate the cultural homogenization due to globalization (Messeni Petruzzelli and Savino, 2015), which is very much the case of the wine industry (Castellano and Khelladi, 2016). Novel elements can reinforce traditional features of CCI if these new and old elements are combined appropriately and if they have specific characteristics (De Massis et al., 2016).

We contribute to the debate between the old and the new (Petruzzelli and Savino, 2014) and the ITT (Innovation Through Tradition) approach. We find that novel features exert a greater degree of acceptance when they reinforce and/complete the traditional way of doing things (Messeni Petruzzelli and Savino, 2015). Tradition and innovation do not represent the two extremes of a continuum. The combinations between tradition and innovation require achieving a balance. In the CCI context, disruptive technologies can even reinforce the positive effects of traditional elements. Our case illustration shows that the role of IoT is quite neutral regarding upstream activities (Wine type and R&D as the applied dimension is quite limited). However, the IoT plays a great role in reinforcing traditional elements for downstream activities in the wine wine industry (wine growing, wine making and logistics). These disruptive technologies possess a direct applied dimension which facilitates their diffusion and adoption among organizations, competitors and consumers.

Finally, cultural and creative industries need to better understand and uncover the link between the past, the present and the future. Our article bridges the gap by also introducing disruptive technologies, which are very much forward-oriented to get a better grasp on pastoriented mechanisms. The wine industry is mature and established. However, the knowledge, norms, practices, and symbols developed throughout the centuries need disruptive innovations such as the IoT to reinforce their anchor-points, their roots and their reference to past elements.

References

Anglade, P., Arcache, J., & Montalbetti, C. (1994). *Encyclopédie touristique des vins de France*. Paris: Hachette.

Atzori, L., Iera, A., & Morabito, G. (2010). The internet of things: A survey. *Computer Networks*, 54(15), 2787-2805.

Bhatiasevi, V., & Dutot, V. (2014). Creative industries and their role in the creative value chain–a comparative study of SMEs in Canada and Thailand. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation Management*, 18(5-6), 466-480.

Barrère, C. (2006). Les liens entre culture, industries culturelles et industries créatives. In Création et diversité au miroir des industries culturelles (pp. 193-226). Ministère de la Culture-DEPS.

Bartolomeo, M. (2014). *Internet of Things: Science Fiction or Business Fact*. A Harvard Business Review Analytic Services Report, Tech. Rep.

Balmer, J. M. (2011). Corporate heritage identities, corporate heritage brands and the multiple heritage identities of the British Monarchy. *European Journal of Marketing*, 45(9/10), 1380- 1398.

Barney, J. (1991). Firm resources and sustained competitive advantage. *Journal of management,* 17(1), 99-120.

Capaldo, A., Lavie, D., & Petruzzelli, A. M. (2014). Knowledge maturity and the scientific value of innovations the roles of knowledge distance and adoption. *Journal of Management*, 43(2), 503-533.

Capul, J-Y. and Garnier, O. (2015) Dictionnaire d'Economie et de Sciences Sociales, Hatier, Paris.

Castellano, S., & Khelladi, I. (2016). How French wine producers use open innovation to gain and manage their legitimacy. *Journal of the Knowledge Economy*, 7(1), 155-171.

Castellano, S., & Khelladi, I. (2015). Influence du territoire sur la légitimité et le prix: le cas du secteur viti-vinicole français. *Revue d'Économie Régionale & Urbaine*, (5), 801-828.

Castellano, S., Ivanova, O., Adnane, M., Safraou, I., & Schiavone, F. (2013). Back to the future: adoption and diffusion of innovation in retro-industries. *European Journal of Innovation Management*, 16(4), 385-404.

Castellano, S. and Ivanova, O. (2007). Balancing Between Tradition and Innovation – French Wines From the Bordeaux and the Languedoc-Roussillon Regions, Vineyard Data Quantification Society, Trier.

Cyert, R. M., & March, J. G. (1963). *A behavioral theory of the firm*. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

Dacin, M. T., Dacin, P. A. (2008). Traditions as institutionalized practice: Implications for deinstitutionalization. In The Sage *Handbook of Organizational Institutionalism*, Edited by Greenwood, R., Oliver, C., Sahlin, K., & Suddaby, R. pp. 327-352.

Del Giudice, M. (2016). Discovering the Internet of Things (IoT): technology and business process management, inside and outside the innovative firms. *Business Process Management Journal*, 22(2).

De Massis, A., Frattini, F., Kotlar, J., Petruzzelli, A. M., & Wright, M. (2016). Innovation through tradition: lessons from innovative family businesses and directions for future research. The *Academy of Management Perspectives*, 30(1), 93-116.

DiMaggio, P., & Powell, W. W. (1983). The iron cage revisited: Collective rationality and institutional isomorphism in organizational fields. *American Sociological Review*, 48(2), 147-160.

Ferretti, M., & Schiavone, F. (2016). Internet of Things and business processes redesign in seaports: The case of Hamburg. *Business Process Management Journal*, 22(2), 271-284.

Fleisch, E. (2010). What is the internet of things? *An economic perspective. Economics, Management, and Financial Markets*, (2), 125-157.

Johnson, H. (1990), *Une histoire mondiale du vin : de l'Antiquité à nos Jours*, Hachette Littératures : Paris.

Kostoff, R. N., Boylan, R., & Simons, G. R. (2004). Disruptive technology roadmaps. Technological Forecasting and Social Change, 71(1), 141-159.

McCarthy, E., Ewing-Mulligan, M., & Casserati, I. P. (2000). *Le vin pour les nuls*. Paris: First.

Messeni Petruzzelli, A., & Savino, T. (2015). Reinterpreting tradition to innovate: the case of Italian haute cuisine. *Industry and Innovation*, 22(8), 677-702.

Miorandi, D., Sicari, S., De Pellegrini, F., & Chlamtac, I. (2012). Internet of things: Vision, applications and research challenges. *Ad Hoc Networks*, 10(7), 1497-1516.

Nelson, R. R., & Winter, S. G. (1982). The Schumpeterian tradeoff revisited. *The American Economic Review*, 72(1), 114-132.

O'Connor, J. (2010). *The Cultural and Creative Industries: a Literature review* (2nd Ed.), Creativity, Culture and Education, London: UK.

Petruzzelli, A. M., & Savino, T. (2014). Search, recombination, and innovation: Lessons from haute cuisine. *Long Range Planning*, 47(4), 224-238.

Pouder, R., & John, C. H. S. (1996). Hot spots and blind spots: Geographical clusters of firms and innovation. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(4), 1192-1225.

Richards, G. and Marques, L. (2012) 'Exploring Creative Tourism: Editors Introduction', *Journal of Tourism Consumption and Practice*, 4(2), p. 1-11.

Solima, L., Della Peruta, M. R., & Maggioni, V. (2016). Managing adaptive orientation systems for museum visitors from an IoT perspective. *Business Process Management Journal*, 22(2), 285-304.

Sundmaeker, H., Guillemin, P., Friess, P., & Woelfflé, S. (2010). Vision and challenges for realising the Internet of Things. C*luster of European Research Projects on the Internet of Things*, European Commision.

Swan, M. (2012). Sensor mania! the internet of things, wearable computing, objective metrics, and the quantified self 2.0. *Journal of Sensor and Actuator Networks*, 1(3), 217-253.

Taber, G. M. (2005). *Judgment of Paris: California vs. France and the Historic 1976* Paris Tasting That Revolutionized Wine.

Teece, D. J., Pisano, G., & Shuen, A. (1997). Dynamic capabilities and strategic management. *Strategic management journal*, 509-533.

Torrès, O. (2005). *La Guerre des vins: l'affaire Mondavi: Mondialisation et terroirs*. Dunod : Paris.

Vermesan, O., Friess, P., Guillemin, P., Sundmaeker, H., Eisenhauer, M., Moessner, K., Moessnero, F., Le Gall, and Cousin, P. (2013). *Internet of Things: Converging Technologies for Smart Environments and Integrated Ecosystems*, 7–151. River Publishers.

Exploring the perceived value of a wine tourism mobile app: Conceptual framework and empirical study

Valentina Kirova
Associate Professor, Excelia Group CERIIM
Associate researcher – IRGO EA 4190
102 rue de Coureilles, 17024 La Rochelle Cedex 1
kirovav@excelia-group.com

Tan Vo Thanh
Associate Professor, Excelia Group
CEREGE EA 1722
102 rue de Coureilles, 17024 La Rochelle Cedex 1
vothanht@excelia-group.com

Introduction

Wine tourism is a form of special interest tourism combining cultural and rural activities. For worldwide wine destinations, the number of wine tourists and incomes from wine tourism are continuously growing. Over the last decade in France, the number of wine tourists has increased by 33%, reaching 10 million visitors and 5.2 billion euros of revenue generated per year (Atout France, 2017). In the same period, the US wine tourism market, dominated by domestic visitors, reached 15 million travelers that were motivated by wine tourism and generated nearly 20 billion US dollars in revenue (Mintel, 2017).

Wine tourists are seeking a holistic experience focused not only on degustation and purchasing, but also on educational, recreational, escapist and immersive experience (Afonso, Silva, Gonçalves, & Duarte, 2018; Vo Thanh & Kirova, 2018). As suggested by Fernandes and Cruz (2016), in a fast growing experience economy, customers are looking for a memorable co-created experiences, with both utilitarian and hedonic components, involving them emotionally, physically and intellectually. Wine tourism experience is traditionally grounded on the authentic atmosphere of a winery, vineyards and heritage sites visits. However, wine tourism is increasingly shaped by the introduction of information and communication technologies (Martins et al., 2017). With new technologies being introduced, the conventional wine tourist experience could be deeply transformed engendering new types of tourist activities and a technology enhanced experiences (Neuhofer, Buhalis, & Ladkin, 2014). Broadly, on a tourism industry level, the extensive development of mobile applications has particularly helped the facilitation of experiences and opened new opportunities, challenges and potential in the field (Gretzel, Fesenmaier, Formica, & O'Leary, 2006).

Nevertheless, the widespread use of mobile applications has not impacted all tourism sectors and segments equally. In particular, in wine tourism, mobile applications are recently introduced. To date there are no studies that have attempted to discuss the perceived value by tourists of a wine tourism mobile application. To address this gap, this paper begins by presenting the relevant literature review, followed by an empirical investigation intended to examine how wine visitors perceive Geovina, the first wine tourism geolocation mobile application designed to discover French vineyards, wine, and terroir.

1. Concept of perceived value

The concept of perceived value has been considered one of the key factors for a firm's strategic management and an effective source of competitive advantage (Holbrook, 2006; Kim & Park, 2017; Sánchez-Fernández & Iniesta-Bonillo, 2007; Woodruff, 1997; Zeithaml, 1988). Dimensions of perceived value might vary from research to research, depending on the research's object, objective, context, etc. However, some common dimensions, covering both cognitive and affective aspects are often observed such as functional and/or social (Chen & Fu, 2018; Hsiao & Chen, 2016; Hsu & Lin, 2015, 2016; Jiang & Kim, 2015; Karjaluoto et al., 2018; Kim & Park, 2017; Kim, Ham, Moon, Chua, & Han, 2019; Koller et al., 2011; Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Yang et al., 2018), emotional (Chen & Fu, 2018; Hsiao & Chen, 2016; Hsu & Lin, 2015; Jiang & Kim, 2015; Kim & Park, 2017; Koller et al., 2011; Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Yang et al., 2018), economic (Hsiao & Chen, 2016; Hsu & Lin, 2015; Kim & Park, 2017), epistemic (Jiang & Kim, 2015; Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001), and conditional (Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Furthermore, there is a gap related to most of extant studies on perceived value. Indeed, most of these studies have concentrated more on what customers "benefit" from rather than "sacrifice" for the exchange (Jiang & Kim, 2015).

1.1. Perceived benefits

1.1.1. Functional benefit

Falling within the Zeithaml's (1988) perspective (quality/price trade-off), quality-based functional value is the utility acquired from the perceived quality and expected performance of the product or service (Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Concerning a mobile app, functional benefit may include attributes that a user can experience such as core purpose, overall quality, responsiveness, flexibility or ubiquity, co-creation, etc. (Hsiao & Chen, 2016; Karjaluoto et al., 2018; McLean, Al-Nabhani, & Wilson, 2018; Shankar et al., 2016; Shaw & Sergueeva, 2019). In a digitalized setting, value co-creation is omnipresent by engaging actors (often consumers and their associated social networks) interacting with organizing actors (often firms and their associated organizational ecosystem) in interactive platforms (Hajli, Shanmugam, Papagiannidis, Zahay, & Richard, 2017; Ramaswamy & Ozcan, 2016, 2018).

1. 1. 2. Social benefit

Social benefit is associated with the gain derived from the product's ability to enhance social self-concept (Hsu & Lin, 2015; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) or the acceptability in different social groups after purchasing products and services (Sheth et al., 1991). A mobile app might be seen as a lever to improve efficiency of user contact. Therefore, social benefit of an app may refer to interacting and impressing others, acquiring certain image, belonging to a community, feeling followed, expressing personal values, seeking for friends and social status, etc. (Chen & Fu, 2018; Hsiao & Chen, 2016; Hsu & Lin, 2016; Yang et al., 2018).

1. 1. 3. Emotional benefit

Emotional benefit is the utility derived from customers' feelings or affective states that a product or service generates (Hsu & Lin, 2015; Sheth et al., 1991; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). Emotional benefit elicited by a mobile app may include attributes such as pleasure, empathy, enjoyment, happiness, excitement, self-fulfilment, etc. (Chen & Fu, 2018; Hsiao & Chen, 2016; Hsu & Lin, 2016; Karjaluoto et al., 2018).

1. 1. 4. Economic benefit

The social exchange theory (SET) (Emerson, 1962) is derived of subtracting the costs paid from the benefits gained. It allows us to examine what individuals consider they will get and lose when using a mobile app. SET states that individuals are more likely to participate in an exchange if they will acquire benefit without encountering unacceptable costs (Jiang & Kim, 2015; Prayag, Hosany, Nunkoo, & Alders, 2013). Individuals use cost-benefit analysis in order to maximize utility. Economic benefit of a mobile app may be made up of attributes such as low price, special offers, value-for-money, points and other rewards, etc. (Hsiao & Chen, 2016; Hsu & Lin, 2015).

1. 1. 5. Epistemic benefit

Epistemic benefit is defined as the gain obtained from products and services to arouse curiosity, deliver novelty or satisfy a desire of knowledge (Sheth et al., 1991). As mobile apps are a new phenomenon, their capacity, for example, to satisfy a desire of knowledge or arouse curiosity should not be overlooked. In this perspective, epistemic benefit of a mobile app may refer to help to learn, arouse curiosity, provide novelty, etc.

1. 1. 6. Conditional benefit

Conditional benefit refers to facing a specific situation and then deciding whether to change behaviour depending on the new circumstances that may be context and location (Sheth et al., 1991). Conditional benefit arises when situational factors occur (Jiang & Kim, 2015). Mobile apps are particularly relevant for producing conditional benefit as they are closely related to context and location. For example, to enrich user experience, TripAdvisor's app offers contextual mobile moments by recognizing the user and his/her location and providing him/her with information to help take a decision at that moment.

1.2. Perceived sacrifices

Customers do not only pay money for the exchange but also incur various types of sacrifice that are not money-related (Jiang & Kim, 2015; Petrick, 2002; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Wang & Wang, 2010; Zeithaml, 1988).

1. 2. 1. Monetary sacrifice

Monetary sacrifice (price) is the most common and often used in studies on perceived value (Jiang & Kim, 2015; Wang & Wang, 2010). Perceived monetary sacrifice is often found to have a significant negative effect on perceived value in most of previous studies. For example, Wang and Wang (2010) conclude that perceived monetary sacrifice has a negative effect on perceived value of using mobile hotel reservation. Jiang and Kim (2015) find that perceived monetary sacrifice negatively influences customers' green hotel choice.

1. 2. 2. Non-monetary sacrifices

Non-monetary sacrifices refer to other kinds of sacrifice than price such as time and effort (Zeithaml, 1988), technological (physical and mental) effort (Wang & Wang, 2010), explicit (inconvenience, lifestyle change, low performance) cost (Jiang & Kim, 2015), etc. These non-monetary sacrifices may include time and effort (search, installation, learning how to use, connecting and loading time), risk of losing privacy, reduced memory of the phone, reduced space of the phone screen (icon), switching cost, etc.

In light of extant literature, in this study, we use a conceptual framework that includes both perceived benefits and sacrifices. On the one hand, in terms of perceived benefits, the current study mobilises six-dimensions including functional, social, emotional, economic, epistemic, and conditional benefit. On the other hand, to capture perceived sacrifices, in addition to monetary sacrifice, we also incorporate other kinds of sacrifice that the user may deploy to obtain and use a mobile app. This conceptual framework will guide us through exploring the perceived value of a mobile app called Geovina that is the first wine tourism geolocalisation app dedicated to wine lovers and visitors to vineyards and wineries in the South of France. This framework is privileged because of its capacity to (1) assess various types of value of a mobile app and (2) capture both cognitive and affective aspects.

2. Methodology

A qualitative approach, drawing upon a multiple sources of data was adopted to explore the multi-dimensional nature of perceived value. As the introduction of mobile applications in wine tourism is recent and previous literature has not delineated value as perceived by apps users, the research design is built primarily for an exploratory purpose. To this end, the field investigation followed a three step data collection approach combining relevant press articles selection, Geovina users' reviews on Internet, and a semi-structured interview with Geovina's creator.

During the first phase, the researchers collected press articles about the Geovina application in order to comprehensively understand the various features of the application.

As a second step, a netnographic investigation is adopted. Collecting on-line interviews is a useful preparatory stage prior to conducting semi-structured interviews and helps to begin to explore the most salient dimensions of user's perceived value. This method is particularly relevant when the research objective is to examine consumers' perceptions and to understand contemporary and complex social phenomena (Vo Thanh & Kirova, 2018). The analysis of on-line reviews helps in developing themes from the consumers' points of view. Netnography is non-intrusive as users deliberately express their opinions.

In the third step, an interview with the Geovina's founder is conducted. The objective of the interview is to investigate the nature and the variety of benefits that the mobile application creator intends to deliver to the users. Finally, a series of semi-structured interviews with key users in the last phase of data collection provides an opportunity to deeply explore the multi-dimensional nature and the various meanings of perceived benefits and sacrifices of a wine tourism mobile application. This stage is valuable to overcome limitations of previous stages. The analysis of in-depth interviews allows to enrich existing insights and endow the conceptual depth required to validate the meaning of value and its constituent concepts (Williams et al., 2016). During the literature review and data collection, a codebook including main themes and sub-themes is progressively elaborated. NVivo 10 software assists researchers in the data coding process.

3. Findings and discussion

Findings are presented according to perceived benefits and sacrifices. Compared to perceived benefits accounting 91.9% of the references, perceived sacrifices are largely underrepresented with 8.1%

Table 1: Perceived benefits and sacrifices

Perceived benefits	**91.9%**	**100.0%**
Conditional benefit		12.0%
Economic benefit		4.8%

Emotional benefit		4.0%
Epistemic benefit		12.0%
Functional benefit		58.4%
Social benefit		8.8%
Perceived sacrifices	**8.1%**	**100.0%**
Monetary sacrifice		0.0%
Non-monetary sacrifices		100.0%

Verbatim cover the six types of perceived benefits identified in the literature. Functional benefits are the most frequently mentioned with 58.4% of the references. A wide range of functional attributes are underlined by users such as core features related to geolocation that allows users to find cellars, restaurants, wine bars, accommodation, wine tasting experiences, etc. Moreover, users appreciate to have a large range of wine establishments and wine-related issues embedded in the app. A relevant quote illustrates this dimension: "*Very good app and very well done! You can discover the Languedoc terroir in all its majesty! I highly recommend to all wine lovers! In addition, a satisfactory user experience and a lot of information make the application quite useful.*" Jackson, 07/2015.

Conditional and epistemic benefits represent 12.0% of the references each one. Mobile application is relevant for producing conditional benefits as it relates to context and location. For instance, it allows users to discover wine regions, vineyards, wineries and identify offerings related to wine according to the place where they are located. Epistemic benefits refer to accessing, by video or sound, to multiple information on the identity of the place, its history, grape varieties, wine production process, etc.

These two aspects are supported by the following statement of a mobile app user "*I mean that the wine brings together different cultures and the app helps to also discover the environment, the cultural heritage, it is really a learning experience. This app is very useful to find out what is around us.*" Stephane, 05/2018.

Mobile application can offer to users two forms of social benefits (virtual vs. physical). On one hand, the application allows to directly share the experience through social networks. On the other hand, the app is considered a mediation tool helping winemakers and users to see each other through the wine tasting experience and other wine-related experiences. As a user suggests, "*This app is a very good plan for wine lovers, great to meet producers, share, discuss and taste their products with friends! Great idea...*" Marie, 02/2016.

Economic benefits concern promotional information offered by winemakers, free application and special offers. More specifically, the free application is widely valued by most of users. Finally, emotional benefits are relative to the hedonic dimension, the pleasure and fun while using the app. This aspect could be illustrated by the following verbatim: "*So Geovina can really help people to immerse in the heart of the terroir and make them live different sensory experiences.*" Melody, 08/2018.

As the mobile app is free of charge, users do not mention any monetary sacrifices. Non-monetary sacrifices can come from the perceived difficulties related to app loading time, memory and space of the phone, privacy information requirements. In addition, some users think that the application is intrusive and sometimes does not work well, particularly due to the geolocation function and application ergonomic design. Users underline these technical and layout issues: "*Have some annoying bugs! Geolocation does not work .... When the application runs, it hides the back-side buttons at the bottom of the screen ... Too bad, it looks quite attractive though.*" Jean, 02/2018.

This research has the merit to corroborate previous studies, suggesting the multidimensional nature of the concept of perceived value. Concretely, in the context of a wine mobile application perceived benefits are composed of six dimensions. Specifically, functional benefits of a mobile app are largely highlighted.

In line with Sweeney and Soutar (2001), users feel engaged with and expect high performance of various features offered by the app. This helps them to easily accede to a wide range of offerings and consequently to enhance their overall wine tourism experience and satisfaction (Hsu & Lin, 2016; Karjaluoto et al., 2018). Findings also allow to improve managerial aspects by providing with useful information to make the app more efficient. The research highlights the free character of the application which contributes partially to its generalization and success. This result confirms the social exchange theory by the way that individuals are more likely to participate in an exchange if its benefit is superior to the cost that they have to mobilize (Hsu & Lin, 2015; Jiang & Kim, 2015; Prayag et al., 2013). Particularly, in the wine tourism context, findings indicate that to make the app more attractive one should reference a large number of wine producers and wine-related offerings.

Conclusion

This study is the first to investigate the perceived value explaining the adoption of a wine tourism mobile app. Functional benefits are the main drivers of using the app and overall satisfaction, whereas the brakes of using the app are of non-monetary nature. An investigation of the perceived value offered by a mobile app in wine tourism is important because, technology offers enhanced experiences and opens new opportunities for this traditional sector given that wine tourism is its infancy in terms of technology application to value the offerings (Gretzel et al., 2006). From a methodological standpoint, the triangulation of three information sources reinforces the findings validity. As technology is newly introduced in wine tourism, further research is needed to provide a broader understanding of its utilization both from consumer and provider perspectives.

References

Afonso, C., Silva, G. M., Gonçalves, H. M., & Duarte, M. (2018). The role of motivations and involvement in wine tourists' intention to return: SEM and fsQCA findings. *Journal of Business Research*, *89*, 313‐321.

Atout France. (2017). *Cluster œnotourisme. Dossier de présentation*. Retrieved February 5, 2019, from http://atout-france.fr/content/oenotourisme.

Chen, J. H., & Fu, J.-R. (2018). On the effects of perceived value in the mobile moment. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, *27*, 118‐128.

Emerson, R. M. (1962). Power-dependence relations. *American Sociological Review*, *27*(1), 31‐41.

Fernandes, T., & Cruz, M. (2016). Dimensions and outcomes of experience quality in tourism: The case of Port wine cellars. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, *31*, 371‐379.

Gretzel, U., Fesenmaier, D. R., Formica, S., & O'Leary, J. T. (2006). Searching for the future: Challenges faced by destination marketing organizations. *Journal of Travel Research*, *45*(2), 116‐126.

Hajli, N., Shanmugam, M., Papagiannidis, S., Zahay, D., & Richard, M.-O. (2017). Branding co-creation with members of online brand communities. *Journal of Business Research*, *70*, 136‐144.

Holbrook, M. B. (2006). Consumption experience, customer value, and subjective personal introspection: An illustrative photographic essay. *Journal of Business Research*, *59*(6), 714‐725.

Hsiao, K.-L., & Chen, C.-C. (2016). What drives in-app purchase intention for mobile games? An examination of perceived values and loyalty. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, *16*, 18‐29.

Hsu, C.-L., & Lin, J. C.-C. (2015). What drives purchase intention for paid mobile apps? – An expectation confirmation model with perceived value. *Electronic Commerce Research and Applications*, *14*(1), 46‐57.

Hsu, C.-L., & Lin, J. C.-C. (2016). Effect of perceived value and social influences on mobile app stickiness and in-app purchase intention. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*, *108*, 42‐53.

Jiang, Y., & Kim, Y. (2015). Developing multi-dimensional green value: Extending Social Exchange Theory to explore customers' purchase intention in green hotels – evidence from Korea. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *27*(2), 308‐334.

Karjaluoto, H., Shaikh, A. A., Saarijärvi, H., & Saraniemi, S. (2018). How perceived value drives the use of mobile financial services apps. *International Journal of Information Management*. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2018.08.014

Kim, K.-H., & Park, D.-B. (2017). Relationships among perceived value, satisfaction, and loyalty: Community-based ecotourism in Korea. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, *34*(2), 171‐191.

Kim, S., Ham, S., Moon, H., Chua, B.-L., & Han, H. (2019). Experience, brand prestige, perceived value (functional, hedonic, social, and financial), and loyalty among GROCERANT customers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *77*, 169‐177.

Koller, M., Floh, A., & Zauner, A. (2011). Further insights into perceived value and consumer loyalty: A "Green" perspective. *Psychology and Marketing*, *28*(12), 1154‐1176.

Martins, J., Gonçalves, R., Branco, F., Barbosa, L., Melo, M., & Bessa, M. (2017). A multisensory virtual experience model for thematic tourism: A Port wine tourism application proposal. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, *6*(2), 103‐109.

McLean, G., Al-Nabhani, K., & Wilson, A. (2018). Developing a mobile applications customer experience model (MACE) – Implications for retailers. *Journal of Business Research*, *85*, 325‐336.

Mintel (2017). *Wine Tourism - The Global Wine Industry. Report Section March 2017*. Retrieved February 5, 2019, from https://www.aaaa.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/04/Global-Mintel-Wine-tourism-2017-03.pdf.

Neuhofer, B., Buhalis, D., & Ladkin, A. (2014). A typology of technology-enhanced tourism experiences. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, *16*(4), 340‐350.

Petrick, J. F. (2002). Development of a multi-dimensional scale for measuring the perceived value of a service. *Journal of Leisure Research*, *34*(2), 119‐134.

Prayag, G., Hosany, S., Nunkoo, R., & Alders, T. (2013). London residents' support for the 2012 Olympic Games: The mediating effect of overall attitude. *Tourism Management*, *36*, 629‑640.

Ramaswamy, V., & Ozcan, K. (2016). Brand value co-creation in a digitalized world: An integrative framework and research implications. *International Journal of Research in Marketing*, *33*(1), 93‑106.

Ramaswamy, V., & Ozcan, K. (2018). Offerings as digitalized interactive platforms: A conceptual framework and implications. *Journal of Marketing*, *82*(4), 19‑31.

Sánchez-Fernández, R., & Iniesta-Bonillo, M. Á. (2007). The concept of perceived value: A systematic review of the research. *Marketing Theory*, *7*(4), 427‑451.

Shankar, V., Kleijnen, M., Ramanathan, S., Rizley, R., Holland, S., & Morrissey, S. (2016). Mobile shopper marketing: Key issues, current insights, and future research avenues. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, *34*, 37‑48.

Shaw, N., & Sergueeva, K. (2019). The non-monetary benefits of mobile commerce: Extending UTAUT2 with perceived value. *International Journal of Information Management*, *45*, 44‑55.

Sheth, J. N., Newman, B. I., & Gross, B. L. (1991). Why we buy what we buy: A theory of consumption values. *Journal of Business Research*, *22*(2), 159‑170.

Sweeney, J. C., & Soutar, G. N. (2001). Consumer perceived value: The development of a multiple item scale. *Journal of Retailing*, *77*(2), 203‑220.

Vo Thanh, T., & Kirova, V. (2018). Wine tourism experience: A netnography study. *Journal of Business Research*, *83*, 30‑37.

Wang, H.-Y., & Wang, S.-H. (2010). Predicting mobile hotel reservation adoption: Insight from a perceived value standpoint. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *29*(4), 598‑608.

Williams, J., Ashill, N. & Thirkell, P. (2016). How is value perceived by children? *Journal of Business Research*, 69(12), 5875-5885.

Woodruff, R. B. (1997). Marketing in the 21st century customer value: The next source for competitive advantage. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *25*(3), 139‑153.

Yang, S., Jiang, H., Yao, J., Chen, Y., & Wei, J. (2018). Perceived values on mobile GMS continuance: A perspective from perceived integration and interactivity. *Computers in Human Behavior*, *89*, 16‑26.

Zeithaml, V. A. (1988). Consumer perceptions of price, quality, and value: A means-end model and synthesis of evidence. *Journal of Marketing*, *52*(3), 2‑22.

Rural tourism and social media: An application of text analysis in the Chianti classico region

Veronica Alampi Sottini
Dipartimento di Gestione dei Sistemi Agrari, Alimentari e Forestali (GESAAF)
University of Florence, Piazzale delle Cascine 18, 50144, Firenze, Italy
veronica.alampisottini@unifi.it

Elena Barbierato
Dipartimento di Gestione dei Sistemi Agrari, Alimentari e Forestali (GESAAF)
University of Florence, Italy
elena.barbierato@virgilio.it

Iacopo Bernetti
Dipartimento di Gestione dei Sistemi Agrari, Alimentari e Forestali (GESAAF)
University of Florence, Piazzale delle Cascine 18, 50144, Firenze, Italy
iacopo.bernetti@unifi.it

Irene Capecchi
Dipartimento di Gestione dei Sistemi Agrari, Alimentari e Forestali (GESAAF)
University of Florence, Piazzale delle Cascine 18, 50144, Firenze, Italy
irene.capecchi@unifi.it

Sara Fabbrizzi*
Dipartimento di Gestione dei Sistemi Agrari, Alimentari e Forestali (GESAAF)
University of Florence, Piazzale delle Cascine 18, 50144, Firenze, Italy
sara.fabbrizzi@unifi.it

Silvio Menghini
Dipartimento di Gestione dei Sistemi Agrari, Alimentari e Forestali (GESAAF)
University of Florence, Piazzale delle Cascine 18, 50144, Firenze, Italy
silvio.menghini@unifi.it

* Corresponding author

Introduction

Historically agricultural sector has been valued mostly for its capability to provide food and raw materials. During the last decades, a more complex and articulated demand has considered the request of preservation and improvement of the quality of the rural landscape (Howley, 2011), which might be interpreted as an economic resource and as a local public good able to create wellness, services and recreative activities (Oueslati and Salanie, 2011; Dessein et al, 2013). There has been a shift from an essentially productivist view of agriculture to a post-productivist one, that underlines the importance of the provision of public goods, such as amenities, recreation and ecosystem services (Mather et al., 2006). Rural landscape is considered a complex and multifunctional system because it provides goods and services to collectivity and supports human quality of life (Costanza et al., 2007). Several European policies, particularly the Common Agricultural Policy, have focused on landscape quality objectives in order to attain sustainable rural development (Surova and Pinto-Correia, 2016). After the introduction of decoupling and conditionality regulations (EC Reg. 1782/2003), the Community agricultural policies (CAP) have established the bases for the adoption of agri-environmental measures that improve the quality of the landscape. In recent years, an increasing share of budgetary resources has been used for measures aimed at protecting the visual quality of agricultural landscapes (Howley et al., 2012). This phenomena has been accompanied by an evolution of the policies towards a greater involvement of the stakeholders for the development and implementation of the rural policy governance objectives (Rogge et al., 2013). Thus, the comprehension of individuals' perception on landscapes becomes an essential cognitive element for the effective planning of rural development policies, in line with the promotion of bottom-up approaches of territorial governance (De Vreese et al., 2016).The paper aims to investigate people's perception regarding the rural landscape of the Chianti Classico area, whose identity as a specific wine territory is strongly rooted. The analysis is carried out through tags analysis on the flickr photos. The use of geo-tagged photographs seems to be a positive alternative to assess landscape perception in respect to traditional investigation. This new method shows a significant correlation between all crowdsourced data and visitation statistics (Levin et al., 2017). The research is part of big data analysis branch and it uses text analysis methodology (Bolasco, 1999). Text analysis has seen over the years an increase in application fields, ranging from the analysis of literary texts to the analysis of different sources (Bolasco, 2005): interviews (Parr et al, 2011), scientific discourses (Fabbrizzi et al., 2017), blogs (Flottum et al., 2014), news articles (Rivera et al., 2014).

By using emerging crowdsourced data of social media (Rai et al. 2018; Wartmann et al., 2018), this research stresses people's experience, perception and enjoyment related to the Chianti Classico area and it provides useful information for tourism and recreational sector and also for public authorities.

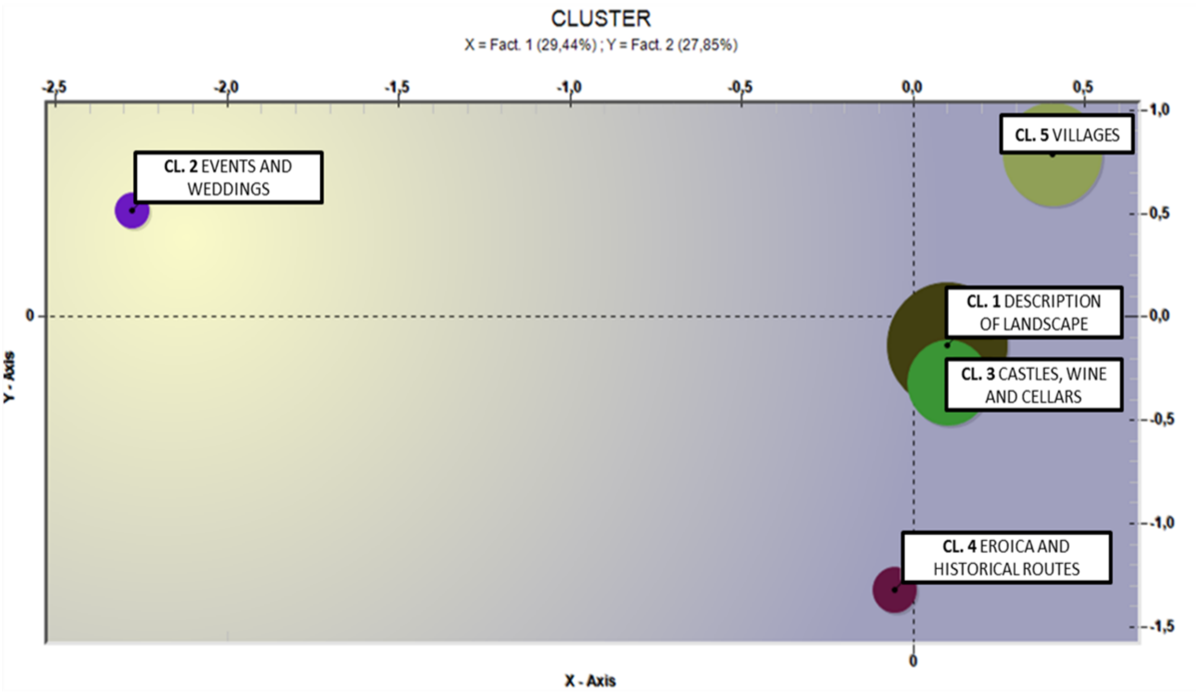
Methodology

The paper analyzes tags on photos through text analysis. The dataset has been structured thanks to an algorithm based on Flickr's *Application Programming Interface*. With the Flickr's API it has been possible to select 28,815 photos taken in the study area from 2005 to 2017. Subsequently, the pictures containing in the tags the "wine", "vineyard", "Chianti", and the related words have been filtered. The final dataset contained 9,304 photographic points. The geographical distribution of the shooting points can provide useful information for determining the most attractive spots in the territory. In this paper, we applied density-based clustering (DBSCAN) to analyze the geographical concentration of information coming from social networks (Li et al., 2018). The results of the elaborations on territorial attractiveness have identified 11 clusters by cutting the hierarchical aggregation graph to a 4,000 meters radius of aggregation. Simultaneously, text analysis of the 9,304 tags has been carried out. The method of textual statistics allows to summarize the information provided by large texts and complex data in semantic dimensions through which textual corpus could be interpreted. These techniques are based on *multidimensional scaling* (Berry and Kogan, 2010). In this work, text analysis is carried out by means of a software package called T-Lab, which is a software for textual semi-automatic analysis that uses statistical and lexical techniques, based on the lexicometric approach (Benzécri, 1992). The pulled corpus has undergone a pre-processing phase, which prepares the text for analysis. In this process of "cleaning", several treatments have been done, for example lexicalization (some separated segments have been traced back to a single form, as it is the case of greve_in_chianti). The database contains English, French, Italian and German words, because we haven't changed the mother tongue of the lemmas. In fact, this choice aims to explore in further researches the diversity of the semantic perception of the territory according to the individuals' origin. The corpus has been analyzed in terms of thematic analysis of elementary context. Thematic analysis highlights a representation of corpus contents through significant thematic cluster, characterized by the same patterns of key-words. The analysis process has been performed by using the bisecting KMeans algorithm (Savaresi and Booley, 2001) and the typical words for each cluster has been extracted by means of the chi-square. Thematic analysis has revealed five thematic clusters which have been related to the previous clusters provided by the density-based clustering (DBSCAN).

Results

The thematic analysis of the elementary contexts has led to an exploration of the corpus contents through significant cluster themes. The results are shown in the figure 1.

Figure 1: Thematic analysis of tags



A good significance of the distribution is defined by the value of explained variance in case of two latent factors (about 60%). The percentage of context units belonging to each cluster is composed as follows:

Table 1: Percentage of context units belonging to each cluster

cluster 1	cluster 2	cluster 3	cluster 4	cluster 5
34%	7%	22%	10%	27%

The distribution of the thematic cluster shows the prevalence of Cluster 1, followed by Clusters 5 and 3. Clusters 4 and, especially, Cluster 2, have minor percentage. The lexical units that characterize each cluster are shown in the table 2. Cluster 1 ("description of landscape") is characterized by lemmas that depict landscape through rural and natural elements of the countryside of Tuscany. Words concerning events and marriage compose Cluster 2 ("events and marriage") and they put in evidence how the Chianti Classico area is particularly suited to celebrate ceremonies thanks to its aesthetic elements. The lemmas in Cluster 3 ("castles, wine and cellars") focus on wine and the noble locations, such as the castles, that stud the hills of the Chianti Classico area with their cellars. Cluster 4 ("Eroica and historical routes") includes lemmas related to the Eroica event and to the historical aspect of the territory. The words contained in Cluster 5 ("villages") are linked to the toponymy of the villages and the towns of the area, with their typical shops, that sell typical local products such as local cured meats. Even though food constitutes an important element for culinary tourism linked with wine, in the research it does not come up as a cluster. There are words related to food (for example "chef", "streetfood", "panzanella") in clusters 3 and 5, with a very high and significant Chi-square, but they are not included in the first 30 lemmas. Presumably, in the collective imagination, Chianti is represented in a more iconic way by landscape and wine. In conclusion, the five clusters can be divided into two macro-groups: the first one, composed by Cluster 2 and Cluster 4, is related to the ceremonies and all the local events and it has a minor impact on the composition of the context units. The second group that includes Cluster 1, Cluster 3 and Cluster 5 looks at the Chianti Classico area like a cinematographic camera, which zooms on the whole territory. At first, the lens frames the universal atmosphere and landscape, than it focuses on the villages and town, and it finally reaches the core of the Chianti Classico area: the wine and the noble families that produce it.

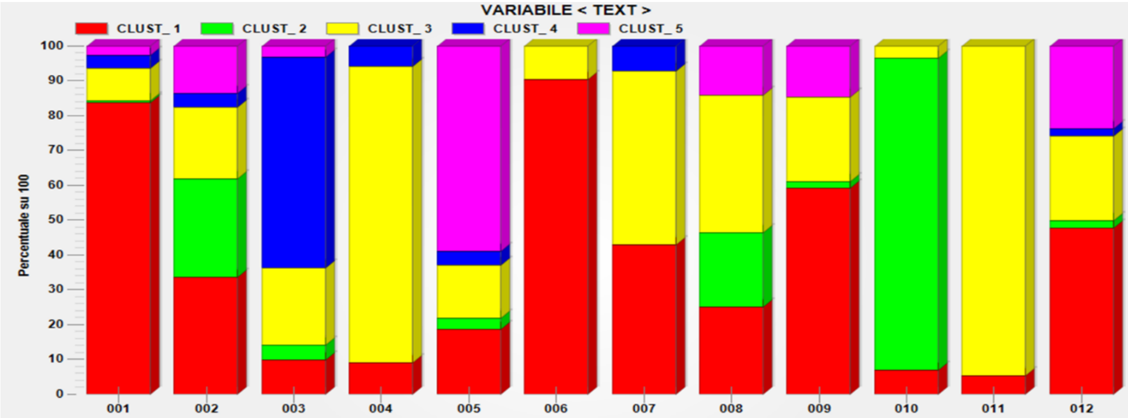
Table 2: Lemmas included in clusters (first 30 parameters)

cluster 1		cluster 2		cluster 3		cluster 4		cluster 5	
description of landscape		events and weddings		castles, wine and cellars		Eroica and historical routes		villages	
Lemmas	Chi^2	Lemmas	Chi^2	Lemmas	Chi^2	Lemmas	Chi^2	Lemmas	Chi^2
castellinainchianti	1070,232	celebration	1928,167	castle	760,561	eroica	6154,721	greveinchianti	1812,937
paesaggio	365,362	flowerdesign	1928,167	summer	523,45	gaioleinchianti	3353,216	officinadellabistecca	910,499
autunno	359,784	jardindivers	1928,167	City	438,026	retrobikes	1305,579	florenz	743,708
cloud	219,601	weddingdesign	1928,167	wine	434,753	vintagebicycleracing	1305,579	volterra	676,436
nature	205,132	event	1912,997	hike	433,142	biciepoca	908,909	montepulciano	674,507
sunset	183,519	flowersgarden	1275,725	olive	421,296	castellodimeleto	845,435	colledivaldelsa	641,325
sky	180,02	gardenwedding	1275,725	castello	416,514	bicycle	772,106	casoledelsa	633,998
castelnuovoberardenga	178,299	villa	984,929	winery	335,019	vintage	673,53	chiantistrasse	626,714
landscape	176,333	castelvecchi	981,302	toscano	300,029	bicyclerace	559,683	mensanello	626,714
vigna	157,235	weddingtable	903,292	castellodibrolio	294,103	cycle	440,598	monteriggioni	465,73
campagna	157,162	wedding	885,521	ricasoli	220,964	bike	378,157	sangimignano	438,332
color	155,637	borgo	883,076	antinori	219,746	vintagebike	316,856	sienna	310,057
hills	148,429	raddainchianti	795,521	vino	197,843	biking	298,742	vacances	264,257
nuvole	136,062	pink	736,76	chianticlassico	171,307	instatuscany	298,742	anticamacelleriacecchini	186,022
natura	133,675	fontebussi	730,474	destination	165,139	sandonatoinperano	288,02	farmholidays	179,914
autumn	132,998	cavriglia	687,734	campagnetoscane	137,043	toscana	269,928	gaioleinchianti	179,914
tramonto	132,857	colli	687,734	weddingintuscancastle	128,789	stagion	235,35	mill	179,914
classico	114,748	ceremony	650,733	panorama	127,621	radrennen	233,754	montebenichi	179,914
colori	112,728	flowercomposition	650,733	cantina	123,988	panzanoinchianticorteo	217,24	terme	179,914
volpaia	109,648	flowerspool	650,733	cellar	117,292	rievocazione	215,675	rapolano	177,99
valle	109,63	mangiacane	650,733	salvadonica	116,441	italiamedievale	205,849	quiet	170,837
countryside	106,295	weddingdecoration	650,733	tuscanlandscape	115,613	historical	196,733	family	166,51
cipressi	91,206	dinner	635,767	vigna	108,677	historischesradrennen	188,567	relax	158,485
colline	88,141	rose	594,635	zonin	107,537	schwarzweiss	162,917	toscane	145,576
vineyard	87,21	party	511,177	landscape	101,311	beauty	161,626	macchiamediterranea	139,745
toscana	86,782	certaldo	484,661	holiday	99,156	ambientiinterni	153,864	parchi	139,745
fog	85,843	borghi	423,428	castellodalbola	99,009	medievale	147,685	ginger	138,294
tree	84,845	garden	372,645	streetfood	89,147	italien	144,416	Village	137,672
chiantigiana	81,601	tripchianti	225,69	winetravel	89,147	granfondo	135,758	Venice	137,071
Italia	79,15	sandonato	216,677	architecture	87,07	oldrace	135,758	parcosculturedelchianti	121,495

Finally, these five thematic clusters have been related to the 11[10] clusters provided by the density-based clustering (DBSCAN). The density-based clustering has highlighted clusters that can belong to two different typologies. The first typology is characterized by large geographical agglomerations ant it is related to the most important historical villages of the area (clusters 1,2,3,5, 7 and 9). The analysis reveals that the main area of interest is related to cluster 5, which is centered on the village of Greve in Chianti. The second typology is composed of clusters of limited territorial areas but with high density of photos and it is located in unique places: castles, very small historical rural villages and wineries. The figure shows the relation that links the 5 thematic clusters with 12 clusters of DBSCAN and it underlines the distribution of the five thematic areas among the twelve clusters of DBSCAN.

[10] (the twelfth cluster in figure 2 is residual)

Figure 2: 5 thematic clusters and 12 clusters of DBSCAN



	001	002	003	004	005	006	007	008	009	010	011	012
CLUST_1	83,8%	33,6%	9,8%	9,0%	18,6%	90,3%	42,9%	25,0%	59,3%	6,9%	5,3%	47,6%
CLUST_2	0,5%	28,2%	4,3%		3,2%			21,4%	1,9%	89,7%		2,1%
CLUST_3	9,2%	20,5%	22,0%	85,1%	15,2%	9,7%	50,0%	39,3%	24,1%	3,4%	94,7%	24,4%
CLUST_4	3,8%	4,1%	60,8%	6,0%	4,0%		7,1%					2,1%
CLUST_5	2,7%	13,6%	3,1%		59,1%			14,3%	14,8%			23,8%

Conclusion

The paper shows that text-based information from social media can be an important and relevant source for exploring landscape preferences. The thematic clusters highlight the elements that move consumer’s perception and preferences regarding the Chianti Classico region. These elements allow farmhouses and wineries to build up a powerful communication and to improve their marketing strategies. This research aims to be a methodological proposal for the application of the text analysis to social media and consumer-generated content on the Internet. In fact, another application of text analysis to big data could focus on the farmhouse guest experience and satisfaction represented in online customer reviews as a new knowledge for supporting decision making in the rural tourism sector (Xiang et al., 2015).

The big data derived by the usage of social media provide useful information for the tourism, the recreational sector and also for the public authorities, because they point out the opinions, the behaviors, the attitudes and the preferences of the consumers.

Through the semantic analysis, the results of the research highlight how people perceive landscape and they provide some interesting starting points for landscape monitoring and management. The study highlights an experiential approach and it could be interpreted as a stimulus to develop new approaches for landscape assessment that go beyond the expert-based approach (Vouligny et al., 2009). In fact, this method could be a step toward the consideration of the public perceptions and the connection between the semantics to the expert-based spatial data collected for landscape evaluation. The analysis of individual perceptions on landscape becomes a cognitive element to raise efficient policy of sustainable rural development, in line with the promotion of bottom-up approaches of local governance.

References

Benzécri, J.P., 1992. *Correspondence Analysis Handbook*. Marcel Dekker, New York.

Berry, M.W. & Kogan, J. (2010). *Text mining: Application and Theory*. Wiley.

Bolasco S. (2005). *Statistica testuale e text mining: alcuni paradigmi applicativi*. Quaderni di Statistica 7, 17-53.

Bolasco, S. (2013). *Analisi multidimensionale dei dati: metodi, strategie e criteri d'interpretazione*. Carocci.

Costanza, R., Fisher, B., Mulder, K., Liu, S., & Christopher, T. (2007). Biodiversity and ecosystem services: A multi-scale empirical study of the relationship between species richness and net primary production. *Ecological economics*, 61(2-3), 478-491.

Dessein, J., Bock, B. B., & De Krom, M. P. (2013). Investigating the limits of multifunctional agriculture as the dominant frame for Green Care in agriculture in Flanders and the Netherlands. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 32, 50-59.

De Vreese, R., Leys, M., Fontaine, C.M. & Dendoncker (2016). Social mapping of perceived ecosystem services supply –The role of social landscape metrics and social hotspots for integrated ecosystem services assessment, landscape planning and management. *Ecological Indicators*, 66, 517-533.

Fabbrizzi, S., Maggino, F., Marinelli, N., Menghini, S., Ricci, C., & Sacchelli, S. (2017). Sustainability: A quantitative discourse analysis. *Rivista di Studi sulla Sostenibilità,* 1, 11-25.

Fløttum, K., Müller Gjesdal, A.m, Gjerstad, Ø., Koteyko, N. (2014). Representations of the future in English language blogs on climate change. *Global Environmental Change* 29, 213-222.

Howley P. (2011). Landscape aesthetics: Assessing the general publics' preferences towards rural landscapes. *Ecological Economics* 72 (C), 161-169.

Howley P., Donoghhue C.O. & Hynes S. (2012). Exploring public preferences for traditional farming landscapes. *Landscape and Urban Planning* 104, 66-74.

Levin, N., Lechner, A. M., & Brown, G. (2017). An evaluation of crowdsourced information for assessing the visitation and perceived importance of protected areas. *Applied geography,* 79, 115-126.

Mather, A. S., Hill, G., & Nijnik, M. (2006). Post-productivism and rural land use: cul de sac or challenge for theorization? *Journal of Rural Studies*, 22(4), 441-455.

Oueslati, W., & Salanié, J. (2011). Landscape valuation and planning (Editorial). *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management*, 54, 1-6.

Parr, W.V., Mouret M., Blackmore S., Pelquest-Hunt T., Urdapilleta I. (2011). Representation of complexity in wine: Influence of expertise. *Food Quality and Preference* 22, 647-660.

Rai, A., Minsker, B., Diesner, J., Karahalios, K., & Sun, Y. (2018). *Identification of landscape preferences by using social media analysis.* In 2018 International Workshop on Social Sensing , 44-49. IEEE.

Rivera S.J., Minsker B.S., Work D.B., Roth D., 2014. A text mining framework for advancing sustainability indicators. *Environmental Modelling & Software* 62, 128-138.

Rogge, E., Dessein, J., & Verhoeve, A. (2013). The organisation of complexity: A set of five components to organise the social interface of rural policy making. *Land Use Policy*, 35, 329-340.

Savaresi S.M., Boley D.L. (2001). *On the performance of bisecting K-means and PDDP*, 1st SIAM Conference in Data Mining, Chicago, IL, USA, April 5-7, paper n. 5: 1-14.

Surová, D., & Pinto-Correia, T. (2016). *A landscape menu to please them all: Relating users' preferences to land cover classes in the Mediterranean region of Alentejo, Southern Portugal*. Land Use Policy, 54, 355-365.

Vouligny, É., Domon, G., & Ruiz, J. (2009). An assessment of ordinary landscapes by an expert and by its residents: Landscape values in areas of intensive agricultural use. *Land Use Policy*, 26(4), 890-900.

Wartmann, F. M., Acheson, E., & Purves, R. S. (2018). Describing and comparing landscapes using tags, texts, and free lists: an interdisciplinary approach. *International Journal of Geographical Information*

Science, 32(8), 1572-1592.

Xiang, Z., Schwartz, Z., Gerdes Jr, J. H., & Uysal, M. (2015). What can big data and text analytics tell us about hotel guest experience and satisfaction? *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 44, 120-130.

Attributes of experiential consumption: An application to wine and culinary tourism

Prof. Dr. Guenter Schamel
Full professor, Free University of Bozen-Bolzano,
Faculty of Economics and Management
guenter.schamel@unibz.it

Introduction

Objective of this paper is to gain a better understanding of preferences of tourists driven by wine and food (culinary) interests (e.g. integrated winery visits, wine seminars, food and wine pairings). Specifically, we study the demand preferences to assess relevant features crucial to developing a wine and culinary tourism segment and related hotel offers. Moreover, we explore the nature and pricing of the current supply in this domain. In doing so, we relate the preferred elements of consumer demand to the key components of experiential consumption (4E = Entertainment, Education, Escapist, Esthetic) and to the current market supply to determine their implicit prices.

The theory of experiential consumption (Pine and Gilmore, 1999) has inspired numerous studies related to tourism in general (e.g. Oh et al. 2007) as well as to wine or food tourism (e.g. Cohen and Ben-Nun, 2009). In this paper, we look at preferences of tourists interested in combining wine and food (culinary) related experiences and we examine the pricing of such experiences. We aim to close a gap in the literature, studying the key elements of consumer preferences related to wine and food available in the market, how they fit into the theory of experiential consumption and how they are valued in the market. Consequently, we follow two objectives in this study. First, to examine the demand preferences that are important for tourists in identifying a desirable wine and culinary experience and to relate them to the theory of experiential consumption. Second, to study the attributes of current supply that offer a wine and culinary experiences in the market and relating them to actual prices charged in the market.

Methodologically, we utilize an online survey among potential tourists asking them about their preferred features of a wine and culinary related hotel stay in South Tyrol. We employ the data obtained to test the theory of experiential consumption using a principal component analysis. In addition, we gathered a second data set from hotels offering a wine and culinary experience to tourists visiting the region. This data set characterizes the supply side of wine and culinary tourism experiences. We use the hotel offers to relate attributes of supply to the theory of experiential consumption and to build a hedonic model with which we estimate implicit prices for the components of a wine and culinary experience.

1. Literature

In the literature, we find several relevant studies on food (culinary) or wine tourism features from a demand perspective. Charters and Ali-Knight (2002) identify specific wine tourist activities to better define wine tourism. Getz and Brown (2006) identify the core wine-product, the general destination appeal and cultural product as the critical features of a wine tourism experience from a consumer perspective. Schamel (2013) analyses the importance and potential of wine tourism in South Tyrol concluding that in addition to oenophiles, relishing tourists are an interesting target group to further develop a wine tourism segment since they have only a limited knowledge about wine. We find some, but relatively few relevant studies on culinary and wine tourism from a demand perspective. Sidali et al. (2015) develop a theoretical framework for niche marketing food specialties through rural tourism that incorporates the experience economy model.

Quadri-Felitti and Fiore (2012) review studies on the evolution of understanding the wine tourism experience and propose a model to advance a theory of experiential consumption (4E = Entertainment, Education, Escapist, Esthetic). Within this theory, Charters and Pettigrew (2005) ask whether wine consumption is an aesthetic experience.

Conceptually, Oh et al. (2007) are among the first to embark on measuring experience economy constructs. Tsai and Wang (2017) evaluate a food tourism experience and their value in branding. In this study, we identify and evaluate important demand features for hotel stays that combine a wine and culinary experience, applying the theory of experiential consumption. We also add to the growing literature relating tourism product prices and attributes (e.g. Thrane, 2005; Schamel, 2012), i.e. we evaluate experience economy concepts in terms of observed market prices.

We add to the existing literature in two ways. First, we apply the theory of experiential consumption to combined wine and culinary related tourist experiences, identifying the key components of tourism demand preferences in this domain. Second, we relate the 4E-model of experiential consumption to the hedonic literature on tourism product pricing. In doing so, we can critically assess the development of wine and culinary tourism segments and to create more successful marketing initiatives.

2. Data and Methodology

This study combines primary data from an online survey and secondary data describing the supply of wine and culinary tourism offers in South Tyrol in 2017 and 2019. Together with the survey, the secondary data source identifies a method to price wine and culinary experiences. The online survey aimed at potential tourists interested in wine and culinary related vacation offers in South Tyrol and compiled a convenience sample comprised of 182 respondents and their preferences when booking a wine and culinary related hotel offer. The usable sample size with complete responses for all relevant items is 134. It is ⅔ female and ⅓ male and has an international composition with 29% German, 60% Italian, 4% Swiss, 3% Austrian and 4% from other countries. Roughly 50% of respondents have a university education. Thus, the sample is representative in the sense that these shares are in line with the tourists typically visiting the region.

We elaborate 13 selected items to identify important demand features of wine and culinary tourists: winery visits, guided wine tastings, guided vineyard walks, guided cellar visits, availability of trained sommeliers, access to wine information events, other hotel guests having a wine interest, options to attend a regional cooking class or wine seminar, hiking activities with traditional local food, culinary activities (e.g. gourmet wine dinners), exclusive wine bar and cellar, daily restaurant menu with featured wines, and accessible wine and culinary books and magazines. Respondents had to rate the importance of these features being offered using a 7-point Likert scale. Cronbach's alpha for the 13 items is equal to 0.835. "Guided wine tastings" have the highest average rating followed by "Guided cellar visits" while "hotel guests with a wine interest" receives the lowest average response rating. Note that both extremes directly relate to wine. "Gourmet wine dinners" and "daily menus with featured wines" receive the highest average response ratings of features combining both wine and culinary aspects of demand.

The survey data is used to perform a principle component analysis (PCA) with the aim to relate the demand features to the theory of experiential consumption, i.e. to associate wine and culinary tourism demand features with the 4E-model of experiential consumption.

A second data set identifies the supply by Vinumhotels, an alliance of 29 hotels offering wine and culinary experiences in South Tyrol. We obtained data for the 2017 and 2019 season on featured attributes of wine and culinary experiences and related prices for the basic offer. We classify each of the 29 offers according to whether they include important demand features preferred by wine and culinary tourists, group them according to the results of the PCA. We can relate these attributes to the 4-E model as examined in our survey. Table 2 summarizes their basic wine and culinary offers by Vinumhotels. The average price increased from 88.64 €/person/night in 2017 to 103.33€ in 2019. The average hotel rating has increased from 3.98 in 2017 to 4.05 stars in 2019.

3. Results

The PCA analysis reveals a 4-factor solution identifying the demand features of hotel offers featuring wine and culinary experiences. The total variance explained by the model is 65% of which the four individual factors explain between 13% and 24%. Factor names reflect the main demand features from a tourist perspective and directly relate to the 4E-model proposed by the theory of experiential consumption (entertainment, education, escapist, and aesthetic). This confirms that the 4E-model applies to hotel offers featuring wine and culinary experiences as suggested previously (e.g. Quadri-Felitti and Fiore, 2012; Pikkemaat et al., 2009).

The first factor summarizes "Wine as Infotainment" and associates with entertainment while the second exemplifies "Social-Cultural Engagement" and relates to education. The third concerns "Wine and Food Activities" and suggests being escapist. Finally, the fourth factor relates to "Accommodation Traits & Style" and associates with aesthetics.

We use the result of the PCA and the descriptors of the 29 basic wine and culinary hotel offers to classify if an area of the 4E-model is included in the offer or not. Thus, we classify the attributes included in an offer according to their experiential dimension obtained from the PCA. This defines four dummy variables representing the 4E's, respectively. In 2017 and in 2019, all 29 basic hotel offers include at least one feature classified as "Entertainment" while the other features (education, escapist, and aesthetic) are not present in all offers. Hence, entertainment experience serves as a basic offer category relative to which individual hotel offers differentiate. This allows us to estimate a simple hedonic pricing model relating attributes of wine and culinary tourism products and experiential consumption to prices being charged (in €/person/night). Independent variables included in the model are the hotel star rating, a dummy variable for dinner or half-board included, and dummy variables categorizing the features offered into one of the 4E's of experiential consumption. Reference category is a stay in an average 4-star hotel with basic offers that include at least an "Entertainment" experience.

The hedonic model shows that hotel stars are the most significant variable also explaining prices for wine and culinary related offers. Relative to an average 4-star hotel, the estimation with the 2017 (2019) data reveals that another ½ star has an implicit price of 23.59€ (21.23€). On the downside, the estimation reveals that relative to an average 4-star hotel, a 3½ star hotel exhibits a discount of 18.50€ in 2017 and a 24€ in 2018. Hence, there is an observable tendency to improve quality as the discount relative to lower rated hotels increases. Including dinner or half-board at the hotel's restaurant is another important attribute with an implicit price of 18.66€ in 2017 and 17.53€ in 2019.

Turning to the results related to experience attributes, education is the least likely element to be included in a standard offer. It has the most significant price effect in 2017 with an implicit price of about 15€. Escapist and aesthetic experiences are significant at least at the 10% level in 2017 with implicit priced around 13 to 14€, respectively. The estimation using the 2019 data reveals that education and escapist experiences render insignificant results while aesthetic experiences remain significant at least at the 10% level, translating into a 15€ price premium relative to offering only entertainment experiences.

Conclusions

The empirical results obtained seem plausible and in line with previous research relating to wine tourism features and the 4E-model of experiential consumption. Hence, our analysis of demand preferences indicates that tourists driven by wine and food (culinary) interests fit the 4E-model of experiential consumption. In a second step, we analysed hotel offers in the wine and culinary segment from South Tyrol, attributing price premia for experiential consumption.

Attributes that provide an entertainment experience form the basis of any offer in the wine and culinary tourism segment. Estimation results for implicit prices of experience attributes are significant but do not remain stable over time. This may be due to observed quality upgrading of hotels at the expense of premia for educational and escapist experiences.

Attributes that provide an educational experience are relevant but add a significant price premium in 2017. The demand features examined in this domain (e.g. specific wine information events, cooking lessons, wine seminars) require investments in human capital and can be implemented relatively easily into an existing hotel infrastructure. Given significant premia for experience attributes, matching related demand preferences and supply conditions may be crucial to develop a successful wine and culinary tourism segment.

References

Charters, S., J. Ali-Knight (2002). Who is the wine tourist? *Tourism Management*, 23 (3): 311-319

Charters, S., S. Pettigrew (2005). Is wine consumption an aesthetic experience? *Journal of Wine Research*, 16 (2): 121-136

Cohen, E., L. Ben-Nun (2009). The important dimensions of wine tourism experience from potential visitors' perception. *Tourism & Hospitality Research*, 9 (1): 20-31

Getz, D., G. Brown (2006). Critical success factors for wine tourism regions: a demand analysis. *Tourism Management*. 27 (1): 146-158

Mak, A.H., M. Lumbers, A. Eves (2012). Globalization and food consumption in tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 39(1): 171-196

Oh, H., A.M. Fiore, M. Jeoung (2007): Measuring experience economy concepts: Tourism applications. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46 (2): 119-132.

Pikkemaat, B., M. Peters, P. Boksberger, M. Secco (2009): The staging of experiences in tourism. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 18 (2): 237–253.

Pine, B.J., J.H Gilmore (1999). *The experience economy*. Harvard Business Press. Boston, MA

Quadri-Felitti, D., A.M Fiore (2012). Experience economy constructs as a framework for understanding wine tourism. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 18 (1): 3-15.

Quan, S., N. Wang (2004). Towards a structural model of the tourist experience: An illustration from food experiences in tourism. *Tourism Management* 25 (3): 297-305

Schamel G. (2013). Bedeutung und Potential des Weintourismus in Südtirol. in K. Scherhag (Ed): *Weintourismus und Marketing*. Lohmar-Köln: Josef Eul Verlag: 139-150.

Schamel, G. (2012). Weekend vs. midweek stays: Modelling hotel room rates in a small market. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31 (4): 1113-1118.

Sidali, K.L., E. Kastenholz, R. Bianchi (2015). Food tourism, niche markets and products in rural tourism: combining the intimacy model and the experience economy as a rural development strategy. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23 (8/9): 1179-97

Thrane, C. (2005). Hedonic Price Models and Sun-and-Beach Package Tours: The Norwegian Case. *Journal of Travel Research*, 43 (3): 302-308.

Tsai, C.T.S., Y.C. Wang (2017): Experiential value in branding food tourism. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 6 (1): 56-65.

Creating a wine farm destination: A new business model for an agritourism micro-cluster

Robin M. Back *
Assistant professor, University of Central Florida
Robin.Back@ucf.edu

Linda L. Lowry
Assistant professor, University of Massachusetts [Amherst]
Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management Isenberg School of Management
llowry@isenberg.umass.edu

Lindsey M. Higgins
Assistant professor, California Polytechnic State University [San Luis Obispo]

* : Corresponding author

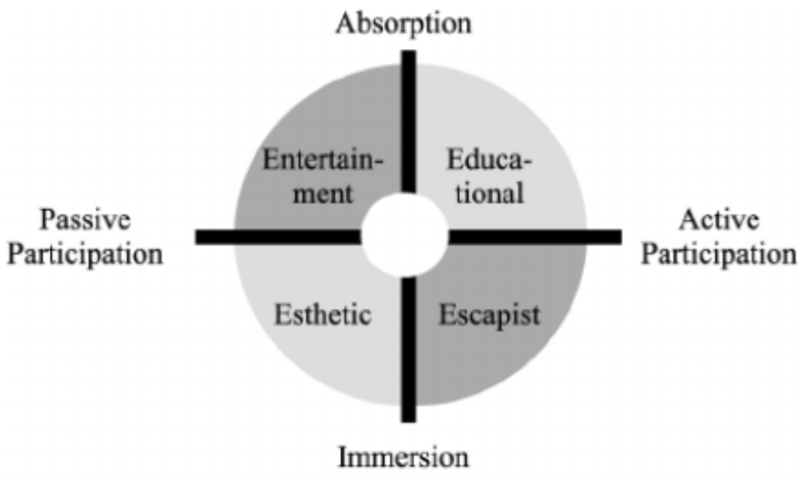
Introduction

Wine tourism has been part of both the wine and tourism industries for many years, and has become a major source of revenue for both. There are a number of definitions of wine tourism, one of the most widely cited being "visitations to vineyards, wineries, wine festivals, and wine shows for which grape wine tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a grape wine region are the prime motivating factors for visitors" (Hall et al., 2000, p. 3). Wine tourists have been shown to desire more from their winery experience than simply the tasting and purchasing of wine, they desire options such as food, accommodation, recreational activities, cultural attractions, and an enjoyable rural landscape (Back, Bufquin, & Park, 2018; Brown, Havitz, & Getz, 2006; Bruwer & Alant, 2009; Cohen & Ben-Nun, 2009; Dawson, Holmes, Jacobs, & Wade, 2011; Getz & Brown, 2006; Getz, Carlsen, Brown, & Havitz, 2008; Park, Bufquin, & Back, 2019). It has been suggested that winery visits include a complex group of experiences (Mitchell & Hall, 2006), and Mitchell (2004) found that only 23% of visitors to New Zealand wineries identified tasting and purchasing wine as their main motivation for visiting. As wine tourism expands beyond just wine, a more fitting definition may be that wine tourism includes a particular destination, site, or event that is related to wine (Getz et al., 2008).

Tourists increasingly seek to engage in more authentic experiences, which has given rise to a growing interest in alternative forms of tourism. As most wineries are located in rural, agricultural areas, wine tourism often falls under the umbrellas of both rural tourism and agritourism, and frequently also falls into the sustainable, green, eco, and slow tourism categories. Wine tourism has been increasing in popularity, paralleling the growth of rural tourism (Quadri-Felitti & Fiore, 2012), which has continued to develop in both North America and Europe (Gartner, 2004). It is also increasingly being linked to gastronomy or culinary tourism, with the United Nations World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) defining wine tourism as "a fundamental part of Gastronomy Tourism" (UNWTO, 2016, p. 1). Wine is considered to be a lifestyle product, a consumer choice rather than a necessity, with its consumption regarded as experiential (Bruwer & Alant, 2009). Wine tourists often enjoy beautiful rural landscapes and, besides the experiential nature of tasting or drinking wine, frequently get to see the vineyards and production process, and converse with the a winemaker. In their experience economy model, Pine and Gilmore (1998) state that experiences are distinct from both goods and services. The entertainment industry, theme parks, and attractions, have always sold experiences, but the concept has been spreading to other industries including themed restaurants and retailing (Pine & Gilmore, 1998). Such experiential components are sought by consumers in order to differentiate otherwise similar choices (Oh, Fiore, & Jeong, 2007).

Pine and Gilmore's (1998) Four Realms of an Experience delineated entertainment, educational, esthetic, and escapist, known as "the 4Es," into which experiences may be sorted, in their model (Figure 1). Experiences may fall into multiple quadrants, with their position on the horizontal axis representing the degree of consumer participation and their position on the vertical axis demonstrating the degree of immersion or absorption. Pine and Gilmore (1999) argued that service businesses should shift their offerings to staged experiences in order to make them more memorable. Quadri-Felitti and Fiore (2012) posited that the 4Es "are equally relevant and useful in conceptualizing the wine tourism experience," (p. 7) and suggest "a more encompassing view of the experiential nature of wine tourism" (p. 7). What has become known as Consumer Experience Tourism (CET) is also increasingly used as a strategic tool to strengthen the bond between consumers and brands (Mitchell & Mitchell, 2000). CET represents a diverse group of experiences, including manufacturing plant tours, company visitor centers, tasting centers, and company themed theme parks and stores. A disproportionate number of the tourist activities included in CET are provided by producers of frequently purchased consumer staples such as food and beverages (Mitchell & Orwig, 2002), especially wineries, breweries and distilleries. As wine tourism continues to develop, activities found on wine farms continues to increase. South Africa is a country at the forefront of wine tourism development, with a number of its wineries becoming destinations with offerings including trails, restaurants, cafés, food stores, wildlife and more (Carter, 2016).

Figure 1: The Four Realms of an Experience



Source: Pine and Gilmore (1999, p. 30)

Another key to the wine tourism experience is authenticity (Pine & Gilmore, 1999). Local food may enhance the authenticity of the visitor experience by connecting the consumer to the region, culture, and heritage (Sims, 2009). Chhabra (2010) showed that authenticity has become an important indicator for heritage tourism, by enriching both the tourist experience and satisfaction. These same arguments may hold true for wine tourism. In recent years there has been drastic consolidation within the wine distribution sector (Thach & Olsen, 2006), which continues today. This has put pressure on small and medium sized wineries, which find it more difficult to obtain distribution and shelf space in increasingly corporate controlled channels. This has added to the impetus of such wineries to form stronger and longer lasting bonds with their consumers. Offering a high quality, authentic, and memorable tourist experience may be a key tool to achieving this.

Although many wineries offer visitor experiences beyond traditional wine tasting and sales, few have achieved the success shown by the South African wine company studied in this case. This study examines how one privately owned company has used micro-clustering and a unique business model to create a highly successful tourist destination. We begin by defining "clustering," then provide a case study with a unique business model, and conclude by showing how micro-clustering can be used to create a successful tourist destination.

1. Clustering

Cluster theory has been used to demonstrate the benefits of "geographic concentrations of interconnected companies and institutions in a particular field" (Porter, 1998, p. 77). Research on clusters has been largely confined to industrial clusters and the application of conceptual methodologies (Estevao & Ferreira, 2012). Cluster theory, however, is perfectly suited to the evaluation of performance of tourism clusters, and has more recently been used for research in this field. Much tourism takes place in what we refer to as "tourist destinations," which are in fact tourism clusters, providing a variety of both competing and complementary tourist facilities as well as companies that supply and service these tourism providers. The wine industry is another area well suited to cluster analysis, with wineries and their related industries frequently grouped together as a result of the requirements of both geological and climatic conditions. Less attention has been paid to the role of clusters in developing a region.

"Micro-clustering" is a term that has been used in relation to the creation of economic and social opportunities in smaller communities. This may be accomplished by developing clusters of complementary businesses that may "collectively deliver a bundle of attributes to make up a specialized regional product"

(Michael, 2003, p. 133). This concept of complementary businesses is a departure from Porter's (1998) notion of interconnected businesses in a particular field. The formation of micro-clusters may be particularly relevant to tourism in rural areas, where the concepts of networks and networking are used to explain cooperation between small tourism firms, thereby enhancing economic growth (Ewen, 2007).

2. Case Study – The Fairview Trust micro-cluster, South Africa

The Fairview Trust (FT) in Paarl, South Africa is a privately held farming business, with wine and cheese as its principal products. Two of its contiguous wine farms, Fairview and De Leeuwenjagt, have become home to a highly successful collection of authentic, experiential, and holistically synergistic businesses, and show how a micro-cluster of complementary enterprises located in a single location and using an unusual business model can evolve into a major tourist destination.

History

The Fairview farm, located on the slopes of Paarl Mountain about 50 km from Cape Town was founded in 1693 and comprises around 230 ha. Neighboring De Leeuwenjagt, comprising around 360 ha and established a year earlier, was acquired by FT in 2011 as the home for its Spice Route wine brand. By the 1960s, Fairview had become a mixed-use farm, raising livestock, growing grapes, and producing milk, eggs, and wine. In 1980, Fairview started its cheese business, having imported a herd of Swiss Saanen goats. Today Fairview concentrates its core business on wine and cheese production. What sets FT apart from other wineries, however, is the size of its tourism business, attracting around 450,000 visitors in 2016. Putting this into perspective, California's Napa Valley attracted 3.5 million visitors in 2016 (Visit Napa Valley, 2019). This single South African wine farm, therefore, received more than 12.5% of the total number of visitors that the entire Napa Valley received in 2016.

Evolution

According to the owners, the growth in the tourism business at Fairview evolved to keep up with visitor numbers. In the 1970s tourists who happened to pass the farm entrance were enticed to visit by a hand painted sign, with the wines poured at a table in a barn. With the addition of a range of exotic cheeses and the construction of an iconic "Goat Tower" in the 1980s, visitor numbers began to grow and a wine and cheese tasting room was added and regularly expanded to accommodate growing visitor numbers. In 2004, an old barrel room was transformed into a restaurant and a bread bakery added.

Fairview continued to increase its tourist offering with the opening of a delicatessen showcasing its own products and a range of locally made artisanal food products in 2007. This was followed by the opening of a Master Tasting Room, providing seated, tutored tastings for wine aficionados who desired more than the standard counter tasting, thereby segmenting wine tasting visitors into two groups, with differentiated offerings. Fairview's most recent addition to its visitor experiences is the Junior Cheese Masters, where children learn to milk goats and make their own cheese. The children also roll out their own pita bread dough and have it baked to enjoy with their cheese.

Expansion

In 2011, neighboring farm De Leeuwenjagt , home to a winery, tasting room, restaurant, bed and breakfast, and a glass blowing studio, was purchased by FT. Renovations to existing farm buildings and new construction have resulted in the Spice Route Destination, currently comprising the following ventures (March 2019):

> Wholly owned by FT: Wine tasting room, offering indoor and outdoor seated wine tastings, also available paired with chocolate or charcuterie; Brewery restaurant, adjoining the onsite brewery and serving craft beers, cured meats and sausages, and gourmet burgers and fries; Gift shop, selling a variety of home, gift, and jewelry items, mainly from local artists.

> Partnerships with FT: A brewery where visitors can watch the beer production and bottling processes, and taste and purchase the range of craft beers.

> Tenants of FT: A fine dining restaurant, with dishes created to pair with Spice Route wines; Chocolate factory located in the farm's historic manor house where visitors can watch the cacao beans being roasted, view chocolates being made, and participate in chocolate tastings and workshops; Café that roasts its own

coffee beans and offers gourmet coffees, coffee beans, and home baked cakes and ice cream; Micro-distillery producing grappa and gin using indigenous botanicals, where visitors may view the production process and taste the spirits; Pizzeria adjoining the distillery, offering brick oven pizzas as well as pasta and tapas, paired with the farm's wine and beer on tap; Deli, located in the old farm schoolhouse and producing jams, preserves, chutneys, glazes, and herb and spice blends, with visitors able to view production; Charcuterie, producing hand salted, hung and cured pasture-reared meats that may be tasted; Glass studio, where visitors can watch unique pieces being created; Adventure trails, offering walking, running and mountain biking along the farm's mountain trails; Pilates Studio, with full Pilates training facilities.

The Destination

This micro-cluster of complementary businesses has created a selfcontained destination. Although situated in the heart of the Cape Winelands and along an established wine route, many visitors to this destination spend the entire day visiting, tasting, dining and purchasing at the different FT venues. It is believed that a large part of their success is due to the authenticity and experiential nature of all these ventures. Most of the products sold, are grown and/or made on these farms or other farms owned by FT, while items such as logo apparel, wine paraphernalia and souvenirs, so often found in winery tasting rooms, are nowhere to be seen. Not only are most of the products produced on the farms but, other than the restaurants and the cheesery, visitors may view the production process. In the restaurants, many of the ingredients used are grown or produced on the properties. All of this adds to a profound sense of authenticity so that even with so large a throughput of visitors, this micro-cluster would be unlikely to be considered a "tourist trap."

All of the venues are also highly experiential, with guests able not only to view production, but also able to wander through vineyards, see where products are produced or grown, and enjoy the magnificent rural scenery. Additionally, at many of the venues visitors are able to chat with and learn from passionate and experienced artisans, adding an educational dimension to the experience. Naturally, all products are also for sale to visitors.

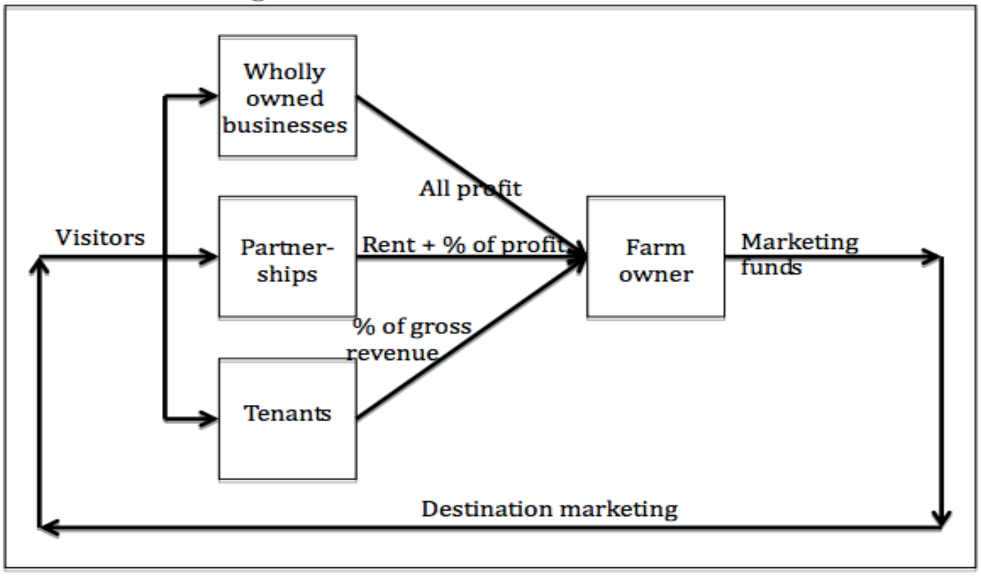
3. Business Model

One of the keys to the success of any business, but particularly these types of smaller, artisanal businesses, is that they require skilled, talented, passionate, and dedicated owners and/or managers and staff. Passionate owners can enhance their firm's entrepreneurial culture as well as its financial performance (Haar, Taylor, & Wilson, 2009). Conversely, the lack of these qualities may lead to failure, especially when large corporations attempt to set up small-scale businesses masquerading as artisanal.

FT recognizes that it cannot be expert at everything, and this is reflected in its business model, as depicted in Figure 2. FT therefore owns its core businesses outright, albeit with a percentage of employee ownership in many of them. These include its vineyards, wineries, olive groves, goat farm, and cheesery, as well as the wine tasting rooms, two of the restaurants, and the gift shop. In other cases, FT partners with experts in the particular field, e.g., the brewery is owned in partnership with a Swedish beer company. The creation of such partnerships allows for a high level of expertise, while FT remains the landlord in addition to being a partner in the business. In other cases FT is simply the landlord, supplying its tenants, who are experts in their fields, with premises built or renovated and outfitted to their specifications, in return for a percentage of gross revenue. This is the case with a number of the farms' attractions, as previously detailed. In terms of tourism related revenues to FT in 2017, wholly owned business contributed 51%, tenants 41%, and partnerships 8%, compared with 66%, 30% and 4% respectively in 2014, reflecting the addition of two tenant businesses and an increase in beer production during this interval.

FT uses a portion of revenues collected to market the entire destination, equivalent to approximately 2% of gross revenue for tourism specific marketing (as opposed to product marketing) in 2017 . Much of the marketing is through public relations, destination-wide events, and social media. This, in turn, drives visitor traffic to the destination as a whole, thereby benefitting all business units. Although actual destination revenue figures were not disclosed, FT stated that tourism related revenue had increased each year from 2014 to 2017, and continues to grow.

Figure 2: The Fairview Trust Business Model



Conclusions

This study shows how a single South African organization has created a new business model, initially through natural evolution and then by design, by forming a micro-cluster of highly successful complementary businesses on its two adjacent wine farms. Further, it demonstrates how the micro-clustering of complementary, holistically synergistic businesses, within a single, rural location can be used to create a highly successful, major tourist destination. Using a business model where different forms of ownership allow for high levels of expertise creates synergistic relationships whereby the individual businesses benefit from being part of the cluster and from the marketing of the destination as a whole. Conversely, the farms' owners benefit from the quality and diversity that these businesses add, thereby drawing additional visitors, benefiting their wholly owned ventures and creating additional revenues. The growth in tourism revenues is accompanied by an increase in the percentage of products sold direct to consumers. Besides direct sales being more profitable, this has also lessened FT's dependence on the increasingly competitive and expensive distribution channels.

This study contributes to the academic literature, as no academic studies have been found using either cluster theory or the concept of micro-clusters to explore the creation of a destination by a single business entity or a single business location. This model also has interesting managerial implications for applied tourism development, and may be relevant not only to other wineries, but also to other businesses in rural areas where the creation of a microclustered destination may be beneficial not only to the businesses concerned, but to the economic development and prosperity of the community as whole. Future research should investigate other types of rural micro-clusters in different locations. A more in-depth investigation of the finances and financing of similar business models would be of interest, although obtaining such confidential information from privately held businesses remains a challenge.

References

Back, R. M., Bufquin, D., & Park, J.-Y. (2018). Why do they come back? The effects of winery tourists' motivation and satisfaction on the number of visits and revisit intentions. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, doi: 10.1080/15256480.2018.1511499.

Brown, G. P., Havitz, M. E., & Getz, D. (2006). Relationship between wine involvement and wine-related travel. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 21(1), 31

Bruwer, J., & Alant, K. (2009). The hedonic nature of wine tourism consumption: An experiential view. *International Journal of Wine Business Research*, 21(3), 235-257.

Carter, F. (2016). How to make money from wine tourism. *Meininger's Wine Business International*, 2016(6).

Chhabra, D. (2010). Back to the past: A sub-segment of generation Y's perceptions of authenticity. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(6), 793-809.

Cohen, E., & Ben-Nun, L. (2009). The important dimensions of wine tourism experience from potential visitors' perception. *Tourism & Hospitality Research*, 9(1), 20-31.

Dawson, H., Holmes, M., Jacobs, H., & Wade, R. I. (2011). Wine tourism: Winery visitation in the wine appellations of Ontario. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 17(3), 237-246.

Estevao, C., & Ferreira, J. J. M. (2012). How to identify regional specialization measurement of clusters in tourism industry? *Soft Computing in Management and Business Economics Studies in Fuzziness and Soft Computing,* 287, 347-360.

Ewen, M. (Ed.) (2007). *Micro-clusters and networks: The growth of tourism*. Oxford: Elsevier.

Gartner, W. C. (2004). Rural tourism development in the USA. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 6(3), 151-164.

Getz, D., Carlsen, J., Brown, G. P., & and Havitz, M. (. (2008). Wine tourism and consumers. In A. Woodside, & D. Martin (Eds.), *Tourism management: Analysis, behavior and strategy* (pp. 245-268). Berkshire: CABI.

Getz, D., & Brown, G. (2006). Critical success factors for wine tourism regions: A demand analysis. *Tourism Management*, 27(1), 146-158.

Haar, J., Taylor, A., & Wilson, K. (2009). Owner passion, entrepreneurial culture, and financial performance: A study of New Zealand entrepreneurs. *New Zealand Journal of Applied Business Research* (NZJABR), 7(2), 19-30.

Hall, C. M., Johnson, G., Cambourne, B., Macionis, M., Mitchell, R., & Sharples, L. (2000). Wine tourism: An introduction. In C. M. Hall & L. Sharples (Eds.), *Wine tourism around the world: Development, management and markets* (pp. 1-24). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.

Michael, E. J. (2003). Tourism micro-clusters. *Tourism Economics*, 9(2), 133-145.

Mitchell, R. (2004). *Scenery and chardonnay: An exploration of the new zealand winery visitor experience*. Dunedin, New Zealand: University of Otago.

Mitchell, M. A., & Orwig, R. A. (2002). Consumer experience tourism and brand bonding. *Journal of Product & Brand Management*, 11(1), 30.

Mitchell, M., & Mitchell, S. (2000). Showing off what you do (and how you do it). *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing*, 7(4), 61.

Mitchell, R., & Hall, C. M. (2006). Wine tourism research: The state of play. *Tourism Review International*, 9(4), 307-332.

Oh, H., Fiore, A. M., & Jeoung, M. (2007). Measuring experience economy concepts: Tourism applications. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(2), 119-132.

Park, J.-Y., Bufquin, D., & Back, R. M. (2019). When do they become satiated? An examination of the relationships among winery tourists' satisfaction, repeat visits and revisit intentions. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 11, 231-239.

Pine, II., B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1998). Welcome to the experience economy. *Harvard Business*

Review, 76(4), 97-105.

Pine, II., B. J., & Gilmore, J. H. (1999). *The experience economy: work is theatre and every business a stage*. Boston: Harvard Business School Press.

Porter, M. E. (1998). Clusters and the new economics of competition. *Harvard Business Review,* 76(6), 77-90.

Quadri-Felitti, D., & Fiore, A. M. (2012). Experience economy constructs as a framework for understanding wine tourism. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 18(1), 3-15.

Sims, R. (2006). Food, place and authenticity: Local food and the sustainable tourism experience. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 17(3), 321-336.

Thach, E. C., & Olsen, J. (2006). Building strategic partnerships in wine marketing: Implications for wine distribution. *Journal of Food Products Marketing*, 12(3), 71-86.

UNWTO (2016). Georgia Declaration on Wine Tourism. Retrieved 11/20/2016, from http://cf.cdn.unwto.org/sites/all/files/pdf/georgia_declaration.pdf.

Visit Napa Valley, 2019. Research. Retrieved 3/14/2019, from https://www.visitnapavalley.com/about-us/research/

Wine Cycling Tourism

Pr. Dr. Jana Heimel *
Heilbronn University of Applied Sciences
jana.heimel@hs-heilbronn.de

Dr. Lucas Nesselhauf
Heilbronn University of Applied Sciences
lucas.nesselhauf@hs-heilbronn.de

* : Corresponding author

Introduction

Just like the bicycle undergoes a revival as a means of transportation, cycling experiences a clear trend in tourism. Cycling tourism begins to establish as a healthy and sustainable way of tourism. In consequence and as a result of the increasing demand for adventure and events, new forms of cycling can be observed in practice. A rather new way of cycling tourism represents wine cycling tourism. Regional tourism associations establish cycling tours in combination with wine tastings. The combination of indulgence, active recreation and nature seems to attract people of all ages. Wine tourism serves as a vehicle to promote not only vineyards but also culinary highlights as well as hospitality management of a region. Expected effects are supposed to be manifold, thus leading to more investments in this new development. In addition, many small and medium sized vineyards need to find ways to attract customers and lure them on the premises. Direct sales decline in Germany and wine tourism can be one way to encounter this problem. However, it is not trivial what effects result from integrating wine and cycling tourism. Assuming positive direct and cross-selling effects, the question is by what factors they are influenced. Furthermore, the objective of this study is to identify differences in the attitudes and the behaviour of wine cycling tourists in comparison to 'regular' cycling tourists.

1. Literature review

Due to the relevance of tourism for many vineyards and wine regions, wine tourism is popular among academics as well. According to Dreyer (2012), wine tourism is tourism with wine as the main purpose. However, wine tourism in the broader sense also includes activities with wine as a secondary purpose. So far, wine tourism research is predominantly done in the US and Canada, Australia and New Zealand (Lockshin & Corsi, 2012). However, the infrastructure and the size of vineyards vary significantly among different regions and countries. Especially in Germany, vineyards tend to be smaller than e.g. in Australia, hence the requirements and actions for these smaller vineyards are different. Therefore, it is necessary to gain more insights in the specification of wine tourism and the importance in Germany. The recent study by Scherhag & Binninger (2017) shows how a destination card can foster tourism activities in wine regions.

The authors state that expanding cooperation to other partners within the destination can enhance the attractiveness of a touristic region. With this in mind, the study at hand combines the two kinds of tourism to explore synergies and success factors. The second kind of tourism interesting for this study is bicycle tourism. Similarly to wine tourism, bicycle tourism is a subgroup of general tourism. Bicycle tourism is defined as day trips or longer journeys with riding a bike as the main purpose (Dreyer, Rainer, & Ernst, 2012). However, journeys with riding a bike as secondary purpose are also defined as bicycle tourism in the broader sense (Dreyer et al., 2012). Bicycling is the Germans' most favourite leisure activity (Dreyer et al., 2012) and bicycle tourism has been growing over the last years to 5.2 million trips of three or more nights and 150 million day trips (Bangel, 2017).

Furthermore, since electric bikes become more popular, bicycle tourism is accessible for less trained or elderly people. Currently, around 13 % of bicycle tourists use electric bikes (Bangel, 2017). The latest analysis of bicycle tourism in Germany published by the ADFC shows that bicycle tourists predominantly opt for bike trips for several days with changing accommodations (74 %) (Bangel, 2017). Furthermore, 49 % of the bicycle tourists want to combine bicycle tours with culinary experiences (Bangel, 2017). In terms of location and scenery, the report states that bike trails along rivers are highly appreciated by tourists. According to the ADFC, the lack of public transport to and from bike trails and the catering industries' inability to meet the bike tourists' needs are the main weaknesses of German bike trails (Bangel, 2017). Especially the inability to meet the bike tourists' gastronomic needs is a weakness that needs further analysis. In part, this study wants to answer to this issue with respect to the wine industry.

2. Method and dataset

In order to analyse the behaviour, the attitudes and the hypothesized differences of wine cycling tourists and cycling tourists, we conducted an online survey. The survey was online over a period of nine months from August 2017 to May 2018. The participants were incentivized by wine and bicycle related gifts using a lottery. The online survey was distributed via several wine and bicycle related newsletters and social media groups. Therefore, the sample is not representative and is supposed to give some insights in the behaviour of wine cycling tourists.

At the end, 615 people took part in the survey. The final adjusted sample consists of 392 participants. The adjustments were mainly the exclusion of incomplete questionnaires to ensure a valid data analysis. The data analysis was carried out with IBM SPSS 24. The questionnaire consists of four sections. The first section covers the general aspects of cycling such as the kind of bike, the frequency of cycling, and the occasion. The second part is dedicated to the wine consumption and some specifics such as frequency and purchase locations. The next section covers cycling tourism and wine cycling tourism depending on the participants' answers. Last, the participants had to answer the typical socio-demographic questions such as age, gender, and income.

3. Results

The participants are categorized by their cycling behaviour. Participants that they do not ride a bike at all are neglected in the further analyses. 91 participants state that they ride a bike but do not travel with their bikes; these are called cyclists. The remaining 301 participants state that they have already travelled with their bikes with at least on overnight stay; these participants can be called cycling tourists. Thereof 129 of the participants that already travelled with their bikes also visited a vineyard during their trips. They can be characterized as wine cycling tourists. However, the participants were also asked whether they would like to visit a vineyard during a cycling tour. 125 of the 172 cycling tourists state that they are interested in such a vineyard visit during a cycling tour. In other words, 254 of 301 cycling tourists are actual or at least potential wine cycling tourists.

Figure 1: Sample overview

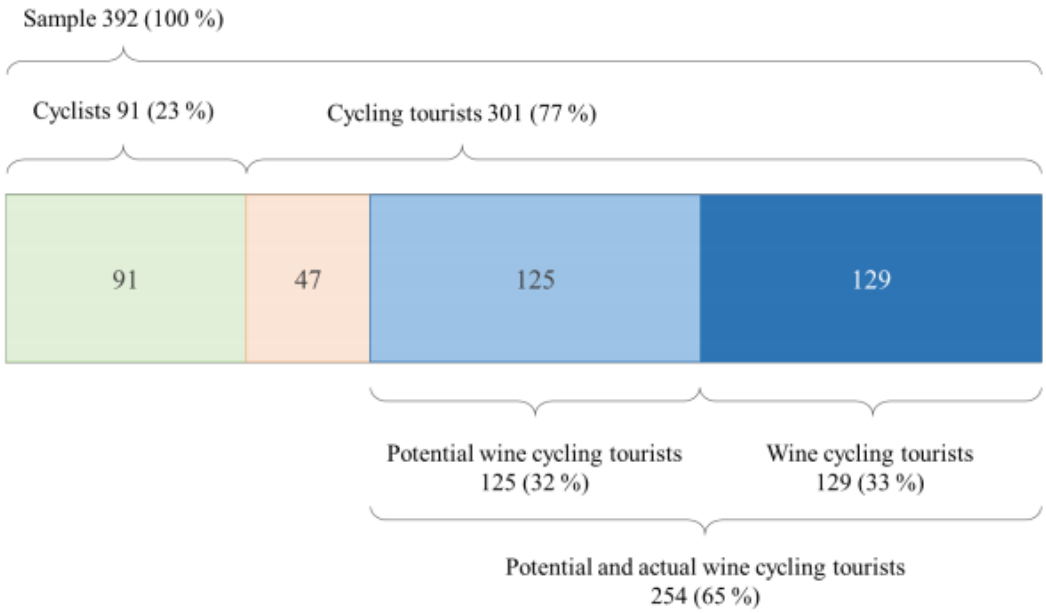
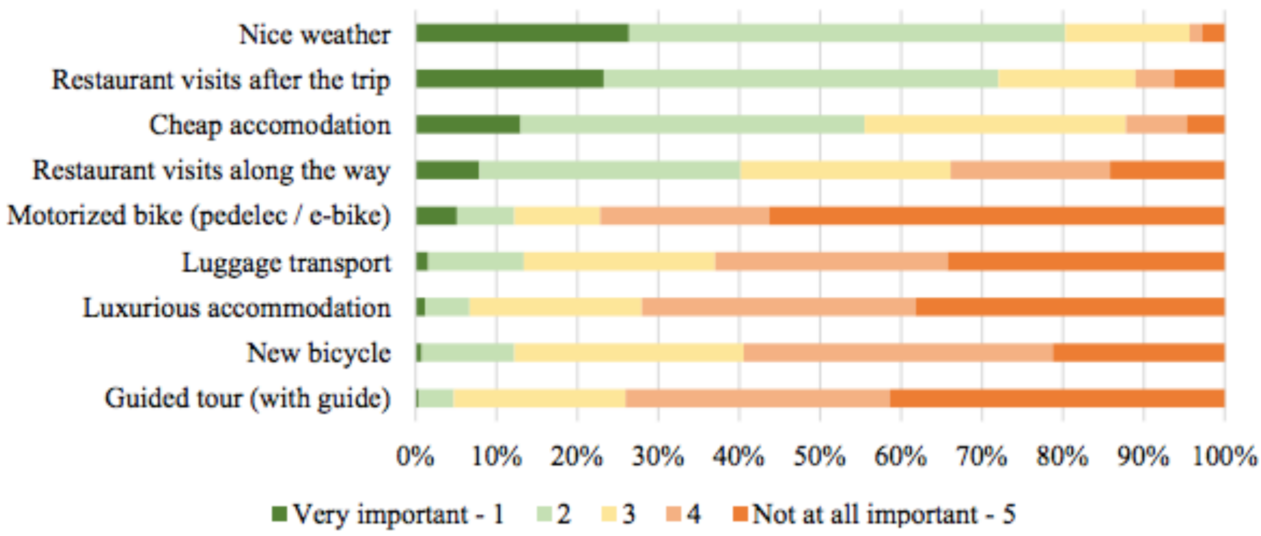


Figure 1 shows the sample in an overview. 19 of the 47 participants that are not interested in visiting a vineyard state that they do not drink wine. Hence, the lack of interest in visiting a vineyard is very plausible in these cases. Only 11 of the 254 potential and actual wine cycling tourists state that they do not consume wine. Since the vast majority of the cycling tourists is also a potential or an actual wine cycling tourist, the segmentation of the groups seems not sensible at this point. Therefore, the group of potential and actual wine cycling tourists (PAWCTs) will be looked at in more detail.

The average age of the PAWCTs is 46 years with a standard deviation of 14. The median income of the PAWCTs is between 4'000 and 4'500 Euro. 37 % (94 participants) of the PAWCTs are female. Furthermore, 41 % of the PAWCTs are employees and 22 % are pensioners. The remaining participants are e.g. officials (9 %) or students (4 %). The questionnaire also contains questions about the preferred months for travelling by bike. The most preferred months among the PAWCTs are September (selected by 84 %), June and May (each selected by 69 %), August (57 %), July (56 %), and October (44 %). In addition, the survey looks at motivations for travelling with bikes and also the travelled distance and the duration of the trips. The median travelled distance of the PAWCTs' last cycling trip is 350 km. The trip lasted for five days (median). The motivation to travel with bikes is for 80 % 'discover the region' and 'being in the nature'. Further reasons are 'being active with others' (50 %), 'discover something new' (41 %), 'visiting sights' (39 %), and 'experience adventures' (39 %). For 28 % of the PAWCTs, 'tasting new wines' is also a motivation to go on a cycling trip. Those PAWCTs that already visited a vineyard state that they mostly visit vineyards spontaneously.

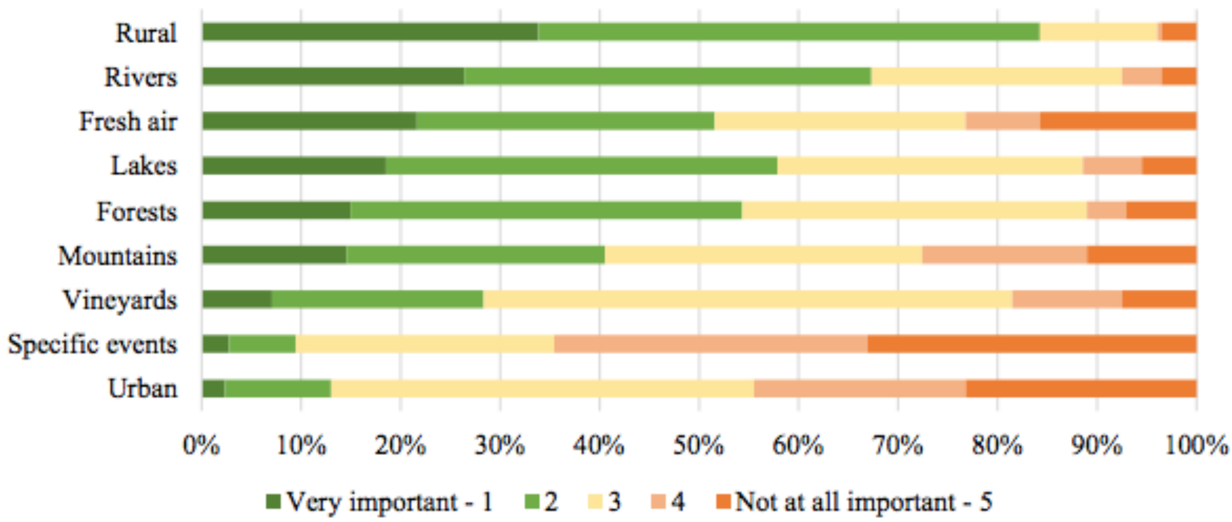
Furthermore, the participants were asked about the importance of different aspects of a cycling trip and about the locations that they prefer for their trips. The results are shown in Figure 2 and Figure 3 respectively.

Figure 2: Importance for cycling trips



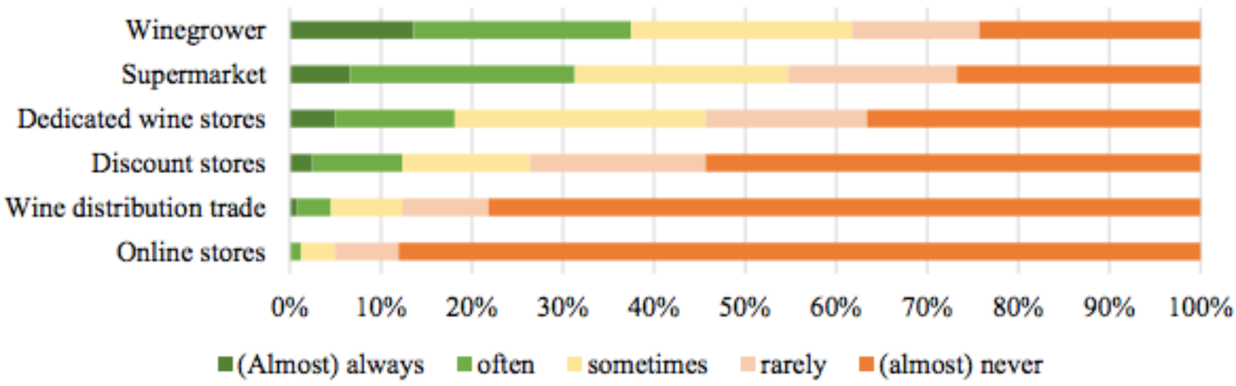
These results show clearly that PAWCTs prefer nice weather and look for a restaurant after the daily stage of the trips. They do not look for guided tours and luxurious accommodations. Regarding the locations, PAWCTs want to avoid urban areas and rather explore trails through rural areas and along rivers. For some PAWCTs, the fresh air is more important than a particular location.

Figure 3: Importance of locations for a cycling trip



The wine consumption of the participants was another question for the participants. In this regard, the 57 % of the PAWCTs consume wine at least once a week, 21 % consume wine at least several times per month, 9 % once a month and 8 % consume wine fewer than that. The remaining 11 PAWCTs do not drink wine. In addition to the wine consumption, the type of outlet and the frequency of usage is also part of the questionnaire. Figure 4 displays the frequency of use by wine outlet type. It becomes obvious that many of the PAWCTs buy wine on premise, followed by supermarkets and dedicated wine stores. This result is particularly surprising because the cellar door sales and the sales in dedicated wine stores are declining for the last years (GfK, 2018).

Figure 4: Wine outlets and frequency of use



Conclusion and implications

The purpose of this study was to identify the differences between wine cycling tourists and 'regular' cycling tourists. However, the results clearly show that in this sample the differences are not present. Moreover, almost all 'regular' cycling tourist are either potential wine cycling tourist or already actual wine cycling tourists. Therefore, this study merely describes the segment of potential and actual wine cycling tourists.

However, this study and the results can be used to understand these PAWCTs and their expectations. Since many cycling tourists would like to try wine cycling tours, this group should be targeted with information about vineyards and wine tours. Because vineyards visits are mostly spontaneous, the vineyards should be visible along cycling trails and should create awareness for their offers and products.

Limitations

The main limitation of this study is the relatively small sample size and the sampling method. Due to the convenience sampling for this survey, the survey mostly attracts people who are prone to cycling tours and apparently also to wine cycling tours. Therefore, this study does not claim to be representative. However, the insights gained with this study can be used to improve the direct sales for vineyards when they open up to cycling tourists. To identify actual differences between wine cycling tourists and 'regular' cycling tourists, further studies should be conducted with more cyclists that do not want to explore wine cycling trails.

References

Bangel, G. (2017). ADFC-Travelbike-Radreiseanalyse 2017. Allgemeiner Deutscher FahrradClub e.V. Retrieved from www.adfc.de/radreiseanalyse

Dreyer, A. (2012). Bedeutung von Weintourismus im ländlichen Raum. In Tourismus im ländlichen Raum (pp. 239–255). Wiesbaden: Gabler Verlag. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-8349-3820-6_15

Dreyer, A., Rainer, M., & Ernst, M. (2012). Radtourismus, Entwicklungen, Potentiale, Perspektiven. Berlin, Boston: De Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1524/9783486711073

GfK. (2018). Verbraucher-Analysen Wein Jahr 2017 basierend auf GfK Consumer Panels. Nürnberg: GfK SE.

Lockshin, L., & Corsi, A. M. (2012). Consumer behaviour for wine 2.0: A review since 2003 and future directions. *Wine Economics and Policy*, 1(1), 2–23. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wep.2012.11.003

Scherhag, K., & Binninger, I. (2017). Erwartungen weinaffiner Leistungsträger an eine Weinerlebniskarte – untersucht am Great-Wine-Capitals-Mitglied Mainz/Rheinhessen/Destination Cards with Wine Tourism Offers: Parameters for and Expectations of Oenophile Service Providers – The Case of GWC M. In D. Wagner, M. Mair, A. F. Stöckl, & A. Dreyer (Eds.), Kulinarischer Tourismus und Weintourismus (pp. 17–27). Wiesbaden: Springer Gabler. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-658-13732-8_2