TOURIST BEHAVIOR IN A CROSS-BORDER AREA: THE CASE OF NICOSIA, CYPRUS

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Universitat de Girona

DOCTORAL THESIS

Tourist Behavior in a Cross-border area:

The case of Nicosia, Cyprus

Judit Díaz Sauceda

2016

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El Dr. Lluís Prats Planagumà, de la Universitat de Girona,

DECLARO:

Que el treball titulat *Tourist Behavior in a Cross-border area: The case of Nicosia, Cyprus*, que presenta Judit Díaz Sauceda per a l'obtenció del títol de doctor/a, ha estat realitzat sota la meva direcció i que compleix els requisits per poder optar a Menció Internacional.

I, perquè així consti i tingui els efectes oportuns, signo aquest document.

Signatura

Girona, 17 de Febrer de 2016

To Alba and Max.

Research Outcomes Derived from this Thesis

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Díaz-Sauceda, J., Palau-Saumell, R., Forgas-Coll, S., & Sánchez-García, J. (2015). Cross-border tourists' behavioral intentions: the Green Line of Nicosia, Cyprus. *Tourism Geographies, 17*(5), 758-779.

ABBREVIATION LIST

ANOVA - Analysis of Variance

ASEAN - Association of Southeast Asian Nations

AVE - Average Variance Extracted

BTA - Binational Tourism Alliance

CARICOM –Caribbean Community

DMO – Destination Marketing Organization

DMZ - Demilitarized Zone

ECOWAS –Economic Community of West African States

EQS 6.1 - Structural Equation Modeling Software 6.1

EU - European Union

NAFTA – North American Fair Trade Association

NGOs - Non Governmental Organizations

NON EU - Non European Union

SEM - Structural Equation Models

TRNC - Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus

UK - United Kingdom

UN - United Nations

UNFICYP - United Nations Peace Keeping Force in Cyprus

US - United States

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Abstract

Cross-border areas have become a tourist attraction for many people. Many of the world's most popular tourist attractions are located near borders, and could be the main motivation or the principal attraction of the trip (Timothy 2001), and an economic opportunity for the residents in both sides of the border (Altinay & Bowen, 2006; Webster, Musyck, Orphanides, & Jacobson 2009).

The political boundaries have aroused the interest of tourists as tourism attractions, and more people are interested in visiting fences, walls, and guard towers while they are travelling, like the case of the North-South Korean DMZ or the Berlin Wall to name some examples (Timothy, 2006). However, studies of cross-border tourism are more focused on aspects such as cooperation (Ioannides, Nielsen, & Billing, 2006; Prokkola, 2010), governance (Perkmann, 2003), perception of the border (Timothy & Tosun 2003), description of cross-border attractions (Gelbman, 2008), and shopping (DiMateo & DiMateo, 1996).

Nicosia's borderline, also known as the Green Line or No Man's Land, may be considered a political border because the United Nations are still present in the island to control the ceasefire since the division in August 1974, when the Turkish invasion took place, dividing the island into the Republic of Cyprus and the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC) (Scott, 2012), which is only recognized by Turkey. This borderline symbolically summarizes the hostilities between the two parties into which the island was divided during the conflict in 1974 (Timothy, Prideaux, & Kim 2004). In this sense, the cross-border area near Ledra Street has become a tourist attraction since its opening in 2003. Data from 2012 gives us a total of 1,107,652 international tourists who crossed over from and to North Cyprus during the whole year (Tourism Planning Department of TRNC, 2014).

Despite the visitor success, neither of the two Official Tourism Agencies in Cyprus promote the cross-border area of the city. Given the increasing popularity of this tourism activity, and thinking of a possible future collaboration between the two political entities, understanding is needed of how antecedents of behavioral intentions, such sensation seeking, perceived crowding, and perceived value have an influence on satisfaction and behavioral intentions of tourists visiting this cross-border area.

However, few studies develop behavioral intentions models in this context. An exception is the one conducted by Lee, Yoon, and Lee (2007) into the influence of value on the satisfaction of Japanese tourists visiting the DMZ between North and South Korea, and that by Lee, Lawrence, Bendle, and Kim (2011) where the influence of value on satisfaction among South Korean tourists visiting the Mt Kumgang resort in North Korea is also analyzed.

According to Timothy (2001) borders create true barriers to human movement and other interactions, often creating human crowding and queues at check-points and impeding crossing through the check-points. Nevertheless, the studies on crowding are, basically, in shopping and services (Machleit, Eroglou, & Mantel, 2000; Noone & Mattila, 2009). Only a few studies have examined crowding in the tourism context (Palau-Saumell, Forgas-Coll,Sanchez-Garcia, & Prats-Planaguma, 2014), and no evidence has been found regarding the effects of

crowding on satisfaction and on behavioral intentions of those who are visiting the cross-border areas.

Therefore, and given the increasing importance of these tourism sites, this study investigates the simultaneous relationships between behavioral intentions, satisfaction, value, crowding, and sensation seeking among cross-border tourists towards the cross-border area in Nicosia (Cyprus) by developing and testing a structural model. The moderating effects of expectations on the relationships between the constructs are also investigated.

This study contributes to the current understanding of the influence of sensation seeking, perceived crowding, and value, and the consequent influence on satisfaction and behavioral intentions. In cross-border areas, no other studies have modeled simultaneously sensation seeking, perceived crowding, value, satisfaction, and behavioral intentions. These relationships between constructs have been studied by the literature, but in a partial or fragmentary way. Moreover, the moderator effect of expectation has allowed us to explain better the behavioral intentions model.

Besides the theoretical implications, the practical ones cannot be ignored. The results have shown that tourists are visiting the cross-border area despite of the lack of promotion by the official tourism entities, both North and South, with a higher value perception influencing the satisfaction with the visit and also in the word-of-mouth, recommendations and intentions to revisit the area.

The Green Line will continue to be there as long as there is no political agreement between North and South to change the current political status quo. In the meantime, international tourists should be encouraged to visit the area, by promoting the cross-border area, because if the governments embrace cooperation along their borders, tourism flows can be facilitated (Sofield, 2006). Using signs and interpretative instruments making known the historical facts, increasing the value of the area, will encourage a greater flow of visitors, and will also in turn affect the economy of the population on both sides, especially those who are running or managing small and medium size enterprises on either side of the border.

As with any study, the findings should be considered in light of their limitations. One limitation is the temporality in the collection of the data. Data collection throughout the whole year would be interesting for further research to check whether the results are maintained.

Another limitation is the context of the study, which can limit the generalization of the results.

These results may vary if the survey is conducted in another cross-border area. It would be interesting to confirm the model by sampling from cross-border tourists at other borders.

Keywords: sensation seeking, crowding, value, behavioral intentions, cross-border tourism, Cyprus

Resum

Les zones frontereres s'han convertit en una atracció turística per a moltes persones d'arreu. Moltes de les atraccions turístiques més populars del món estan situades prop de les fronteres, i aquestes poden esdevenir la motivació principal o el principal atractiu del viatge (Timothy, 2001). A més d'una oportunitat econòmica per als residents a banda i banda de la frontera (Altinay & Bowen, 2006; Webster, Musyck, Orphanides, & Jacobson 2009).

Les fronteres polítiques han despertat l'interès dels turistes com atraccions turístiques, i més persones estan interessades en visitar les tanques, parets i torres de vigilància mentre estan viatjant, com és el cas de la ZDM entre Corea del Nord i del Sud o el Mur de Berlín per anomenar alguns exemples (Timothy, 2006). No obstant això, els estudis de turisme transfronterer se centren més en aspectes com la cooperació (Ioannides, Nielsen, & Billing, 2006; Prokkola, 2010), governança (Perkmann, 2003), la percepció de la frontera (Timothy i Tosun 2003), en descriure les atraccions transfrontereres (Gelbman, 2008), i les compres (Di Matteo i Di Matteo, 1996).

La frontera de Nicòsia, també coneguda com la Línia Verda o la terra de ningú, es pot considerar una frontera política perquè les Nacions Unides estan presents a l'illa per controlar l'alto el foc des de l'agost de 1974. En aquesta data es va produir la invasió turca, dividint l' illa entre la República de Xipre i la República Turca del Nord de Xipre (RTNC) (Scott, 2012), només reconeguda per Turquia. Aquesta frontera resumeix simbòlicament les hostilitats entre les dues parts en què es va dividir l'illa durant el conflicte de 1974 (Timothy, Prideaux, & Kim 2004). En aquest sentit, l'àrea de la frontera prop del carrer Ledra s'ha convertit en una atracció turística des que es va obrir el 2003. Les dades de 2012 recullen un total de 1.107.652 turistes internacionals que van creuar des de i cap al nord de Xipre durant tot l'any (Departament de Planificació del Turisme de la RTNC, 2014).

Malgrat l'èxit de visitants, cap dels dos organismes oficials de turisme a Xipre promou la zona transfronterera de la ciutat. Donada la creixent popularitat d'aquesta activitat turística, i pensant en una possible futura col·laboració entre les dues entitats polítiques, és necessària la comprensió de com els antecedents de les intencions de comportament, com la recerca de sensacions, l'amuntegament percebut, i el valor percebut tenen una influència en la satisfacció i en les intencions de comportament dels turistes que visiten aquesta zona transfronterera.

No obstant això, pocs estudis desenvolupen models de les intencions de comportament en aquest context. Una excepció és el realitzat per Lee, Yoon, i Lee (2007) sobre la influència del valor en la satisfacció dels turistes japonesos que visiten la zona desmilitaritzada entre Corea del Nord i del Sud, i un altre de Lee, Lawrence, Bendle, i Kim (2011) on també s'analitza la influència del valor en la satisfacció dels turistes sud-coreans que visiten el resort M.Kumgang a Corea del Nord.

Segons Timothy (2001) les fronteres creen veritables barreres al moviment de persones i altres interaccions, sovint creant aglomeracions i cues als punts de control impedint el creuament d'aquests. No obstant això, els estudis sobre l'amuntegament són, bàsicament, en el context de les compres i serveis (Machleit, Eroglou, & Mantel, 2000; Noone & Mattila, 2009). Només uns pocs estudis han examinat l'amuntegament en el context del turisme (Palau-Saumell,

Forgas-Coll, Sánchez-García, & Prats-Planagumà, 2014), i no s'han trobat evidències sobre els efectes d'aglomeració en la satisfacció i en les intencions de comportament d'aquells que visiten les zones frontereres.

Per això, i donada la creixent importància d'aquests llocs en el context turístic aquest estudi investiga les relacions simultànies entre les intencions de comportament, la satisfacció, el valor, l'amuntegament, i la recerca de sensacions entre els turistes transfronterers vers a la zona transfronterera a Nicòsia (Xipre), mitjançant el desenvolupament i la prova d'un model de relacions estructurals. També s'investiguen els efectes moderadors de les expectatives en les relacions entre els constructes.

Aquest estudi contribueix a la comprensió actual de la influència de la recerca de sensacions, l'amuntegament percebut, el valor, i la conseqüent influència en la satisfacció i les intencions de comportament. A les zones frontereres, hi ha altres estudis que han modelat la recerca simultània de recerca de sensacions, percepció d'amuntegament, valor, satisfacció i les intencions de comportament. Aquestes relacions entre els constructes han estat estudiades per la literatura, però d'una manera parcial o fragmentada. D'altra banda, l'efecte moderador de les expectatives permet explicar millor el model d'intencions de comportament.

A més de les implicacions teòriques, no es poden ignorar les pràctiques. Els resultats han demostrat que els turistes estan visitant la zona transfronterera tot i la manca de promoció per part de les entitats oficials de turisme, tant al Nord com al Sud, amb un valor més gran en la influència de la satisfacció amb la visita i també amb el boca-orella, les recomanacions i les intencions de tornar a visitar la zona.

La línia verda seguirà estant allà mentre no hi hagi un acord polític entre el Nord i Sud per canviar l'actual status quo polític. Mentrestant, s'ha d'encoratjar als turistes internacionals a visitar la zona, mitjançant la promoció de la zona transfronterera, ja que si els governs adopten la cooperació en les seves fronteres, els fluxos de turisme es poden facilitar (Sofield, 2006). L'ús de senyalització i els instruments interpretatius per donar a conèixer els fets històrics, augmentant així el valor de la zona, animarà a un major flux de visitants, i això al seu torn, també afectarà l'economia de la població en ambdós costats, especialment en les petites i mitjanes empreses a banda i banda de la frontera.

Com en la majoria d'estudis, els resultats s'han de considerar amb certes limitacions. Una limitació és la temporalitat en la recollida de les dades. La recol·lecció de dades al llarg de tot l'any, seria interessant per comprovar si els resultats es mantenen. Una altra limitació és el context de l'estudi, el que pot limitar la generalització dels resultats.

Aquests resultats poden variar si l'enquesta es realitza en una altra zona transfronterera. Seria interessant per confirmar el model mitjançant el mostreig dels turistes transfronterers en altres fronteres.

Paraules Clau: Cerca de sensacions, acumulacions de gent, valor, intencions de comportament, turisme transfronterer, Xipre

Resumen

Las zonas fronterizas se han convertido en una atracción turística para muchas personas. Muchas de las atracciones turísticas más populares del mundo están situadas cerca de las fronteras, y podría ser la motivación principal o el principal atractivo del viaje (Timothy, 2001), y una oportunidad económica para los residentes en ambos lados de la frontera (Altinay & Bowen, 2006; Webster, Musyck, Orphanides, y Jacobson 2009).

Las fronteras políticas han despertado el interés de los turistas como atracciones turísticas, y más personas están interesadas en visitar las cercas, paredes y torres de vigilancia mientras están viajando, como es el caso de la ZDM entre el Norte – Sur de Corea o el Muro de Berlín para nombrar algunos ejemplos (Timothy, 2006). Sin embargo, los estudios de turismo transfronterizo se centran más en aspectos como la cooperación (Ioannides, Nielsen, y Billing, 2006; Prokkola, 2010), gobernanza (Perkmann, 2003), la percepción de la frontera (Timothy y Tosun 2003), en describir las atracciones transfronterizas (Gelbman, 2008), y las compras (Di Matteo y Di Matteo, 1996).

La frontera de Nicosia, también conocida como la Línea Verde o la tierra de nadie, se puede considerar una frontera política, porque las Naciones Unidas están todavía presentes en la isla para controlar el alto el fuego desde agosto de 1974 cuando se produjo la división; cuando la invasión turca tuvo lugar, dividiendo la isla en la República de Chipre y la República Turca del Norte de Chipre (RTNC) (Scott, 2012), que sólo es reconocida por Turquía. Esta frontera resume simbólicamente las hostilidades entre las dos partes en que se dividió la isla durante el conflicto de 1974 (Timothy, Prideaux, y Kim 2004). En este sentido, el área de la frontera cerca de la calle Ledra se ha convertido en una atracción turística desde su apertura en 2003. Los datos de 2012 recogen un total de 1,107,652 turistas internacionales que cruzaron desde y hacia el norte de Chipre durante todo el año (Departamento de Planificación del Turismo de la RTNC, 2014).

A pesar del éxito de visitantes, ninguno de los dos organismos oficiales de turismo en Chipre promueve la zona transfronteriza de la ciudad. Dada la creciente popularidad de esta actividad turística, y pensando en una posible futura colaboración entre las dos entidades políticas, es necesaria la comprensión de cómo los antecedentes de las intenciones de comportamiento, como la búsqueda de sensaciones, el hacinamiento percibido, y el valor percibido tienen una influencia en la satisfacción y en las intenciones de comportamiento de los turistas que visitan esta zona transfronteriza.

Sin embargo, pocos estudios desarrollan modelos de las intenciones de comportamiento en este contexto. Una excepción es el realizado por Lee, Yoon, y Lee (2007) sobre la influencia del valor de la satisfacción de los turistas japoneses que visitan la zona desmilitarizada entre el Norte y Corea del Sur, y otro de Lee, Lawrence, Bendle, y Kim (2011) donde también se analiza la influencia del valor en la satisfacción de los turistas surcoreanos que visitan el complejo Monte Kumgang en Corea del Norte.

De acuerdo con Timothy (2001) las fronteras crean verdaderas barreras al movimiento de personas y otras interacciones, a menudo creando aglomeraciones y colas en los puntos de control impidiendo cruzar a través de éstos. Sin embargo, los estudios sobre el hacinamiento

son, básicamente, en el contexto de tiendas y servicios (Machleit, Eroglou, y Mantel, 2000; Noone y Mattila, 2009). Sólo unos pocos estudios han examinado el hacinamiento en el contexto del turismo (Palau-Saumell, Forgas-Coll, Sánchez-García, y Prats-Planagumà, 2014), y no se ha encontrado evidencias sobre los efectos de aglomeración en la satisfacción y en las intenciones de comportamiento de aquellos que visitan las zonas fronterizas.

Por ello, y dada la creciente importancia de estos sitios de turismo, este estudio investiga las relaciones simultáneas entre las intenciones de comportamiento, satisfacción, valor, el hacinamiento, y la búsqueda de sensaciones entre los turistas transfronterizos hacia la zona transfronteriza en Nicosia (Chipre) mediante el desarrollo y la prueba de un modelo de relaciones estructurales. También se investigan los efectos moderadores de las expectativas en las relaciones entre los constructos.

Este estudio contribuye a la comprensión actual de la influencia de la búsqueda de sensaciones, el hacinamiento percibido, y el valor, y la consiguiente influencia en la satisfacción y las intenciones de comportamiento. En las zonas fronterizas, no hay otros estudios que han modelado la búsqueda simultánea de sensaciones, percepción de hacinamiento, el valor, la satisfacción y las intenciones de comportamiento. Estas relaciones entre los constructos han sido estudiadas por la literatura, pero de una manera parcial o fragmentada. Por otra parte, el efecto moderador de las expectativas permite explicar mejor el modelo de intenciones de comportamiento.

Además de las implicaciones teóricas, las prácticas no pueden ser ignoradas. Los resultados han demostrado que los turistas están visitando la zona transfronteriza a pesar de la falta de promoción por parte de las entidades oficiales de turismo, tanto en el norte como en el sur, con un valor mayor que influyen en la satisfacción con la visita y también en la boca-oreja, las recomendaciones y las intenciones de volver a visitar la zona.

La línea verde seguirá estando allí mientras no exista un acuerdo político entre el Norte y el Sur para cambiar el actual *status quo* político. Mientras tanto, debe animarse a los turistas internacionales a visitar la zona, mediante la promoción de la zona transfronteriza, ya que si los gobiernos adoptan la cooperación a lo largo de sus fronteras, se pueden facilitar los flujos de turismo (Sofield, 2006). El uso de señalización y los instrumentos interpretativos para dar a conocer los hechos históricos, aumentando así el valor de la zona, animará a un mayor flujo de visitantes, y eso a su vez, también afectará a la economía de la población en ambos lados, especialmente a pequeñas y medianas empresas a cada lado de la frontera.

Al igual que en cualquier estudio, los resultados deben considerarse a la luz de sus limitaciones. Una limitación es la temporalidad en la recogida de los datos. La recolección de datos a lo largo de todo el año, sería interesante para comprobar si los resultados se mantienen. Otra limitación es el contexto del estudio, lo que puede limitar la generalización de los resultados. Estos resultados pueden variar si la encuesta se lleva a cabo en otra zona transfronteriza. Sería interesante para confirmar el modelo mediante el muestreo de los turistas transfronterizos en otras fronteras.

Palabras Clave: Búsqueda de sensaciones, hacinamiento, valor, intenciones de comportamiento, turismo transfronterizo, Chipre

Agraïments

Quan un comença a escriure els agraïments es quan descobreix que necessita moltes pàgines per esmentar a totes i cadascuna de les persones que han fet, d'una manera o d'una altra que aquesta tesi doctoral sigui una realitat, tangible, palpable. I, a banda del vertigen produït per aquesta sensació, també n'apareix una de certa plenitud, quan un se n'adona de totes les coses i persones per les quals ha estat i està agraït.

Una tesi doctoral és molt més que escriure o investigar sobre un tema. És un exercici vital. Un viatge, una aventura on descobreixes i traspasses noves fronteres.

Per sort, quan un camina no ho fa mai sol. Tot i que el camí és llarg, sempre hi ha gent que t'acompanya. Alguns a l'inici, d'altres a la meitat, d'altres al final.... Alguns no comprenen el què fas. També hi ha els que no creuen que te'n sortis, que indirectament també t'ajuden i et motiven a continuar endavant. Hi ha els que no es qüestionen absolutament res, i simplement t'acompanyen, a trams o durant tot el camí. Els que t'acompanyen incondicionalment, ho fan uns passos darrera teu vigilant per si et cal ajuda, però deixant-te tot l'espai necessari perquè vagis al teu ritme. I sobretot, hi ha aquells que t'acompanyen durant tot el camí, des de la distància, gairebé *d'amagatotis*. D'aquests només n'ets conscient que hi són, i que sempre hi han estat quan ja ets gairebé a punt d'arribar.

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A tots GRÀCIES.

0 INTRODUCTION

Human history has shown the importance of borders, both physical and mental. First, natural borders were used to divide territories; then to indicate political control where empires were growing or being created through wars, conflicts or disputes; and finally they were defined by sociocultural aspects. As to this last sphere, in recent years and mainly from the Western perspective, there has been increased growth in the need to cross borders through tourism activity. Thus, the innate curiosity of tourists has led to cross-border areas becoming tourist attractions, such as the Great Wall of China, with more than 60 million visitors per year, the Berlin Wall, Niagara Falls or Iguaçu Falls, to name a few. Many of the world's most popular tourist attractions are located near borders, and this could be a primary motivation for or the principal attraction of the visit (Timothy, 2001). Tourism also entails economic opportunities for residents on both sides of the border (Altinay & Bowen, 2006; Webster, Musyck, Orphanides & Jacobson, 2009).

Political boundaries have aroused the interest of tourists as tourist attractions, and an increasing number of people are interested in visiting fences, walls, flags, passport controls and guard towers while they are traveling (Gelbman, 2008; Gelbman & Timothy, 2010; Medvedev, 1999). Different authors agree that the main attraction of borders for tourists is the border itself, and the reason for its attractive power lies in its unique geographical location (Gelbman, 2008; Timothy, 2006) or its unique political and cultural characteristics (Mansfeld & Korman, 2015). Previously mentioned examples include the Great Wall of China and the Berlin Wall (Timothy, 2006), both of which were sited in areas of conflict and instability thus represented closed and fortified borders. Borderlines such as these that have been transformed from closed and hostile to open and benevolent, consequently play an important role in tourism development. In the case of Cyprus, for instance, before the borders were opened tourists could see the other side through viewpoints, but were not allowed to visit or cross to the other side (Gelbman & Timothy, 2010). Indeed, to highlight the importance of the Cyprus border, in 2012 a total of 1.1 million international tourists crossed over from and to North Cyprus (Tourism Planning Department of Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, TRNC, 2014).

The study of borders has been increasingly significant since the twentieth century, as researchers have realized that there are further aspects of borders than merely seeing them as simply spatial delimiters (O'Dowd, 2003; Perkmann, 1999; Timothy, 2001; Timothy & White, 1999; Van Houtum, 2000). It has been clearly established that borders can also exert an influence on the meaning of the economic and social aspects of the experience (Minghi, 1963). According to Timothy (2001, 2006), borders perhaps represent one of the best laboratories for analyzing the process of globalization, as they are spaces where political entities collide, economies converge and cultures blend. There are also mental borders and psychological effects of borders, since governments give them a profound delimiting significance (Herzog, 1990; House, 1980). In fact, borders are also social constructs that combine material, conceptual and mental elements (Sofield, 2006; Timothy, 2001). Borders, both psychological and conceptual, have been viewed as demarcations of *us* and *them* (Allen, Massey & Cochrane, 1998; Sofield, 2006), as barriers between states in an attempt to impose control on tourism flows of people, to regulate the market or otherwise to indicate that a gateway may or may not facilitate contact and exchange (Hageman, Berger, Gemie & Williams, 2004). In short, borders are constructed in mental, physical, political, social and cultural terms (Sofield, 2006; Timothy, 2001). According to Timothy (2001, 2006), the magnitude of tourism in border regions is immense, since many of the world's most popular locations lie close to or directly on borders. He asserts that the discipline of tourism is affected by the existence of political borders. Butler (1996) believes that border regions provide some of the most unspoilt natural landscapes and so generate a mythical image, attracting tourists, and as a result border areas may enjoy a competitive advantage in developing their tourism industry.

Meanwhile, tourism almost always involves the crossing of some political border, whether domestic or international (Prokkola, 2007; Timothy, 2001), although there is nonetheless little academic literature in the context of borders and tourism, since we are only now beginning to consider the political, cultural, economic, social and psychological effects of borders in tourism (Sofield, 2006; Timothy, 1995, 2001). Policies related to the border, differences in the administrative structure on both sides of the border and the physical barriers that they create can affect many aspects of tourism, including the motivation for travel, the decision-making process, the development of infrastructure, marketing, promotion and the image of the location. At the same time, they will conjure up mental images of the country, and the people who live there, and create stereotypes of cultural ethnicity and religion (Timothy, 2001). When tourism and borders are combined as concepts, many interests and unique relationships become evident, although the intersection has many facets: borders as barriers, as destinations, as modifiers of the tourism landscape, as attractions, as impediments to travel, as motivation for travel and as lines of transit (Timothy, 2001, 2006). Hence the considerable importance of studying borders and tourism.

Reviewing the literature, we have found a number of studies into loyalty in tourism destinations (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Yoon & Uysal, 2005), although we have little evidence regarding loyalty in cross-border destinations. In fact, as demonstrated by the academic literature, there exist numerous studies referring to a cross-border destination (Boyd, 2002; Causevic & Linch, 2013; Ilbery, Saxena & Kneafsey, 2007), although most present the way in which border regions cooperate (Ioannides, Nielsen & Billing, 2006; Prokkola, 2007, 2010; Sonmez & Apostopoulos, 2000; Tirasatayapitak & Laws, 2003; Tosun, Timothy, Parpairis & Macdonald, 2005; Webster & Ivanov, 2014; Wohlmuther, Wintersteiner & Wagner, 2014), or collaborate on both sides of the border (Blasco, Guia & Prats, 2014b; Ioannides & Apostolopoulos, 1999; Timothy & Kim, 2013). Other studies focus on governance (Anderson, O'Dowd & Wilson, 2003; Perkmann, 2003), political issues (Sofield, 2006; Nyaupane & Timothy, 2010; Timothy, 2000), perceptions (Kim, Pridaux & Pridaux, 2007), boundaries as perceived barriers to tourism (Timothy & Tosun 2003), descriptions of attractions (Gelbman, 2008), shopping trips (DiMatteo & DiMatteo, 1996; Dmitrovic & Vida, 2007; Lau, Sin & Chan, 2005; Spierings & Van der Velde, 2008, 2013; Timothy & Butler, 1995; Wang, 2004), dining motivations (Lord, Putrevu & Parsa, 2004) or the influence of nationality (Lord, Putrevu & Shi, 2008). In terms of cross-border issues, the literature is also rich in studies explaining the accession of former Soviet countries to the European Union (EU) (Baláž & Williams, 2005; Szivás, 2005) or exploring the differences in tourism development in all stages of a conflict, for example in Ireland (Boyd, 2000;Greer,2002). Despite this, there is an increasing need for a better theoretical understanding of tourism development in border areas (Mansfeld & Korman, 2015). In fact, research in cross-border areas has placed a greater emphasis on previously cited aspects rather than studies of loyalty or consumer behavior. Works such as Lee, Yoon and Lee (2007) in the DMZ between North and South Korea highlight the lack of studies regarding loyalty or consumer behavior in border areas, which is the context within which we aim to focus our research.

According to Timothy (2001), borders create true barriers to human movement and other interactions, often creating human crowding and queues at checkpoints and impeding people from crossing through them. Nevertheless, studies on crowding largely focus on shopping and services (Machleit, Eroglou & Mantel, 2000; Noone & Mattila, 2009). Only a few studies have examined crowding in the tourism context (Neuts & Nijkamp, 2012; Palau-Saumell, Forgas-Coll, Sánchez-García & Prats-Planagumà, 2014; Popp, 2012), and no evidence has been found regarding the effects of crowding on satisfaction and on the behavioral intentions of those visiting cross-border areas. Similarly, we were unable to find any analyses of the influence of sensation-seeking on satisfaction with a visit to a cross-border area, or as a model of causal relationships of behavioral intentions, although Lord et al. (2008) and Butler (1996) affirmed that tourists wish to satisfy their hedonic motivations with novelty, represented in this case by visiting the other side of a border. Consequently, no prior study has undertaken a dedicated effort to understand the effects of crowding and sensation-seeking on behavioral intention models among cross-border tourists.

Therefore, and given the increasing importance of these tourism sites, this study investigates the simultaneous relationships between behavioral intentions, satisfaction, value, crowding and sensation-seeking among cross-border tourists in the area of Nicosia (Cyprus) by developing and testing a structural model. The moderating effects of expectations on the relationships between the constructs are also investigated.

The proposed model analyzes the causal relationships of five constructs – sensation-seeking, perceived crowding, value, satisfaction and loyalty – positioning them within the context of a cross-border tourism destination.

Thus, the aim of this investigation is to analyze the drivers that lead to behavioral intentions towards the cross-border area in Nicosia, Cyprus, and the moderator effect exercised by the expectations of the trip. To achieve this objective this dissertation examines the following: (i) conceptualization of borders; (ii) literature review in cross-border tourism; (iii) proposal of a theoretical framework to examine the simultaneous relationship between sensation-seeking, perceived crowding, value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions and the moderator effect of expectations; (iv) testing of the structural relationship; and (v) deriving theoretical and practical suggestions for academics and practitioners.

Structure of the thesis

The thesis is structured in seven chapters. The first introduces the concept of borders and its different approximations and that is why it is divided into sections and subsections. After the discussion of borders, the second chapter covers the literature review in cross-border tourism research. This review is mostly based on papers published in peer-reviewed journals, with a high impact factor, extracted from the ISI web of knowledge. This same chapter is then divided into seven subsections. Following these two chapters, the third presents the theoretical framework to examine the simultaneous relationships between sensation-seeking, perceived crowding, value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions, and also presents the hypotheses and the proposed model to be tested.

The fourth chapter is devoted to contextualizing the case study. A brief history of the area is presented in order to understand more about the cross-border area of Nicosia. The following chapter, the fifth, is used to present the methodology pursued in order to gather the data, and also the methodology utilized to test and analyze the proposed model by employing a structural equations model.

Chapter 6 highlights the findings achieved from this dissertation which are divided into four different sections. The last chapter includes conclusions, theoretical and practical implications, discussion, limitations and future research on the topic.

1 BORDERS AND TOURISM

1.1 BORDERS

Borders throughout history have represented a clash between cultures and specific places that are geographically important in the formation of nation-states, closely linked with territorial control, especially during the nineteenth century (McNeill, 2004; Sack, 1986; Timothy, 2001). In fact, state borders indicate the legal framework of the jurisdiction of a government and its territorial limits, and that leads to concepts such as sovereignty and international recognition; law and public services; the definition of what is or is not a citizen within this framework; and the rights of states to use resources within their borders and control movement through them (Timothy, 2001). Therefore, the border can rise above national differences instead of projecting the similarities of both sides (Löfgren, 2008). In addition, a border has to be historically legitimized in the sense that the past is seen as an invention of tradition evoked to the benefit of present and future interests. It is for this reason that geopolitical borders have rarely been static (Hageman et al., 2004).

Borders have been gaining importance as a field of research since the twentieth century, and study of them is increasing because researchers have found that there are more elements to borders waiting to be analyzed besides considering them as delimitators of space (O'Dowd, 2003; Perkmann, 1999; Timothy & White, 1999; Timothy, 2001; Van Houtum, 2000), because borders also exercise a strong influence on the significance of the economic and social aspects of the experience (Minghi, 1963). Nevertheless, for other authors, the field of research in borders is still in its initial state (Boyd, 2000; Ilbery, et al., 2007). For Timothy (2006), borders present possibly the best laboratory in order to study the globalization process, because these are spaces where political entities collide, where economies converge and where cultures melt. While some borders are divided into different cultural groups, others are divided into similar social groups. This would be determinant for the history of borders and the degree to which residents interact. When culture and language are different on both sides of the border, an additional barrier is created, that of communication (Timothy, 2001). Mental borders also exist and there are psychological effects created by governments, which give borders a profound sense of delimitation (Herzog, 1990; House, 1980).

In fact, like all the regions belonging to a social organization, the borders of a state are social constructions combining material and conceptual/mental elements (Sofield, 2006; Timothy, 2001). Borders, whether psychological or conceptual, have been considered as a demarcation of *us* and *them* (Allen, et al., 1998; Sofield, 2006), the marking of borders between states imposing control on flows of people, regulating the market or facilitating contact and exchange or the reverse (Hageman, et al., 2004). To sum up, borders have been built mentally, physically, politically, socially and culturally (Sofield, 2006; Timothy, 2001). Thus, we can consider that borders include legal demarcations between states, and one significant differentiation of a border is that it is where cultures and politics often coincide in a dynamic relationship (Paasi, 2001; Timothy, 2001). National borders generally are controlled and observed in a strict way, but others are not, because they may be based on symbolic lines, cultural or even invisible (Paasi, 2001). The problem with borders is that in fact they are part of the construction of a territory or place. This comment is important for the process of the construction of a nation; drawing or building a border is always an act of power (Paasi, 2001) and when a negative relationship between adjacent countries exists, borders tend to be more marked to potentiate this fact even more so (Timothy, 2001), as is the case for Cyprus.

1.1.1 Border typologies

Typologies of borders seen from different perspectives can help to understand the construction of borders throughout history and from a political perspective. Different typologies will be mentioned in what follows.

However, not all borders are human creations, as has been mentioned. There are other typologies of borders. (i) **Natural borders** such as rivers or mountains are considered the best political boundaries because they are more permanent than those created by humans with lines, as they tend to divide or separate these natural features (Hartshorne, 1936; Holdich, 1919; Jones 1943, quoted in Timothy, 2001; Jones, 1945). (ii) **Geometric borders** refer to roads, highways etc. that are contiguous to so-called natural borders. For Timothy (2001) all borders are human creations and humans inevitably impose cultural and political values on nature. (iii) A **Precedent border,** according to Hartshorne (1936, quoted in Timothy, 2001) is that which precedes the development of many of the cultural characteristics that exist before any previous settlement. A border that is completely antecedent is called a pioneering border. Many borders are later settlements and for this reason are superimposed on the existence of the cultural environment, regardless of what is on the form (Timothy, 2001). (iv) **Widow borders** are those that do not work as a border, but still are visible in the cultural landscape, for example the Berlin Wall or the Great Wall of China (Timothy, 2001. (v) **Borders as marches or lines** are other types of borders. Marches were used in the conquest of European lands by Charlemagne's army, and lines were used in the time of the Roman Empire. Both cases generally are natural elements such as stones or rudimentary buildings using these types of natural materials. The marches and lines have a geographical boundary but also a social one. Everything that was inside was correct, socially accepted, the good; and everything that was outside meant that they were not like them, so delimiting the *us versus them* concept (Kramsch & Hooper, 2004; Sofield, 2006).

These typologies can be considered the most rudimentary in the creation of borders, but generally borders have responded to technology over the ages. Before technological issues, borders were marked naturally, with fences and so on, and were not different over years or even centuries. After wars sometimes they changed, but it was with the introduction of innovative technology that they really started to change (Sofield, 2006). During the seventeenth century, when ships were used to conquer other lands, sovereignties and borders also changed, and all the natural demarcations (rivers, mountains) used during the preceding centuries were no longer useful. So, this was a horizontal expansion of borders, through the water. Something similar happened with the technology of flight, which resulted in another generic expansion of all states' territories, this time vertically (Sofield, 2006) with relation to the Convention of Regulation for Air Navigation (1919) drawn up by 26 countries after the First World War, with the agreement to give complete sovereignty to each nation (Sofield, 2006).

Besides these typologies of borders, where the delimitation and the functions were somehow very clear and understood, their different scales should be considered in terms of framework or scope and in terms of the existence of relationships on a different scale, as will be presented in the next section.

1.1.2 Different types of borders based on patterns

Martinez (1994) divided cross-border areas in two general types according to certain patterns of opposition: (i) national areas, which do not establish any contact with the adjacent cross-border area, like internal borders within a country; and (ii) transnational areas, which keep important ties with the neighboring nation. National and transnational cross-border areas can be subdivided into smaller groups based on local circumstances such as the ethnic configuration or the degree of cross-border contact.

Based on this division, later Timothy (2001) divided the different scales of borders in three dimensions, based on the bi-dimensional division proposed by Martinez (1994) in relation to the border inhabitants' interactions. (i) National or international borders comprise the first level of political control, even though some borders define a sharp change in language, religion, political attitude, cultural and social traditions. (ii) Sub-national borders, between states, provinces, regions and departments, can be seen as a second level of border; and (iii) includes towns and villages. This third level of border has fewer impacts on human interaction, but not of less significance (Timothy, 2001).

Both authors linked their divisions with the different typologies of populations living in cross-border areas. That knowledge is very useful in terms of understanding the relationships among groups within nation-states, and for the identification of cross-border patterns (Martinez, 1994). Despite the heterogeneity of borders, it is possible to generalize regarding common features and devise a classification scheme based on cross-border contact. In relation to this, Martinez (1994) proposes four paradigms of interaction between boundaries that later Timothy (1999) collects and combines with collaboration and cooperation to form a model of cross-border partnership in tourism. His four paradigms are:

I. Alienating borders. Exchange in these borders is non-existent due to unfavorable conditions (disputes, war, religious hostility, extreme nationalism, ethnic rivalry, among others), which are the main causes of alienation. This leads to militarization and the strict control of traffic at the border, a setting that is inconvenient for everyday or international trade (Martinez, 1994), as well as cultural differences and/or policies that are abysmal, and it is for this reason that connections are not possible or feasible (Timothy, 1999).

II. Coexisting borders. Coexistence occurs between adjacent border areas when their respective nation-states reduce their conflicts (Martinez, 1994). This makes international contacts possible, although to a large degree interaction does not occur (Timothy, 1999, 2001).

III. Interdependent borders. Interdependence is possible due to relatively stable international relations and the existence of a favorable economic climate that allows the stimulation of growth and development linked to capital, markets and labor. The greater the flow of economic and human resources across the frontier, the more united the two economies are structurally. The final outcome will be the creation of an economic system of mutual benefit. Interdependence implies mutual agreement even though this interdependence is generally asymmetric, where the strongest country plays the dominant role. The economic interdependence creates a positive scenario to promote opportunities for cross-border areas to establish social relations across the border (Martinez, 1994).

IV. Integrating borders. At this stage neighboring nations eliminate all major political differences and existing barriers allowing trade and human movement across borders. Merging economic capital, product and labor flows from one side to the other without serious restrictions improves the quality of life of people in both nations, through the transfer of trade and technology. For this to transpire, each nation voluntarily renounces its sovereignty in an important measure in order to achieve mutual progress. So, cooperation appears in regions where relations are stable. In these borders colleagues work together on both sides of the border and cooperation exists (Timothy, 1999, 2001).

Timothy (1999) adopted Martinez's (1994) model for cross-border tourism partnerships by combining his alienation, coexistence and integration elements with cooperation and collaboration to develop a five-part typology of levels of such partnerships. At one end of Timothy's spectrum, no partnerships exist between contiguous nations because of (i) **alienation**. Cooperation and collaboration are not possible to achieve because political relations are so tense or cultural differences so wide. The second type is (ii) **coexistence,** where there are minimal contacts and where neighbors do not work together on their common problems. His third level is (iii) **cooperative partnerships** that involve neighbors starting to solve common problems together. (iv) **collaboration** is his fourth kind of partnership, which can be found in regions where relations are stable and common efforts well established, due to the active involvement of partners working together, in an equal environment for their relationship. Finally, (v) **integrated** partnerships are those that exist without obstacles. Both sides see the mutual benefit in giving up a certain degree of sovereignty.

Before Martinez (1994) and Timothy (1999), Matznetter (1979) also suggested three types of cross-border relationships with regard to tourist areas: (i) two tourism areas divided by a border, but at some distance from one another; (ii) a tourism area on one side of a border; and (iii) tourism areas divided by a boundary. In the first case the link between the two areas leads to an increase in the transit of tourists, and this, in turn, can generate other tourism developments along the route (Worthington & Sedakat, 2005).

Peripheral areas, according to Hall (2000), have two important characteristics: isolation and lack of power, which often leads them to a sense of alienation. They are geographically removed from mass markets, as a result, transport and communication have a higher implication for tourism. Normally, they are not included in routes from core cities, which is why they lack power and are isolated from the rest of their community. These peripheral areas have generally more common features with the adjacent cross-border areas than with the center (Perkmann, 2003). For Sofield (2006), these peripheral regions often retain high aesthetic amenity values as a result of being relatively underdeveloped in relation to their core areas. Following Hall's (2005) and Sofield's (2006) arguments, in our case study we can see that Cyprus by nature, as an island. But it is doubly isolated because of its condition of being divided. The northern side, which is by de facto occupied, is not recognized by the majority of countries making it trebly isolated, for its status as an island, for being divided and for not being recognized. And the south is in the same situation, its status as an island, for being divided and in contrast for being occupied. The sense of alienation has been present since the first contact, which started in 2003 (Webster, et al., 2009).

When Timothy's (1999) typology is applied to measure progress towards transnational tourism in Cyprus, a mix of his first and second stages can be considered, as cooperation and collaboration are not applied with regard to tourism. Conversations are beginning to start and the reunification process is on the table. Yet there is no end in sight and the outcome has not been revealed (Foster, 2015, Gorvett, 2015). In terms of tourism, what we can observe is that the official position of both sides is to promote their own side of the island, without contemplating what is on the other side, almost hiding the fact that there is an existing problem. That is, city maps do not show the whole area or present the tourist areas or spots on both sides (Cyprus Tourism Organization, 2015; Nicosia Municipality, 2015, Welcome to North Cyprus, 2015). On the contrary, there is a plaque announcing the last divided city in Europe, right at the same place where a commemorative building for the victims is and where the checkpoint was opened.

The nature of borders has been presented, it has been mentioned that besides natural borders, the rest are human creations, which leads us to the question of how borders have been settled through time? The next section discusses the establishment of borders.

1.1.3 Border settlement or setting

Jones (1945) suggests that ideally under normal conditions, the establishment of international borders should follow four stages. (i) Borders are defined by their natural and cultural characteristics. (ii) Delimitation refers to the process of taking aerial photographs and so on to locate the exact border. (iii) Demarcation is making a line on the ground. (iv) The fourth stage is maintenance or administration of the border. This is an ideal model of development, even though all the borders in the world have been created in this manner. Many present conflicts over borders are results of mistakes in the calculation of their demarcation or limits and the majority of disputes are based on territorial problems and borders (Timothy, 2001).

This process may seem simplistic, but as Jones (1945) relates, these four stages always take place during the creation of borders. If there are no natural features such as lakes or mountains (i.e., Lake Constance, the Alps), it is cultural characteristics such as language that make the difference between *us* and *them*. In the present case, there are cultural differences such as language, religion and ethnic group, facts that differentiate both Cypriot communities. The second stage refers to the boundaries created on paper, to locate the borders exactly in the right place, and the need for documentation regarding this decision with aerial photos, geolocalization, fences, stones and marches, in order to define exactly where they are supposed to be, not a little more or a little less. In Cyprus, after the conflict, the island was divided: 36% of the island is for the North and the rest for the South. The third stage, demarcation of limits and borders, was established clearly between the North and the South with barricades, walls and the creation of the Green Line or Buffer Zone, since then controlled by the United Nations.

As seen with the example described of Cyprus, the theoretical process proposed by Jones (1945) was confirmed, even though in the Cyprus case study the process of demarcation of borders and delimitation of areas was done in an office and in an objective manner, drawing a line on a map. Other important impacts such as emotional or economic were not taken into consideration while dividing the island. So, cities, streets, houses, communities and families were divided, in different parts, as also happened with smaller distances in the division of Baarle Herlog and Baarle Nassau (Gelbman & Timothy, 2011; Timothy & Kim, 2013). This decision can affect inhabitants' daily lives very much even in the most trivial things. Besides the emotional feelings that one may have in relation to the division of a community such as going to the doctor, paying taxes, sending or receiving a letter (Timothy & Kim, 2013) can be very complicated in this type of condition, in addition to being in a ceasefire situation. Delimiting and demarcating borders solely in an office meant that for instance Famagusta, on the Greek side, is occupied by the Turkish army. The same situation happens in the creation of enclaves or exclaves elsewhere in the world, normally created after a political decision. As borders were created as the result of a political issue, after a conflict, as part of a treaty in order to recover peace, so most of the time enclaves are created because this political agreement is not well formulated, as is the case with Llívia. Llívia is a small Catalan enclave located in France, formed by the Treaty of the Pyrenees (1659). The treaty stipulated only northern villages of the Pyrenees should become part of France. Llívia by that time was a town, so it was exempted from the treaty for that particular reason. Kalingrad is another similar case, which is a Russian enclave between Poland and Lithuania (Worthington & Sedakat, 2005), and the gateway for trade and tourism between them and Russia.

Delimiting and marking borders lead us to their functions. For Timothy (2001), there are five noteworthy functions of borders: (i) borders are legal limits; (ii) borders play an important role in the economy; (iii) borders control and monitor tourism flows of people; (iv) ideological borders are created when a country promotes strict regulations in order to prevent the flow of ideas and information across borders; and (v) some borders are used as a line of military defense. Other authors consider that the functions of borders are not static if not dynamic, and that these functions change through time (Paasi, 2001; Sofield, 2006). Boggs (1932, quoted in Timothy, 2001) suggested that when in a border area problems occur causing friction between neighbors, those could be solved with a profound revision of the assigned functions of the border, instead of solving them by modifying the border, advice that is not taken into consideration in a world where every meter of national territory is zealously protected (Timothy, 2001). Unfortunately, we are now seeing this with refugees, where countries in the European Union are protecting their boundaries and sovereignty issues are more current than ever.

All these five functions of borders are closely related to tourism activity. Thus, the second section presents the relations between tourism and borders.

1.2 TOURISM AND BORDERS

For Timothy (2001, 2006), the magnitude of tourism in cross-border areas is immense, because the most popular places in the world are situated near a border or lie right on one. For him, the discipline of tourism is affected by the existence of political borders. According to Butler (1996), cross-border areas provide some of the most virgin landscapes and generate a mythical image that attracts tourists. Thereby cross-border areas can have some competitive advantages to develop the tourism industry.

Following this argument, for several scholars the contrast in politics, economy, cultures and landscapes is part of the tourist appeal of these areas (Arreola & Curtis, 1993; Eriksson, 1979; Leimgruber, 1991; Timothy, 1999). Moreover, tourism almost always involves crossing some political border, national or international (Prokkola, 2007; Timothy, 2001). Nevertheless, little literature exists in regards to tourism and borders, because researchers are only beginning to consider the effects of the related political, cultural, economic and social aspects (Sofield, 2006; Timothy, 1995, 2001).

Politics or regulations related to borders, differences in administrative structures along both sides and physical borders can affect tourism. This interference includes travel motivations, the decision-making process and the development of infrastructure, as well as the marketing, promotion and image of the place. Concurrently, mental images develop of countries, from their inhabitants and stereotypes with regard to ethnicity, cultures and religion (Anastasiadou & Sausmarez, 2006; Ilbery et al., 2007; Timothy, 2001).

When pairing together tourism and borders many interests and unique relationships become evident, even though the intersection has many faces. Timothy (2001) proposed a conceptual framework that was later revised (Timothy, 2006). He divided this relationship into (i) borders as tourism attractions and destinations; (ii) borders as barriers to travel and to the growth of tourism; and (iii) borders as transit lines.

Due to their importance, we have decided to present these three concepts as subsections in what follows.

1.2.1 Borders as tourist attractions and destinations

These can be seen from two perspectives. The first is the *border itself*, including its demarcation, towers, fences and guard posts. This is the case of most famous borders, for example the Berlin Wall, the North and South Korea DMZ and the Great Wall of China, among others. Places where the demarcation of the border presents a contrast to the ordinary landscape should also be included. These are the typical built landscape of a border area, becoming almost commemorative monuments of past heritage and relating the story of the site (Gelbman & Timothy, 2010). A visit to the Berlin Wall can be an inspiration to gain an idea of the historical events that occurred, and to try to understand that the wall divided two opposite lifestyles, the western and the eastern (Timothy, 2006), or to have the feeling of following in the footsteps of an important historical process (Gelbman & Timothy, 2010). In every continent in the world we can find comparable places with these characteristics, such as the Golden Triangle, the geographical point where Laos, Thailand and Myanmar meet. Research demonstrates that wherever a border exists, whether delimited or visible, certain interests are awakened, because it makes people have the feeling of being in two places at the same time, and hence that intensifies curiosity at borders. Visitors also have the feeling that they are in a foreign place. Often the existence of a border and its historical connotations become an icon for interesting tourism marketing (Timothy, 2001, 2006; Weidenfeld, 2013). At times, even if the physical border was a sealed barrier over many years and has opened completely, it continues to exist as a symbol of a darker heritage that should be remembered but not repeated (Gelbman & Timothy, 2010; Timothy, 1999). For instance with Cyprus, the barrier has been open since 2008, but the idiosyncrasy of the physical site makes it look as if it is still closed.

The second perspective is *borders as tourist attractions that are not the line itself*, whether the draw is the activities, attractions or special characteristics of the neighboring community. This perspective can be described as a tourist destination in a more accurate manner than the former classification. Places where the border is a tourist destination have many activities and attractions in common: shopping, prostitution, gambling, casinos, restaurant, bars, nightclubs, liquor shops, international parks and international enclaves. These can be a potential attraction if one side of the border does not allow these activities or if prices are lower (Timothy, 2001, 2006; Weidenfeld, 2013). Macao could be an example of this kind of border.

1.2.2 Borders as barriers to travel and for tourism growth

The general trend is that the more closed a border is, the more intense development will be due to transit and traffic at the destination. Impenetrable borders create landscapes where services and infrastructures are extended in parallel and produce different flows of traffic (Hall, 2000; Timothy, 2001; Timothy & Kim, 2013). Economic differences between both sides of the border will be very important, because they will determine the growth rate of tourism and the efforts to extend it by central governments and residents in order to develop the industry (Farmaki, 2015; Farmaki, Altinay, Botterill, & Hilke, 2015)

These limits form real and perceived barriers to international travelers, due to the functions and specific methods of delimitation of the borders, and also because of the experiences and expectations of individual travelers in regards to the border or what is found on the opposite side of it. Different scales of border also act as a tourist attraction when offering a unique show in the cultural landscape, besides they create more economic and legal differences that become significant attractions in the majority of towns (Timothy, 2001, 2006). Finally, the unique human landscapes of borders between regions have a strong influence in tourism development on both sides of the border (Timothy, 2006). Moreover, they create more economic and legal differences that have become significant sites in the majority of cities (Ioannides et al., 2006; Timothy, 2001, 2006).

Borders can be tourist attractions or even tourist destinations, as already discussed, but likewise they can become a barrier to travel. Fortifications that are too high, places with guards controlling access, restrictive immigration policies or even visas not conceded in certain countries are psychological or perceived barriers which are certainly impediments to tourism (Timothy, 2006). Another obstacle lies in border policies and crossing formalities such as visa controls, border officials and lack of information (Stewart, Bramble, & Ziraldo, 2008; Timothy, 2001; Timothy & Tosun, 2003; Tucker & Sundberg, 1988).

International borders can be seen as barriers to travel from at least two different perspectives: the real and the perceived. In the former, borders make it difficult or impossible to travel; and in the latter, the border has to be related to the fact that it is not considered as a physical obstacle in general, but can create situations where crossing a border can be an unwelcome challenge (Timothy, 2001). Borders control the tourism flows of people in and out of the country in two different ways. The first are strong defensive fortifications and defensive methods of demarcation. People are unable to leave the country and clearly that has an effect on the traffic in information, which undoubtedly does not help tourism development. Secondly, strict requirements to cross the border mean that residents do not leave the country, but also foreigners are not permitted to enter; in this situation, we are talking about the degree of permeability of the border. The notion of permeability varies from one place to another, yet sometimes it depends on which side of the border you live on. When physical demarcations and border policies work together, sometimes the border may become more permeable (Prokkola, 2010; Timothy, 2001; Weidenfeld, 2013). Political problems or crimes have to be necessarily considered because they act as a real barrier and also lead to poor international relations amongst countries, creating restrictions for travel.

Another relation between borders and tourism that may be less well understood is one that uses borders as transit lines due to their conceptuality. It is better understood as a concept rather than being a thing to which people pay attention or of which they are aware.

1.2.3 Borders as transit lines to arrive at a final destination

If you are in transit in Barcelona waiting for a plane to New York, you do not have the feeling that you have visited Catalonia. If for example you are flying from Italy, it is just a mere formality, a requirement in order to arrive at your final destination. The tourist does not have the feeling of being in another country because they are in a transit situation, unless there are differences of currency or language, which may have some influence on the perception of being in another place. Moreover, the fact that the majority of facilities in an airport have the same features does not help; instead, it increases the perception of being anywhere (Timothy, 2006). The non-favorable relationship between neighboring countries can force tourists to travel to a third country in order to visit a fourth. For example, a tourist in Spain interested in visiting Gibraltar had to do so through Morocco or the UK due to the border closing between Spain and Gibraltar in 1969. Other countries do not allow the entrance of tourists who have visited a certain country before, so access has to be from another one, probably farther away (Timothy, 2001).

Matznetter's (1979) theory suggests a triple relational typology of the space between two sides of one border. (i) The border line is **far away** from the tourism area. Border functions are a barrier, or a transit line, but the influence of the border depends on its degree of permeability. (ii) The tourism area is between the borders but only on one side. Besides attracting people for that reason, it can also attract visitors to the undeveloped side, presenting opportunities for tourism development. (ii) The tourism area extends into or is in the borders. There must be communication and cooperation between both sides so that the natural and cultural attractions operate in a single gear; if not, the border can act as a significant barrier in itself. Cities that are divided by borders tend to evolve as two separate and unrelated models of settlement; in this respect urban development on one side can be tightly planned, while the other side can be planned and structured in a totally different way (Timothy, 2001). Even so, borders as an attraction can be considered a key to preserving identity (Gelbman & Timothy, 2011).

Regardless of all these barriers or obstacles, there are people who are still willing to visit borders for varying reasons. The following section explains possible reasons for this.

1.2.4 Reasons for visiting a border or traveling to a border

As previously mentioned, regulations or politics related to borders, differences in administrative structures and physical barriers amongst others, can affect some aspects of tourism, including motivation, decision-making, infrastructure development, marketing, promotion and the image of the place.

With regard to motivation, for some people a border that represents differences in language, culture and politics can act as an impediment or barrier to travel, but for others it can have the opposite effect – it can be the main motivation (Butler, 1996; Gelbman, 2008; Timothy, 2001). Erikson (1979) suggests that being close to a foreign country may be very exciting. Another travel motivation for certain targets can be the fact of crossing a border; because this action awakens curiosity in order to know how political borders are marked and delimited (Timothy, 2001), as can be with roads, welcome symbols, flags and buildings, amongst other things. These icons are themselves attractions because they signal the interface of differences in language, culture as well as economic systems and politics (Timothy, 1995, 1998).

Following Sofield's (2006) argument about lived space and representative space, Ryden (1993) said that borders have a certain mysticism because they imply a transition from real experience and they draw an ineffable line between life lived in one place and life lived in another. Moreover, the feeling of being in two places at the same time can be of interest to tourists. That may be a reason why the majority of tourists stop to take pictures of border-related icons. For that reason, according to Timothy (2001), it is important to identify in which places those marks or cross-border icons become the main objectives of tourists in the region. He also points out that the main goal of these symbols is to highlight the differences and therefore manipulate feelings when the geographical border is crossed, being conscious of the differences between both areas. This produces a dichotomy between us and them, what is right or wrong, what is good or bad. Additionally, a border with a hostile relation to its neighbor can also be a tourist attraction.

A border that forms a barrier to tourism in one period may represent a cross-border tourism destination at another time (Gelbman, 2008; Gelbman & Timothy, 2010; Prokkola, 2010), as is the case with the Finish–Swedish border, which has been transformed from a military zone to a tourist attraction (Prokkola, 2007, 2010). In cases where borderlines currently or in the past constituted a focal point of hostility and conflict between neighboring countries, visitors and tourists satisfy their curiosity by visiting these frontier areas. Thus, these border tourism areas focus on the boundary as an attraction, sometimes with additional interesting features pertaining to local heritage and the natural environment (Gelbman & Timothy, 2010). Consequently, this type of site may become a tourist attraction.

Touristification of a conflict zone is also happening, for example with Palestine or Cyprus (Belhassen, Uriely, & Assor, 2014; Gelbman & Timothy, 2010; Mansfeld & Korman, 2015; Timothy, 2001). And according to Gelbman and Timothy (2010) the more hostile and closed a border was, the more benevolent and open it will be in terms of a tourism attraction. Conversely, ancient border conflicts may have added value today as tourism products in their own right, which are able to attract significant numbers of visitors to battlefield sites (Sofield, 2006). However, the fact that the geopolitical situation is more stable is enabling tourists to visit these destinations. Geopolitical issues are playing a new role in the local tourism environment. This is how Tiananmen Square, the Berlin Wall and the towns of Belfast in Ireland and Srebrenitza in Bosnia-Herzegovina have turned into must-see sites (Belhassen et al., 2014). Brin (2006) suggests that in Jerusalem there are two kinds of tourists that can be found which are differentiated by their motives: activists/solidarity tourists on the one hand and the curious on the other. The first type of tourists visit the city with clearly political views, clearly supporting one of the two sides involved in the conflict, and they base their visits to the place on demonstrating or showing this support. Those activists, contrary to what could be expected, are not necessarily knowledgeable about the history of the conflict. There are some tourists who are not political activists, they are just curious to visit the site and learn about the conflict for themselves, experiencing the visit, so they do not see it as a political act against any of the parties involved. This could be considered the greatest difference among international visitors, the meaning they give to the visit (Belhassen et al., 2014). That also happens in Cyprus, where the observant participation conducted at Ledra Street allowed us to verify that some international tourists visiting the city were not aware of the division of it. They did not have any knowledge about it, and once they were there they decided to visit the area and understand the conflict for themselves. On the other hand, there were tourists who were knowledgeable about the area, as in the case presented by Ilbery et al. (2007). This study shows that the tourist visit was spontaneous and the principal motivations for crossing the border were a change from routine and novelty-seeking.

Another type of attraction is the Earth's time zone lines and position. These lines are boundaries between the time and space of human experience. The lines that mark latitude and longitude, like borders in the majority of cases, are significant tourist attractions, for example the Equator line, the Greenwich meridian or the Polar Artic (Prokkola, 2007; Timothy, 2001).

Political borders which divide cities, towns and even run through buildings, can also be an attraction and a main motivation for a visit and be related to the notion of collecting places (Timothy, 1995, 2001). Examples of these could be Niagara Falls (Canada–United States) or Iguaçu Falls (Argentina–Brazil) in natural resources, Nicosia as a divided city, or the buildings in Barlee as an example of divided buildings (Timothy & Kim, 2013).

Collecting places could be seen from three different points of view: (i) the border is crossed only for the fact that you can say you have been in a different country or in a particular place; (ii) people travel to as many places as possible to explain a particular situation or anecdote; and (iii) some people collect places only for the purpose of impressing others with the destinations they have visited or within the destination chosen (Timothy, 2001). For Butler (1996), these cross-border destinations are places to be consumed no matter where they are located, even if it is very difficult to reach them or if very expensive to access. They have to be related to risk and danger. The more remote the destination, the more valuable it is as a place to collect. Viken (1995) adds that different motivations and forms can be included in the conquest of a place: for some people it is purely a symbolic act, but for others, status is the most important concern. Travel to these places implies social admiration and recognition (Timothy, 2001).

In this sense, some research has revealed that the border is increasingly coming to be viewed not as a deterrent to travel (Boyd, 1999); instead, it is viewed as a place where heritage and other tourist types of attractions are worth visiting (Boyd, 1999). Also, sometimes it is perceived as a safer place, but that is a totally subjective perception. When borders are open, there is a real fear that the attraction or appeal of the border may be dampened considerably, as both sides become similar, and the excitement of crossing into a new country or place disappear due to the elimination of the border crossings (Timothy, 1999). With this idiosyncrasy of borders, in many parts of the world, border regions have emerged as important tourism destinations.

Once the perspective of the border as a tourist attraction has been shown, it is appropriate to mention the various types of tourist attractions at borders and which are the most common forms of visiting them by travelers. The majority of tourists are day trippers from nearby regions, especially for retail purposes, so cross-border areas sometimes become shopping places (Gelbman & Timothy, 2011; Timothy & Tosun, 2003). There were 500,000 visitors to the cross-border area of Baarle in 2008 (Gelbman & Timothy, 2011), almost 1.1

million in the cross-border area of Cyprus (2012, Cyprus statistics) or between the Canadian and American border (DiMatteo & DiMatteo, 1996).

1.3 MOBILITY AT BORDERS

Millions of people move daily between borders, for work, for leisure, for holidays and for other reasons, so they experience the border in many ways (Timothy, 2006; Löfgren, 2008). According to Sofield (2006), somehow the mental constructions of the perceived space are incorporated in these different types of movement, and the space becomes a lived space or a representative space. Why one place is special can only be understood from the perspective of the individual (space lived) and in the social (space of representation) sense. For Bhabha (1994), many cross-border regions constitute a third space. This is an attractive concept for the tourism industry and tourists in cross-border areas where there exists a significant difference between both communities, as tourists have the sense of being between two places (Sofield, 2006; Timothy, 2001) and that can increase the number of visitors on both sides.

Note the importance of borders and borderlines in the mobility of tourism. In the end, borders are still political and policies can affect mobility, not allowing the flow of tourists (Paasi, 2001; Sofield, 2006; Timothy 2001), but for tourism growth a degree of free movement of tourists is needed, as stated in Article 13 of the Universal Declaration of the Human Rights (United Nations,1948).

Normally, travelers see borders as barriers in the sense of impediments, because they must submit certain documentation to declare their assets, answer questions from the authorities, and undergo police controls at airports and customs services at borders (Smith & Xie, 2003; Timothy, 1995, 2001, 2006). These issues have increased after the US terrorist attacks known as 9/11 in the name of safety and security (Timothy, 2006; Timothy & Tosun, 2003). These restrictions are also a barrier to tourist mobility, even though the borders may be open or where the situation between adjacent countries is not conflictive. In the end, these are political issues which are very important when dealing with borders. For Nyaupane and Timothy (2010), political issues and tourism cannot be separated. As mentioned, from the very beginning of history, the majority of times borders are created due to political decisions, or after a religious or ethnic confrontation or dispute. Besides natural borders, the rest have been created by humans. Borders are more mental than physical and knowledge and understanding of others is the best scenario to be safe. Political conflicts appear after the existence of one act, which is normally incontrollable, and the reaction is to protect borders even more so (Hall, 2005) in order to impose control over the flows of people when crossing and regulating cross-border trade (Sofield, 2006).

This can be considered curious due to the antagonism with another feature of the border, which is the decrease of borders with transnational cooperation. Since the 1950s, the number of transnational organizations has grown, such as the European Union (EU) , North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA), Association of Southeast Asian Nations (ASEAN), Caribbean Community (CARICOM), Economic Community of West African States (ECOWAS), to name a few**.** Some of these partnerships have tourism as a major focus; at least most of them deal with issues that directly affect tourism, as well as a desire to cooperate in reducing barriers, tariffs and quotas related to imports and exports (Ioannides et al., 2006).

When traveling to one or another destination, the concept of functional distance appears. The scope that we give to a destination is very important in terms of consumption and willingness to visit an attraction or a place. As mentioned in the first section, visiting cross-border areas has some appeal, and as Butler (1996) asserts, no matter how far away the place is, some tourists will visit it just for the fact of collecting a place or saying to others that they have visited it. This is something to take into consideration. The concept of functional distance could also be important in terms of understanding the mobility of international tourists visiting cross-border areas.

1.3.1 Functional distance

This concept suggests that political borders add a perceived distance on certain occasions that generally tends to exceed the real distance. For example, many people are inclined to travel long distances along a territory and when they have to travel shorter distances, they are inclined not to cross an international border (Tosun et al., 2005). In practical terms, a destination that is located just in line with the border is perceived to be farther away than a national destination that is objectively farther away (Timothy, 2001).

The combination of these effects of the border is what is called the functional distance. Human interaction between political borders does not seem to affect the physical distance, whereas it affects the functional one. Two people can live a few meters away, but if the doors of their houses face opposite streets; their probability of interaction is low. So, while the physical or geographical distance can be slight, the functional distance can be major (Gelbman &Timothy, 2011; Reynolds and McNulty, 1968, quoted in Timothy, 2001). According to Merret (1991), the fewer crossing points that exist, the more the border is considered as a barrier. He suggests that an international border can be viewed as the equivalent to an additional distance that a traveler should travel – a distance that becomes greater as the total volume of flow significantly decreases. Functional distance can be created between neighboring regions as a result of antagonistic relations (Timothy, 2001).

The opposite can occur, that tourists do not travel because they perceive an additional distance, or the contrary, that tourists consume the space between cross-border regions as one destination, as is the case for the Pyrenees between Catalonia and France (Blasco, Guia & Prats, 2014a). Tourists visit this natural cross-border area and are involved in activities without taking into consideration the administrative borders, which in this particular case are regional and also international (Spain–France). Here the concept of functional distance does not affect tourists visiting the area, maybe because they perceive the area as a single destination. The same happens in the cross-border region between Wales and England, where two castles (at Welshpool and Bishop's Castle) are located fairly close to each other but on either side of the border, and tourists do not visit them (Ilbery et al., 2007). Nevertheless, these cases may be understood as straightforward in terms of transnational cooperation due to the Schengen treaty, which somehow can be considered as an internal border. There are also cases where tourists consume cross-border areas, as between mainland China and Hong Kong (McKercher & Lau, 2008).

For McKercher, Chan, and Lam (2008), distance is a variable that reflects many issues regarding destinations, such as time considerations, costs, choice of transport, travel budget, ability to interact with other cultures and a variety of other factors influencing the willingness of people to travel. Their study demonstrates that international movements are affected by distance at a global scale. According to this argument, Thailand is working with its neighboring countries in order to increase visitors in the entire area, promoting themselves as a one-stop destination (Heung & Leung, 1998). Thailand has understood perfectly the concept of functional distance and believes that if tourists arrive at one of the islands, solving the problematic of distance, they will definitely travel across borders to a different island, because the physical distance is lower. That is why Thailand has the intention to become the hub of the East. Thailand strongly believes that this will be an opportunity to attract visitors from other islands who have visited Thailand before, encouraging them to return to the island and rediscover it (Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Heung & Leung, 1998). The same argument is presented by Tosun et al. (2005), where the attempt at collaboration between both countries is the attraction for potential tourists who are not from the EU, such as Americans. They argued that as those tourists have solved the functional distance of traveling abroad, visiting the two countries might be not seen as an inconvenience for them in terms of distance.

1.4 HOW CAN CROSS-BORDER TOURISTS BE DEFINED?

People crossing borders can have different purposes – work, leisure, shopping, dinner, visiting friends and relatives, retailing, pleasure and recreation, among others – but these aspects need to be acknowledged when studying the role of tourists in cross-border knowledge. Normally in all the studies consulted regarding cross-border tourism, people related to migration or daily commuting were excluded, but the rest fall under the definition of cross-border tourists. This definition, while instrumental for the research, is also problematic and should be refined in the light of future empirical studies. Again, it could be used when justification of data is needed in terms of tourism flows at the border (Gelbman, 2008; Shaw & Williams, 2004; Weidenfeld, 2013; Williams & Shaw, 2011). For Baláz and Williams (2005) , international tourists are united only by the fact that they cross borders, and this mobility has consequences for both receiving and sending territories, because many foreigners cross the border in both directions (Tirasatayapitak & Laws, 2003). For Ilbery et al. (2007), all the people visiting a cross-border area were considered tourists, whether they were locals or tourists spending the night. The term cross-border tourist refers to all types of human mobility for any purpose involving international border crossing (Hampton, 2010; Timothy & Butler, 1995) and, similar to the definition of tourist, ignores the problematic aspects of temporality of the visit (day-trip or one-night stay), travel purpose and distance (Hall & Page, 2009, Weidenfeld, 2013). In that regard, Murphy (2013) and Ryan (1991) agree that people who travel abroad and return to their home country the same day should be considered tourists. They crossed a border and spent time and money; they were consuming the space and also the facilities on the other side.

In our case study, all the international tourists interviewed crossed the border and visited both sides of the area, so there were consequences for both sides (economic and social), as Baláz and Williams (2005) argue. For Lord et al. (2004), those who spend more time on the other side will usually consume in its restaurant industry. In studies conducted by Li, Law and Wang (2010), McKercher and Wong (2004), and McKercher, Okumus and Okumus (2008), cross-border tourism is analyzed as a normal attraction, as a place to visit, as an activity conducted by tourists while they are visiting the destination, at the same level as cultural, tourism or other activities. These authors consider cross-border tourism as an activity in which those international tourists visiting the country can be involved. In their studies, they analyzed the patterns of consumption of tourists visiting one particular destination. The activity is listed alongside cultural tourism, pleasure activities and so on. Similar to our case study, visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia can be considered as a spot or a must-visit place for international tourists staying on the island.

1.4.1 Cross-border definition

There is no clear definition or definition for the term cross-border tourism. Literally, one may understand that it is tourism interested in borders, or tourism related to crossing borders, but a clear classification or a commonly used definition does not exists. Besides, is not all tourism cross-border tourism? Does not all tourism imply a certain degree of mobility and crossing a border, whether at local, regional, municipal, national or international level (Sofield, 2006; Timothy, 1999; Timothy, 2000)?.

So, when speaking about cross-border tourism, what does it mean? Or what is its significance? This simple question has not been answered in the field of cross-border tourism research and other issues need to be covered also. This thesis does not pretend to answer this question or create a definition. What is interesting on the surface is that the researchers have used a convenient definition of cross-border tourism, and so they have also identified the cross-border tourist conveniently as well.

In the next chapter, we will analyze several articles under the umbrella of the specific term cross-border tourism. We will see which outcomes are being searched in the principal journals with high impact factors.

For Lord et al. (2004), cross-border consumption is not synonymous with tourism that does not require crossing a national border. For these authors (Lord et al., 2004; Worthington and Sedakat, 2005) cross-border tourism should be analyzed and understood from a wider perspective instead of being seen in terms of case studies. For Worthington and Sedakat (2005), cross-border tourism, besides treating it from the geopolitical perspective, has to be analyzed also in terms of international relations and political changes. Nowadays, unfortunately, we have a clear example in the case of Syrian refugees and the big debate that is facing the 28 members of the EU, and with reference to critical issues associated with international relations. This concerns the enlargement of the EU, where strategic and geopolitical links are being restored that have not operated in that way since 1914, and where borders nowadays are more closed than open.

2 CLASSIFYING CROSS-BORDER TOURISM RESEARCH

The first chapter has presented numerous concepts related to borders and tourism. In the last section, a window was opened, and this chapter will add some light regarding this.

The concept of cross-border tourism, according to several authors, is in a very preliminary stage in terms of research (Davila, Asgary, de los Santos & Vincent, 1999; Ioannides et al., 2006; Lord et al., 2004; Sofield, 2006; Timothy, 1999, 2001, 2006; Timothy & Kim, 2013). While it is an interesting topic that is gaining some relevance in recent years (Call for papers, 2014; Gelbman & Timothy, 2010; 2011), there is still a long way to go in the field.

The idea of organizing or creating a map will be a very useful tool for scholars in terms of continuing research. Knowing what has been done and where there is still room to improve or research is an interesting tool for researchers in any field and, if it is an emerging one, it makes even more sense. So, this chapter attempts to classify studies in cross-border tourism, to see what has been done and how other reviewers have done it. It may be used as a first guide to follow in terms of cross-border tourism research. When classifying, we will be able to see what has been covert in certain areas and what is missing, as well, we will also be able to identify the existing gaps. That will enable us to improve topics, introduce new ones and also be able to know which methodology is the most commonly used and which techniques have been applied when analyzing cross-border tourism.

In order to complete this chapter, 69 peer-reviewed articles have been reviewed. All of these are from the JOURNAL CITATION REPORT – ISI WEB OF KNOWLEDGE, under the category of Social Science Edition, and from the subject categories Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism (ISI Web of Knowledge). The list published from July 2013 was used for the search. In that category, 38 journals were listed (see Table 1).

Table 1. Journal Summary List 2012 JCR Social Science Edition

1. INTER REV SPORT EXERCISE PSYCHOLOGY	20. J SPORT SOCIAL ISSUES
2. ANNALS OF TOURISM RESEARCH	21. INT J OF TOURISM RESEARCH
3. JOURNAL OF SPORT EXERCISE PSYCHOLOGY	22. CURRENT ISSUES
4. J SUSTAINABLE TOURISM	23. SPORT PSHYCHOLOGY
5. TOURISM MANAGEMENT	24. SCAN J HOSP TOURISM
6. JOURNAL OF TRAVEL RESEARCH	25. J SPORT MANAGEMENT
7. INTER J HOSP MANAGEMENT	26. INT REV SOCIO SPORT
8. PSYCHOLOGY SPORT EXERCISE	27. J OF TRAVEL AND TOURISM MARKETING
9. INT J CONTEMPO HOSP MANA	28. EUR SPORT MANAGEMENT Q
10. SPORT EDUC SOC	29. J LEISURE RESEARCH
11. TOURISM GEOGRAPHIES	30. TOURISM ECONOMICS
12. RES QUAR EXERCISE SPORT	31. ASIA PACIFIC J TOUR RESEARCH
13. J SPORT HEALTH SCI	32. J SPORT ECON
14. CORNELL HOSPITALITY QUARTERLY	33. INT J SPORTS SCI COA
15. J HOSPITALITY TOURISM RESEARCH	34. INT J SPORT PSYCHOLOGY
16. SOCIOL SPORT JOURNAL	35. INT JOURNAL OF THE HISTORY OF SPORTS
17. LEISURE SCIENCES	36. J PHILOS SPORT
18. J APPL SPORT PSYCHOLOGY	37. J TOURISM AND CULTURAL CHANGE
19. LEISURE STUDIES	38. J HOSP LEIS SPORT TOURISM

Source: JCR- Web 4.5 Journal Summary List ISI WEB OF KNOWLEDGE retrieved on July 7 2014

Once this list was created, the term “cross-border tourism” was introduced in the search engine of every journal in the table. A total of 69 peer-reviewed articles appeared in 13 of these 38 journals, using the term “cross-border tourism,” as presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Distribution of peer-reviewed Articles by Journals

ANNALS OF TOURISM RESEARCH	13
JOURNAL OF SUSTAINABLE TOURISM	5
TOURISM MANAGEMENT	11
JOURNAL OF TRAVEL RESEARCH	3
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF CONTEMPORARY HOSPITALITY MANAGEMENT	3
TOURISM GEOGRAPHIES	7
JOURNAL OF HOSPITALITY TOURISM RESEARCH	1
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF TOURISM RESEARCH	7
CURRENT ISSUES	5
SCANDINAVIAN JOURNAL OF HOSPITALITY TOURISM	5
JOURNAL OF TRAVEL AND TOURISM MARKETING	4
ASIA PACIFIC JOURNAL OF TOURISM RESEARCH	4
JOURNAL OF TOURISM AND CULTURAL CHANGE	1
TOTAL	69

Source: ISI Web of Knowledge

A third table presents the year when the peer-reviewed articles were published. This will enable readers to have an approximation of the evolution of the topic in the selected journals.

Table 3. Number of peer-reviewed articles resulting by year

Year of publication	Articles published	Year of publication	Articles published
1984	1	2004	3
1987	1	2005	6
1992	2	2006	7
1993	1	2007	4
1995	1	2008	6
1997	1	2009	4
1998	3	2010	6
1999	3	2011	3
2000	2	2012	1
2001	1	2013	3
2002	2	2014	6
2003	2	Total	69

Source: Author own elaboration

As seen in Table 3, a total of 69 peer-reviewed articles were reviewed, of which 19 were rejected because they did not contribute the analysis. In two of these papers, the term “cross-border tourism” was only found in the references (Lew & McKercher, 2002; Thrane

& Farstad, 2011), in nine of the papers the term cross-border appeared only in one sentence, which was not relevant (Lean & Smyth, 2009, Lew, 1998; Li, Law & Wang, 2010; Liu, Guillet, Xiao & Law, 2014; McKercher et al.,2008b; Pine, 1992; Roberts, 1987; Xiao, 2006); four were congress reviews that covered the topic of cross-border tourism without adding more information, or announcing that an author X will cover the topic with a simple sentence (Eagles, 2001; Johnston, 1994; Laws, 2009; McKercher & Lau, 2008; Mykletun, Haukeland & Furunes, 2008), one used the term to described cross-border tourism as an activity on a list; and finally, the other three papers were editorials where the guest editor presents the articles in the special issue without adding value to the topic (Bramwell & Lane, 1999; Coles & Hall, 2005, Halkier, 2010). In the end, after this subjective rejection, 50 peer-reviewed articles out of 69 were considered for the analysis. We can consider that rejection as a subjective one, and in a sense that may be understood as a limitation.

Table 4 presents the evolution by year of the 50 peer-reviewed articles considered in this review.

Table 4. Number of articles reviewed by year

Year of publication	Articles published	Year of publication	Articles published
1993	1	2006	6
1995	1	2007	4
1998	3	2008	4
1999	2	2009	1
2000	2	2010	4
2002	1	2011	2
2003	2	2012	1
2004	3	2013	3
2005	5	2014	5
		Total	50

Source: Author own elaboration

Table 4 shows an evolution on regard of publications. During the period of 1993 – 2005, a total of 20 papers were published, and in the period from 2006 – 2014, 30 were published. The years 2005, 2006 and 2014 are the years with more published papers, 5, 6 and 5 respectively.

Once we had the list of the 50 articles reviewed, the first task to be done was to identify which methodology was used by which authors and which techniques were applied to analyze the data. The second was to identify the topics that the research was covering and list them. The intention of this review, although in a limited sense as already mentioned, is to highlight studies in cross-border tourism in academia. Are they really in their infancy

(Ioannides et al., 2006; Timothy, 2001)?. What has been the focus in the research done up to now? Table 5 serves to present the methodology, the techniques used and also the topics covered in the different articles, which are listed by authors and year.

Table 5. Distribution of the articles by authors, methodologies, techniques and topics covered

AUTHORS		TECHNIQUES	TOPICS
Anastasiadou & de Sausmarez, 2006	X	Semi structured Interviews	Cooperation, collaboration how the EU and the ASEAN use the funds and its impact in tourism
Baláž & Williams, 2005	X	Literature Review and data analysis	Cross border shopping, VFR, Relationships, Collaboration
Belhassen et al., 2014	X	Ethnographic research and discourse analysis OF TEXTS. observations, interviews, distribution of open questionnaires and e-mail correspondence with tourists	Networks, Collaboration, Cooperation, Marketing, tourism development
Blasco et al. 2014b	x	In depth interviews, catalogue analysis	Governance, Networks, tourism development, cross border destination
Blasco et al., 2014a		Analysis of images, cluster analysis, interviews	Creation of new tourist zone. Cooperation, Promotion, Marketing
Boyd, 2000	x	Field work, data analysis from Tourism Offices	Peace, Heritage
Brooker & Burgess, 2008	x	limited literature review based on the Life Cycle of Butler applied to a case Study	Marketing, Cooperation, Product development, Innovation, Marketing strategy
Call For Papers, 2014		Call for papers for a Special Issue in borders	Cross border cooperation, tourism development, supranationalism, heritage, mobility, safety, borders as barriers, among others
Causevic & Lynch, 2013	x	Interviews, conversation, participant observation, reflexivity research, snowball technique, a phenomenological-informed interviews	Cooperation, Peace, Development
Chiang, 1998	x	Review of a conference of the author	Cooperation, planning
Davila et al., 1999	Q	Surveys, Exploratory analysis	Motivations, elasticity of prices, currency, border trade policy
Gelbman & Timothy, 2010	x	Direct observation and direct participation, literature review.	Tourist attractions, development, Peace, Cooperation, Geopolitical relations
Gelbman & Timothy, 2011	x	Interviews, observation, analysis of papers	Development, attraction, Cross border destination, Policies, Sovereignty, Economy, Shopping, daily trips
Greer, 2002	x	in-depth interviews, review of the empirical data available	Cooperation, Partnership, Political issues
Guo, Kim, Timothy & Wang, 2006	x	Literature review, analysis of secondary data	Tourism cooperation, tourism as a tool for reconciliation.
Hall, 2000	x	Literature review	Sustainability and tourism development
Harrison & Schipanl, 2007	x	Interviews	Development, Cooperation
Heung & Leung, 1998	x	Literature review	Cooperation, Consortium, Marketing, Image, Development.
Hewlett, Fyall, & Edwards, 2004	x	Semi structured interviews	Visitors management, Cooperation, Collaboration
Ilbery et al., 2007	x	interviews	Cooperation, Marketing, tourism development
Ioannides, 2006	x	Personal opinion of the author	Mysticism. Real experience
Ioannides et al., 2006	x	Interviews	Cooperation, Collaboration, Transport, Marketing, Mental Borders, Conservation, Promotion
Jayawardena, White, & Carmichael, 2008	x	literature review, press review, interview to students	Binational tourism, Planning, Collaboration, Cooperation
Kim et al. , 2007	M	literature review, semi structured interviews, survey measure with Likert scale, Factor Analysis and Anova technique	Peace, Reunification

AUTHORS		TECHNIQUES	TOPICS
Lee, Bendle, Yoon & Kim, 2012	Q	Interviews, Structural Equation Models.	Perceived Value, Satisfaction, Behavioral Intentions, Thanatourism, Heterotopia
Lord et al., 2004	Q	Cluster analysis, Factor analysis and Anova	Motivations, dinning, Categorization of consumers dinning
Lovelock & Boyd, 2006	X	Surveys, Workshops and Interviews.	Cooperation, Collaboration, Development, Sustainability, Destination competitiveness
McKercher & Wong, 2004	Q	Anova	Visitors. Motivation, Satisfaction, Activities.
Nilsson, Eskilsson & Ek, 2010	X	Story-lines concept. Discursive framework	Tourism development, Interreg Programmes
Nowak, Petit, & Sahli, 2010	Q	Quantitative analysis of secondary data.	Product development.
Nyaupane & Timothy, 2010	x	observation, data analysis	Mobility, taxes, tourism policies
Park, 2011	x	ethnographic approach	Heritage, Reunification and Image
Prideaux, 2005	x	literature review, data analysis	Bilateral tourism flows, Economic and Political factors, health
Prokkola, 2007	x	Methodological triangulation: interviews, literature review, project documents, websites.....	Cooperation, tourism development, product development, INTERREG programs
Prokkola, 2008	X	book review by Helmut Wachowiak	Conceptual Issues and Policies, marketing and management, communication and Information
Prokkola, 2010	X	Methodological triangulation, guidebooks, web, policy documents, historical documents, travel books. Fieldworks, attendance to seminars, photography,	Development, tourist attraction, Landscape, Collaboration, cross border destination
Richard, 1993	x	Interviews, participant observation, and data analysis	Planning, informal structures, cooperation
Sofield, 2006	x	Literature review	Border categories, Political factors, Philosophical perspective
Stewart et al., 2008	x	interviews	Cooperation, Collaboration, Product development
Su, Long, Wall, & Jin, 2014	x	Semi structured interviews. Informal discussions, on-site observation	Community based tourism. Tourism development
Szivás, 2005	x	Discussion technique. Data analysis	Tourism development, Cooperation, Human resources
Timothy & Butler, 1995	x	interviews, observation, analysis of papers	Shopping, distance, accessibility, taxes, Development, daily trips, lack of data
Timothy & Kim, 2013	x	Literature review and descriptive data from official organizations	Cross border tourism, Cooperation, Flows, Reconciliatory relationship
Timothy & Tosun, 2003	x	Interviews, and narratives	Development, definition, border perception, International boundaries as perceived barriers
Timothy, 1998	x	Interviews	Cooperation, Development
Timothy, 1999	x	Interviews, analyses of data	Cooperation, Management, Planning, Human Resources, policies
Tirasatayapitak & Laws, 2003	x	literature review	Bilateral agreements, Cooperation, Marketing actions, tourism development
Tosun et al., 2005	x	Focus group, formal in-depth interviews, personal knowledge and experience, literature review	Cooperation, Marketing, Collaboration, Political issues, Promotion
Weidenfeld, 2013	x	literature review	Innovation, Mobility, knowledge transfer, cross border regions, cross border tourism definition
Worthington & Sedakat, 2005	x	Literature review of all the EU projects	Exclave, Geopolitical tourism

Source: Author own elaboration Legend: X Qualitative approach. Q. Quantitative M. Mixed

After having read the articles, it can be seen that a common methodology and some similar features have appeared in several articles. Most of them use a qualitative methodology and are based on the public perspective, namely destinations, and a few are based on the tourist perspective, namely the demand side. This showed us a gap in the cross-border tourism literature, which we consider to be very important. Another issue is the fact that as presented, the majority of the literature related to borders and tourism in the tourism field focuses on cooperation, collaboration, tourism development and regulations, as well as other areas. However, it is very difficult to separate these categories, because they are interrelated, due to the very nature of the discipline. It is complicated to separate cooperation from collaboration, and from tourism development or peace with political issues and person-to-person encounters, because tourism involves all these things in itself. Nevertheless, there is more life in borders than that! As has been seen, and as Timothy (1999) asserts, borders may be considered the best laboratory in order to understand the complex and transverse discipline of tourism (Tosun et al., 2005; Worthington & Sedakat, 2005).

Considering Table 5, we can see that the majority of the papers (43 out of 50) have used a qualitative methodology in their analyses, and from this methodology the technique most often used has been in-depth or semi-structured interviews. Other techniques have been used such as literature review, data analysis, Delphi, focus groups, observation, participant observation, ethnography, triangulation and snowball technique, amongst others.

Only 4 studies used a quantitative methodology; the techniques used included surveys and for the analysis the authors have used the structural equation model, cluster analysis, factor analysis and ANOVAs. Mixed methodologies (quantitative and qualitative) were used in 3 papers. Cluster analysis, image analysis, in-depth interviews and structural equation models were the techniques used. So, finally, we can consider that 43 papers used a qualitative methodology, 4 quantitative and 3 mixed.

From Table 5, we can also see that the majority of the studies have analyzed cross-border tourism using the supply glasses, meaning that they have reviewed or analyzed the destination and focused on the problematic of the supply side. Few articles have put the focus of the lens on the demand side. Only 4 articles have put the focus of the lens on demand. It is convenient to highlight that the methodology and the technique chosen in the previously mentioned articles seem to have a correlation or similarities with the approaches or the focus of the research. What can be seen from Table 5 is that most of the articles reviewed using qualitative methodologies were focused on the supply side; compared to when the focus is on demand, the approach was generally quantitative or mixed.

In Table 5, we are also able to see the most relevant topics studied in this field of research, which will be presented further in depth in the next section. We can see that almost all the authors have covered similar themes, and not only one in their revisions. This table may allow readers to see how full or empty the boxes for each topic are. A few examples in this regard are presented as follows. As mentioned, more than one topic is covered in almost all the articles. To Illustrate that, under the umbrella of cross-border tourism, articles are related to **cooperation** (Hall, 2000; Heung & Leung, 1998; Hewlett, Fyall & Edwards, 2004; Szivás, 2005; Timothy, 1998; Timothy, 1999; Timothy & Kim, 2013; Tirasatayapitak & Laws, 2003; Worthington & Sedakat, 2005); **collaboration** (Blasco et al.,2014b; Brooker & Burgess, 2008; Gradus, 2001; Heung & Leung, 1998; Hewlett et al., 2004; Ioannides et al., 2006; Jayawardena et al., 2008; Lovelock & Boyd, 2006; Stewart et al., 2008; Timothy & Kim, 2013; Timothy & Tosun, 2003); **as a tool for peace development or reconciliation** (Boyd, 2000; Causevic & Lynch, 2013; Lee et al., 2012; Park, 2011; Timothy, 1999;Timothy & Kim, 2013); and **tourism development** (Boyd, 2000; Causevic & Linch, 2013; Gelbman & Timothy, 2010; Gelbman & Timothy, 2011; Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Hewlett et al., 2004; Prokkola, 2010; Timothy, 1999; Tirasatayapitak & Laws, 2003; Weidenfeld, 2013).

After reviewing the articles and rejecting those that will not contribute to adding value to the topic, the following categories: cooperation, collaboration, tourism development, political issues, the role of tourism in peace development and reconciliation, shopping and the demand side have arisen in terms of the analysis of those 50 papers, based on the review done by the author.

2.1 ANALYSIS

From analyzing the articles we have come up with six main categories that are present in almost all the investigations related to cross-border tourism: cooperation (23), collaboration (10), tourism development (19), political issues (8), tourism and its role in reconciliation and peace development (8), and shopping (8). Other topics that were present in fewer than six articles are not categorized specifically, for example policies that can be related to or covered in the category of political issues. As presented in Table 5, studies did not only analyze a single topic. Some of them overlap, or the line between them is thin or even blurred. A last category has been included, the demand side because of the lack of studies analyzing it.

2.1.1 Cooperation

As a first approximation, cross-border cooperation can be defined as a formal relation in terms of assistance or help between authorities on both sides of the border, normally at a subnational level (Perkmann, 2003). Whereas for Timothy (2001), cooperation can also be informal, established between local authorities, companies or individuals on both sides of the border, without the necessary legal support through official treaties, norms or regulations. So, both arguments can be considered complementary, and it should be added that these formal or informal relations can change if political changes occur on one or both sides (Perkmann, 1999).

When speaking of cooperation between two nation-states from the EU, their federal politics have to be considered. Their same idiosyncrasy and their internal nature are important. In some countries, where regional or local governments have more authority, this will make cooperation more or less successful; such as Germany or the Scandinavian countries (Perkmann, 2003). It is for that reason, as Perkmann (2003) asserted in his investigation, that the initiatives led by European countries tend to be more successful in terms of cooperation among the different actors involved in the project, due to their own political nature (Lögfren, 2008; Perkmann, 2003). For Keating (1998), the concept of interdependence affects all the federation, but with a special echo in Europe, where welfare states need profound cooperation between the different levels of their governments. For Timothy (1998), it is also relevant to see how countries in the Middle East do not work like that, because power is also treated differently (Gradus, 2001; Timothy, 1998).

However, Löfgren (2008) warns that cooperation between two nations can be led by vanity and national competition, and if two states are obligated to cooperate, regions can become special. This issue can be important because local and regional administrations of the cross-border regions may have more independence from their nation-state and yet somehow, they can take part or be involved in the politics of economic and social development (Cappellin, 1992; Murphy, 2013).

The literature with regard to cross-border destinations has based its analysis on the degree of intensity of cooperation between the different states involved in a European project or initiative. This is one of the main reasons why cooperation is considered a relevant concept in cross-border destinations (Belhassen et al., 2014; Blasco et al., 2014a; Brooker & Burgess, 2008; Causevic & Lynch, 2013; Chiang, 1998; Gelbman & Timothy, 2010; Greer, 2002; Guo, Kim, Timothy & Wang, 2006; Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Hartmann, 2006; Heddebaut, 2004; Heung & Leung, 1998; Hewlett et al., 2004; Ilbery et al., 2007; Ioannides et al., 2006; Jayawardena et al., 2008; Löfgren, 2008; Lovelock & Boyd, 2006; Prokkola, 2007; Richard, 1993; Stewart et al., 2008; Strüver, 2004; Studzieniecki & Mazurek, 2007; Szivás, 2005; Timothy, 1998, 1999; Timothy & Kim, 2013; Tirasatayapitak & Laws, 2003; Tosun et al., 2005).

Several authors also consider that cooperation between public entities, such as non-governmental institutions (NGOs), have always had a successful relationship while working in projects, as well as in clarifying the limits when coordinating policies (Perkmann, 1999, 2003; Scott, 2000). For Hartmann (2006), it is very important that there is a presence of tourism organizations in these relations, due to the transversality of the discipline. Sometimes projects are not directly related to tourism but their impact on it is very high. Strüver (2004) pointed out that normally in these networks it is convenient to have the presence of these institutions, because public administrations, and their technocracies, appear to merely have the goal to create eligible projects on paper. LEADER and INTERREG programs were created to foment cooperation among EU countries, and PHASE programs, which encourage cooperation among EU countries and their neighbors not belonging to the Union, are programs launched by the EU in order to promote cooperation through border regions and their neighbors (Baláž & Williams, 2005; Nilsson et al., 2010; Prokkola, 2010; Szivás, 2005). For Strüver (2004), they are set to cover different aspects, but can be perfectly directly related to tourism (Prokkola, 2007, 2010; Timothy, 2001, 2006). In Europe, cross-border cooperation began to gain importance in the mid-1980s, strongly linked to the regional policies of the EU. The promotion of projects through different collaborative activities to support political activities is having a very positive influence on cross-border cooperation in general and on tourism in particular (Hartmann, 2006). These programs are specially created for the development of the cross-border regions in the EU and tourism cooperation is one of their main goals. There are successful cases of cooperation but, for several authors, this cooperation is based on the short term; once the funds arrive, the infrastructures are built and the photos are taken, all remains as it was, except for the new infrastructure (Greer, 2002; Löfgren, 2008; Nilsson et al., 2010; Prokkola, 2007). However, one positive aspect regarding the INTERREG programs is that even though cooperation on both sides can be superficial in some cases, they inevitably sit down in front of each other and are obligated to cooperate and worked together for the development of their regions.

The opportunities for cooperation are very broad, such as obtaining more resources, promotion of common areas, reducing costs and improving access to resources. Sharing promotional expenses as well as investing in marketing studies or new products increases the knowledge of all the stakeholders present in the development of tourism (Lovelock & Boyd, 2006), or tourism cooperation as opposed to tourism competition in regions (Heung & Leung, 1998). One aspect of cooperation is in terms of marketing issues: when cross-border cooperation exists, generally it is to cover an economic necessity. Cases like Thailand and Cambodia, with a joint marketing campaign "*Two Kingdoms, one destination"* (Tirasatayapitak & Laws, 2003), combine this with the creation of new packages including attractions in both countries, as is the case for Turkey and Greece in marketing growth strategies (Tosun et al., 2005). There is another case, which is presenting the possibility of investments and marketing of Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia as Indo-China, to save costs and increase the image of the three countries (Heung & Leung, 1998). Problems in marketing include a poor international image, different or unequal demand patterns and a lack of tourist information for planning, according to Heung and Leung (1998).

However, cooperation can not only be found between two different countries. Cooperation can also occur at regional level (Timothy, 1998). Cooperation generally is understood, or arrives when a big investment is on the table, such as the creation of new infrastructures like roads (Tirasatayapitak & Laws, 2003),or when the necessity of new regulations in trade or services arises, like the creation of new checkpoints or to avoid visa requirements before travel (Tirasatayapitak & Laws, 2003,Worthington & Sedakat, 2005), and improving cross-border facilities (Boyd, 2000; Harrison & Schipani, 2007; Ilbery et al., 2007; Lovelock & Boyd, 2006) can also increase the number of future tourists.

As Blasco et al. (2014a) pointed out in their analysis, cooperation among regions is particularly necessary in cross-border areas because tourists do not perceive borders when they are visiting an area. Joint marketing campaigns, new packages, infrastructural connections and common regulations are all forms of cooperation at an administrative level that can be achieved through European funds, but also can be achieved by planning the cross-border areas in common. A good example could be the states of New England in North America. They are marketing themselves as a tourist region via being an example of existing subnational cooperation (Timothy, 1998). In regions where the natural resources are the main attractions or when in the cross-border area, a lack of cooperation can result in environmental degradation on both sides of the border, and in turn create a breach between communities (Timothy, 1998) and, as a consequence, generate a bad image for the area. The more integrated the two sides are in relation to the border, the higher the level of cooperation will be, as for example in international parks (Timothy, 1999). As mentioned (Blasco et al., 2014a; Ilbery et al. 2007), in the end, tourists visiting the areas are not aware of the political boundaries or whether both sides are cooperating or not, but they do notice the differences if resources are not well distributed. According to Timothy (1998), tourism cooperation for planning between regions on either side of the border is very positive to find a balance between natural resources, often undervalued on one side and exploited on the other, and can also serve to promote and protect the species living in these areas (Hall, 2000). In this ideal stage, in one sense there exists the risk of developing similar resources, creating similar products, and no differentiation occurs, decreasing one of the best characteristics of borderlands. In the Mekong River case study, they are now between the third and fourth stages, and they are beginning to be aware that all adjacent countries are promoting the same products, without any differences among them. Heung and Leung (1998) posit in their case study that Thailand, a country with more experience, saw an opportunity of offering complementary products or services for those tourists who were visiting its neighbors, providing the opportunity to revisit it again with new things, or to attract visitors from the other islands. This may be considered a good example of cooperation

The role of people it is also important to consider in cooperation, and for that reason human resources are important. Blasco et al. (2014a), Hewlett et al. (2004) and also Timothy (1999) have argued that in cooperation, people have a relevant role in order to create the atmosphere of trust in building relationships. Without trust, cooperation does not occur (Causevic & Lynch, 2013). Another variable to take into consideration is information, as at times cooperation is based or can be based on information and then this information is spread amongst others. Obtaining information from public or private sources can be very difficult in politically sensitive countries as well as in a few cross-border areas, where information is treated confidentially, therefore we need to consider the lack of written material (Timothy & Butler, 1995; Tosun et al., 2005).

Cooperation is important in terms of increasing tourism flows and the visits of international tourists. In terms of travel distances, as they have traveled from afar, they may take advantage of visiting both countries (Heung & Leung, 1998; Prideaux, 2005; Timothy & Kim, 2013; Tosun et al., 2005). Studies conducted by Timothy (1995; 1998) and Timothy and Butler (1995) presented the importance of promoting day visits to areas in neighboring jurisdictions as an added attraction to the original destination given the fact that visitors required more promotion of the whole cross-border area although it was not provided (Gelbman & Timothy, 2011; Ilbery et al., 2007).

Ioannides et al. (2006) explained how sometimes cooperation and collaboration do not succeed, using the case of the Bothnian Arc destination between Finland and Sweden. In the beginning, ties between towns near the border were very close, and they had started to collaborate and cooperate with each other. However, the greater the distance to the border and to the counterpart villages on the other side of the border, the less intention for cooperation or collaboration they had, because they did not see any benefit. On the other hand, in the same case study presented by the same authors (Ioannides et al., 2006) good relations among the two closest towns along the border have led to the fact that expensive infrastructure like an airport is shared. This airport is situated in Finland, but is only 15 minutes away from Sweden. In contrast, as the destinations are very similar, competition tends to be extremely high due to the necessity to attract the same tourists. In another way, tourists visiting the natural areas between Wales and England are surprised at the lack of collaboration or cooperation existing in the area because resources or attractions are too close to each other. Yet when visiting them, they seem to be very far away in terms of signposts, marketing, prices, timetables and so on (Ilbery et al., 2007). This is the same feeling that occurs for visitors in La Cerdanya (Blasco et al., 2014b). These authors presented a case study where the result was the suggestion for the creation of new tourist zones, following the patterns of visitors, instead of the delimited or demarcated borders. But to date, no suggestion as to how to manage the area hs been proposed and this has not been implemented.

Tosun et al. (2005) applied the Ansoff matrix in terms of strategic planning for marketing penetration, development, product development and diversification as marketing growth, to identify opportunities for cooperation. Yet in the end, that again is a wish list, or a list of best practices (Tosun et al., 2005).

There are only a few articles that in fact prove their recommendations. The majority of them end with a list of best practices or recommendations, but we have found no evidence of monitoring them. Impressively, we did find one article, from the Mekong River, where one of the outputs was the recommendation to create a bilateral agreement and become a member of ASEAN in order to achieve cooperation (Anastasiadou & de Sausmarez, 2006). Or take the case of Ireland after the conflict, where one study proposed a joint marketing campaign for the entire island (Boyd, 2000), and a few years later another author presented the benefits of Ireland in promoting itself as a single destination (Greer, 2002). However, these cases can be considered anecdotal, or different from the rest, where generally outcomes are presented or monitored.

Guo et al. (2006), in their case study of mainland China and Taiwan, identified four main problematics for cooperation, and they set a list of recommendations for this specific case study. These are related to tourism cooperation, transport cooperation, political cooperation and cultural tourism cooperation.

Collaboration can be understood as the step after cooperation between both parties, as it is like an extension of the cooperation that has been initiated. This is why it occupies the second position in the categories, even though there are fewer articles covering the topic. As seen in the first subsection, cooperation and collaboration are very connected and related.

2.1.2 Collaboration

For Timothy and Kim (2013), understanding national security forces, political and economic factors as well as cultural cooperation will help to predict collaboration between two countries. Gradus (2001) adds other key factors, such as proximity, function and demographic similarity. According to him proximity, is not enough for collaboration to occur, both sides must be in a constant state of competitive cooperation.

In most of the cases, collaboration is somehow a stage after cooperation, or at least is a similar relationship between two parties. What is seen in the literature review, and as stated by Watkins and Bell (2002) in cooperation, mutual trust or mutual acknowledgment does not exist, or at least not on a profound level. Cooperation exists, as the literature shows, to obtain a benefit. Whether in collaboration the existence of this recognition is sincere and where the benefits are mutual, both parties understand that with collaboration, the outcome is better, and their relationship is based on trust and equality. Nevertheless, there are some authors who question whether cross-border areas can benefit from cooperation or collaboration (Ioannides et al., 2006).

That is not to say that forms of true cooperation do not exist but in the long term, collaboration is more beneficial in promoting tourism development. As case studies reveled, cooperation is more based on solving problems in the short or medium term. However, for Hewlett et al. (2004), collaboration is in practice, complex to achieve and fails to represent a suitable panacea for all issues. Successful cases of collaboration in cross-border tourism could show the mutual benefits of this relationship and how things have changed once collaboration exists. One successful case study of collaboration was found in three national parks along the border between Canada and the United States (Timothy, 1999). Two of these parks were created as a reminder of the peace achieved between the two countries. Both sides deal with promotion, human resources and conservation issues, and offer border concessions in terms of regulations. It is as if the park were a third state with specific regulations that make its management possible. That is because both sides gave away some sovereignty for the greater good where decisions and concessions such as how the roads will be maintained, changes in the legislation in terms of civil rights or consumption of alcohol, which may be more flexible in one country than other, are dealt with together for this unique space. An opposite case is the example of a national park in New Zealand, where the borders are regional instead of national, but there is no consensus on issues of conservation, even though both sides have to follow the national regulations (Lovelock & Boyd, 2006). In this New Zealand region, they are trying to create a consortium to collaborate between regions and promote the area as a single destination. The key problem found is the differences in transportation, where roads and access on one side of the border are not well maintained and are even not safe, which in consequence limit tourists' mobility, because they do not feel that the road is safe, so they do not use it (Lovelock & Boyd, 2006). This perception, for example, is not the same for Irish tourists in the analysis by Boyd (2000) concerning the same issue. Due to cooperation and political agreement, what had changed were the measures of security in order to cross the border through the checkpoints. While the roads have not been maintained since the ceasefire, people still perceived the area as safer (Boyd, 1999, 2000).

Another problem is the fact that both regions and their destination marketing organization (DMO) are reluctant to work together for mutual benefit, in the case of the Catlins in New Zeeland. They show resilience and that is not a good thing for cooperation or collaboration to ensue. Basically, one region has this attitude because it has no experience with tourism and distrusts the other region, which already has. The former believes that the latter's intentions are not good, and they mistrust the fact that they are doing it for a mutual benefit, instead of a particular one (Lovelock & Boyd, 2006). This is also happening in tourism development in the cross-border area of the Balkans, especially between Croatia and Bosnia Herzegovina (Causevic & Lynch, 2013). Both regions are completely different in terms of economic issues, and the less developed in terms of tourism mistrusts the one that is more developed. This is very complex for cooperation or collaboration to occur and additionally, the planning and management of the resources are non-existent. In this case study, the authors (Causevic & Lynch, 2013) showed that cooperation exists, and was relatively easy to establish where both parties were allies during the conflict. So, in the specific case of the North West Bosnian Area and the National Park of Plitvices Lakes in Croatia, cooperation does exists, even though it is slow, and natural resources are managed. Another successful case is among three regions, two Croatian counties and one from Bosnia Herzegovina. Tourism is involved in all the successful cases of cooperation after the war in these territories. As demonstrated by Causevic and Lynch (2013), emotions still play an important role in getting people to cooperate and that is the main reason explaining why sometimes cooperation is achieved but not as yet collaboration. Similar problems were also found in the case study presented by Guo et al. (2012) with regard to Taiwan and the People's Republic of China, where tourism flows are mainly based only in one direction, from Taiwan to the People's Republic of China and not the other way around, especially since 1995 when Taiwan started to apply a different agreement. Since that moment, mainland China distrusted this because it is as if their agreement of "no independence no problems" was cut (Guo et al., 2012). Another issue is that the People's Republic of China only allows the entrance of Taiwanese tourists if they are visiting relatives or friends.

Another case, previously mentioned, involves three different countries, Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia. They were thinking about the possibility of investing in marketing and promotion, promoting themselves as one destination, Indo-China, to save costs and boost their image. According to Heung and Leung (1998), the creation of a consortium will increase opportunities to attract new customers for the three destinations and that will be easier if they cooperate instead of compete. Along the same lines, according to Tosun et al. (2005), cooperating and collaborating among neighboring countries would allow overseas tourists to visit both countries as they have traveled such long distances. So, promoting cross-border countries as complementary destinations will be very useful to attract foreign tourists.

Due to the very good collaboration among public administrative bodies, a unique cross-border golf course exists in the Bothnian Arc destination. Ioannides et al. (2006) explain the creation of the cross-border golf course in the Bothnian Arc destination, as a result of a very solid collaboration among public administrations. But collaboration is not on the same level when talking about the private bodies involved in the destination. Differences between the nature of companies on both sides of the border, and also the similarities in the product offered and the target market, which is generally domestic, mean that the majority of them do not see opportunities if they are not in competition (Anastasiadou & de Sausmarez, 2006; Ioannides et al., 2006).

From these examples, it seems that in reference to national parks (Hewllet et al., 2004; Timothy, 1999), golf courses (Ioannides et al., 2006), natural resources (Greer, 2002) or enclaves (Blasco et al., 2014b; Worthington & Sedakat, 2005), collaboration seems to be easier to achieve. These natural resources or the specific enclave or a specific cross-border golf course are easier to manage in terms of regulations and policies, because in the end, these spaces or spots somehow become like third spaces, so the only thing needed is to lose power or sovereignty and decide who will lose what to the benefit of another party in a very specific piece of land, or area. The purpose of highlighting that is that in these examples the framework is very well marked, or, using border language, delimited or demarcated. It is as if these areas were an oasis, and as its condition is unique, somehow decisions are easier to take from both sides. In the end, both parties can see the benefits of this mutual collaboration. However, in cases where the cross-border area is not situated in a natural park or is not based on natural resources, collaboration and cooperation seem to be more difficult to achieve. Perhaps one reason might be that there are more stakeholders involved in the process and competition is higher, or these stakeholders are very different from each other (Ioannides et al., 2006).

2.1.3 Tourism development

Tourism development has been seen as a good opportunity for cross-border areas to increase the economy of the peripheral regions and areas. As seen in the first chapter, tourism development differs from one area to another. Again, what is important in developing tourism or another economic activity is the degree of contact between both sides, and especially if both sides are in the stage of cooperation or collaboration. It has been demonstrated that these topics are closely related and it is this overlapping that we referred to when presenting the topics chosen for the analysis.

In the case study of Niagara Falls, studied by Jayawardena et al. (2008), developing a binational tourism plan in this cross-border area can be very difficult due to the existing competition among all the stakeholders and agents. The main barriers included (i) border crossing and traffic gridlock problems; (ii) lack of sufficient long-term funding for cross-border initiatives; (iii) lack of properly trained human resources; (iv) insufficient tourism research; and (v) ongoing bitter competition between industry partners. The researchers ended with these five barriers for binational tourism and tourism development in the region, along the same lines as Gradus (2001) when saying that proximity alone is not enough for success in binational tourism. Thus, the Bi-national Tourism Alliance (BTA) was form in 2004 (Stewart et al., 2008). The most important goal for this organization is to eliminate the barriers to cross-border tourism development simultaneously and on both sides of the border, while increasing prosperity, sustainability and quality of life (Stewart et al., 2008). So, the goals seem to be clear, but for other authors these had not been achieved. Reading these arguments presented by different authors for the creation of bilateral agreements, it is not strange to recall that a similar problematic appeared in regard to cooperation issues. Finally, what is lacking for the creation of bilateral agreements is actually the same that is lacking for cooperation to occur (Blasco et al., 2014a; Hewllet et al., 2004; Timothy, 1999).

The creation of bilateral agreements is a point to start, and is present in different cases (Brooker & Burgess, 2008; Jawaderna et al., 2008; Szivás, 2005; Tirasatayapitak & Laws, 2003; Worthington & Sedakat, 2005) as a recommendation or an example to follow in cross-border areas.

The relationships between other disciplines have also arisen in terms of tourism development, such as the contact between host and tourists, in economic aspects or in terms of policies or laws – regulations, normative rules, special legislation or regulations for cross-border areas – and may even be interregional, supranational or at an international level. In the end, tourism can be understood as an encounter with the other. Living the tourist experience necessarily allows you to discover different territories, cultures, areas and their people, so the delimitations of what is different, what Sofield (2006) called *us and them*, acquires another perspective, because while tourists are visiting they are becoming the *them*. The very fact of seeking new knowledge of an area gives you more knowledge about the area you are visiting and the history behind it.

Allowing visits to the DMZ between North and South Korea makes tourists more knowledgeable, not only about the differences on both sides, but also regarding their similarities, and this is what should be promoted along with visiting the cross-border areas. Allowing mobility between borders, as also in the Cyprus case, is to smooth things over and break the psychological borders between us and them, because contact promotes mutual knowledge among communities (Timothy & Kim, 2013). Tourism development at these attractions may constitute an important contribution in terms of awareness and education that could help in strengthening relations of peace and cooperation in places that in the past suffered from a closed and hostile border. By examining the development of intensive tourism at selected border tourism sites, much can be learned about the development of border attractions elsewhere (Gelbman & Timothy, 2010).

The case of Mt. Kumgang in North Korea, which permits the visit of South Korean tourists, is a good example of mutual understanding. At the resort, people from the north meet people from the south thus they recognize their common past and history and so peace is developed. It also gives them the opportunity to meet relatives from the other side. This resort, which was closed in 2008 after an accident, promoted mutual understanding and provided a mutual space for people to encounter one another. The authors interviewed a sample of Southern Korean tourists returning from the resort with two objectives: to identify the motives for visiting Mt. Kumgang and to identify how the experience has contributed to achieving peace. The aim of the first objective was to determine whether travel to Mt. Kumgang was for tourism reasons or alternatively to explicitly learn about the North (Kim et al., 2007).

2.1.4 Political issues

Political issues are very important when dealing with borders, because, as already mentioned, in the end borders are created the majority of times due to political decisions or issues, or after political, religious or ethnic confrontations or disputes, and this has been the case since the very beginning of history. For Jones (1945), besides natural borders, rivers, mountains and valleys, the rest of the borders have been created by human beings, generally to delimit or demarcate the territories of nation-states.

More recently, the terrorist attacks known as 9/11 affected and changed the process of border crossing. This argument is presented in some of the articles investigated (Timothy, 2006; Timothy & Tosun, 2003). We can relate that to the fact that in the end, borders are more mental than physical. Knowledge and understanding of others is the best scenario. Also it is a must when we are talking about tourism, because international tourists necessarily cross borders when they are traveling (Timothy, 1995). So we should pay more attention to these external factors, which unfortunately the majority of the times are incontrollable, not planned and therefore difficult to manage.

For Park (2011), tourism can serve as an effective means of reinforcing the legitimacy of nationalist discourses and national identities. Both heritage and tourism can play an active role in politically reconstructing and reappropriating national memories (Guo et al., 2006). For Belahassen et al. (2014), it is clear that political tourism includes a broad spectrum of ways or manners, from cross-border activities of international organizations whose people travel around the world (Bianchi & Stephenson, 2013; Keck & Sikkink, 1998) to what Micheletti (2003) defines as political consumption, which is expressed as a consumer choice in its journeys (Belahassen et al., 2014). The study conducted by Belahassen et al. (2014) showed the essential blocks to considering a place as a political tourism site, demonstrating the potential role of tourism in an attempt to advance a political struggle.

2.1.5 The role of tourism in reconciliation and peace development

This subsection is closely connected to the former, as tourism development occurs along both sides of the border, including contacts with the other side, which can be host to tourists or among formal or informal agents. Necessarily these contacts improve relations between both sides, promoting tourism, and by these contacts peace development can start, even in countries in conflict; due to it, negotiations for a reunification can start. As has been seen, the majority of studies have shown that political issues are very important when developing tourism, and have a direct consequence in peace development.

Through the literature review we have also seen different case studies that analyzed these political issues through tourism development, and the majority of them conclude that tourism is not the result of peace, but rather a tool to achieve it (Belhassen et al., 2014; Boyd, 2000; Causevic & Lynch, 2013; Moufakkir, 2010), a beneficiary of it (Guo et al., 2006) or a tool for building better relations or strengthening them (Kim & Prideaux, 2003).

As has been shown in the research conducted by Boyd (2000) in the context of Ireland and Causevic and Lynch (2013) in the context of the Balkans war, political issues and law can have a direct and indirect impact on tourism development. Both case studies showed that after the signature of an agreement, the Good Friday Agreement for Ireland and the Dayton Peace Agreement for the Baltic regions, the former could develop tourism strategies and the other had more restrictions. The reason was that the agreement, and specifically one of its annexes, was considered by the Bosnian community as its constitution after the conflict (Boyd, 2000; Causevic & Lynch, 2013).

Cross-border tourism has been identified as a catalyst for promoting peace between politically conflicting nations and regions (Moufakkir, 2010). However, when cross-border tourism development is constrained by unstable political relations, visits to shared heritage sites could be an alternative suggestion for continuing cultural integration in partitioned nations (Park, 2011). Like the case of People's Republic of China and Taiwan, where despite all the things they may have to improve, at least they have arrived at an understanding and both promote their common cultural heritage through the figure of the Mother Ancestor phenomenon.

According to Gelbman and Timothy (2010), generally as long as a conflict has existed on a border, and this is that it is closed and isolated, once the conflict decreases and has disappear, it becomes more open and benevolent. This is what seems to be happening in Cyprus at the moment, where conversations about the reunification of the island are starting, and as has been seen since the opening of the cross-border points, more visitors have visited it (Su et al., 2014; Webster et al., 2009; Webster & Timothy, 2006).

Tourism can be seen as a tool to promote peace in conflict areas (Moufakkir, 2010). For Timothy (2001), peace is not the final output; instead, it is a tool to develop tourism and understanding through tourism. As mentioned before, most tourism attractions are based on or are near borders. Sometimes borders are tourist attractions in themselves, and they can be a constant remainder of what happened before the conflict, or what is still happening between these two borders (Boyd, 1999, 2000; Ioannides et al., 2006; Gelbman, 2008; Gelbman and Timothy, 2010, 2011; Timothy, 1999).

The Kumgang Mountain and its resort were created for income-producing purposes. Yet in the end, this project was very useful to promote peaceful relations between South and North Korea (Park, 2011). Another case study is the one conducted by Timothy and Kim (2013), who analyzed tourism flows in the East Asia region, examining the existing relations through tourism between South Korea and China. However, as Prideaux (2005) pointed out, only examining economic models and tourism flows is not enough to understand tourism relations, because sociocultural and political realities need to be taken into consideration. The literature has demonstrated that even in politically divided countries, cross-border tourism can contribute, with the contact of person-to-person interchange, to dissipating tensions (Timothy & Kim, 2013) or even achieving closure regarding traumatic life events, which leads to an understanding (Webster & Timothy, 2006).

This idea of tourism as a means for international understanding and unity stems from the belief that contact between hosts and guests causes empathy and appreciation among people and cultures (Lee et al., 2012), and that cross-border tourism might contribute to dissipating tensions and promoting the normalization of relations (Timothy & Kim, 2013). Also, by increasing tourism flows, in the main these contacts can help to decrease tensions and have an influence on politics and international relations (Prideaux, 2005). Tourism can create a feeling of goodwill and influence governmental exchanges, which eventually result in a more peaceful political climate (Lee et al., 2012). Whereas, when a situation is very dependent on political decisions and multilateral or bilateral agreements, if international political relations change, tourism is very affected by these new relationships (Timothy & Kim, 2013).

Some authors and some case studies present cross-border tourism as a tool for cross-border partnerships for cooperation in a peaceful environment, for instance the creation of a natural park between the United States and Canada to remind people of the peace between the countries, or for the maintenance of a ceasefire settlement or avoidance of terrorist acts (Greer, 2002; Timothy, 1999). That could be an example to follow for Cyprus, where the creation of a partnership between both tourism boards could be an opportunity to promote understanding between both communities, and to use tourism as a facilitator of peace, to assist with the reunification (Kim et al., 2007). Following this argument, this suggests a dynamic process, an evolutionary one, where the premise is that the higher the frequency of tourism between disputing countries or cross-border areas, the more conditions are likely to encourage peace, and if that is the case, eventual unification (Kim et al., 2007). So, as Moufakkir (2010) asserts, tourism can effectively generate and promote peace.

2.1.6 Shopping

As for the form of travel to a cross-border area, it is thought that a specific section related to shopping was needed due to the fact that the majority of studies in cross-border areas have shopping as the main focus of their study (Baláž & Williams, 2005; DiMatteo & DiMatteo, 1996; Timothy & Tosun, 2003) or understand that cross-border tourism involves shopping for souvenirs (Timothy & Butler, 1995), shopping because of lower prices (Dávila et al., 1999) or for a dining experience (Lord et al., 2004), so that shopping can be the main motivation for a cross-border trip (Timothy & Butler, 1995). According to Leimbruger (1991), for cross-border shopping four prerequisites have to exist: (i) existence of contrast between home and cross-border country; (ii) information about the purchase opportunities across the border; (iii) ability and willingness to travel across the border; and (iv) freedom to cross the border.

The setting for shopping has been more oriented to leisure. Also modern trends are changing and nowadays we do not buy only out of necessity; shopping is a leisure activity too so that we can also see it as a hedonistic activity, and as a motivation for a cross-border trip (Timothy & Butler, 1995). Border crossings, then, can have multiple purposes, and a single trip can encompass different objectives (Baláž & Williams, 2005).The discussion has focused on shopping as part of tourism, rather than as a primary reason for tourism. For Getz (1993), the planning of tourism shopping villages as tourism attractions, and duty-free shopping centers in all airports, are enough evidence of the propensity of tourists to purchase goods during their travels. For academics like Jansen-Verbeke (1990), the best indicator with respect to the leisure aspect of shopping lies in knowing the buyer's place of residence and the distance traveled to the shopping area. She asserts that the further one travels, the more likely it is that the visit is leisure based in nature, but, as Timothy and Butler (1995) said in their research conducted on the same border between Canada and the United States, crossing it is very easy, predominantly by car. Jansen-Varbeke (1990) differentiated in her study two other types of cross-border shoppers: those who do not live close to the border and shop while on a specific US vacation, and those who shop by mail. For other authors, such as Lord et al. (2004), variation in exchange rates has also been associated with marked shifts in cross-border transactions, generated by the way borders separated different economic systems. Shopping across international frontiers is an expression of the alternative economic systems that exist – to varying degrees – in all economies. Hence, goods can be brought across frontiers through formal interfirm trade or carried in suitcases by individuals (Baláž & Williams, 2005). Economic and non-price variables have been found to influence cross-border shopping, but in some cases, as Worthington and Sedakat (2005) identified, cross-border shopping is one of the commonest forms, largely driven by significant price differentials, and helps to increase the consumption of foreign goods and services (Davila et al., 1999). For Lord et al. (2004), a similar thing can occur when looking for a dining experience, so the same factors are expected to influence cross-border dining, which is susceptible to affective motivations. Consumers in general search for variety in restaurants, music or leisure activities without taking into consideration whether or not the products are familiar (Lord et al., 2004). For them, a more subjective or hedonistic category of influence is a pleasure, leisure or recreational shopping motive.

Tourism to visit friends and relatives also can be a constituent of regular cross-border flows (Baláž & Williams, 2005) and can be considered also as a motivation for cross-border tourism.

As has been seen, people travel and cross borders for different purposes, which necessarily involves some mobility along borders. Besides solving or sorting out all the obstacles or barriers, there are other specific aspects regarding mobility along borders that have to be presented.

To finalize this chapter, a special mention of those quantitative studies using the lens of demand ought to be considered. While the same topics are not covered in all of them, what they share is the focus on demand in a cross-border area, in conflict, which is of great importance for this thesis. That is why this subsection will be termed the demand approach.

2.1.7 The demand approach

As mentioned before, there is little evidence found in the literature with regard to cross-border areas or destinations in consumer behavior studies. After the review of the high impact factor journals, three articles have appeared in the cross-border area that focus on demand (Kim et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2012). The study conducted by Kim et al. (2007) analyzes tourism to promote peace between North and South Korea through the motivations and perceptions of tourists returning to the tour in the Mt. Kumgamg resort. Lee et al. (2012) analyze the drivers that led to the behavioral intentions of those South Korean tourists visiting the resort in the North. Blasco et al. (2014a) follow the patterns of tourists visiting the Pyrenees, consuming the space without taking into consideration the regional borders. Thanks to this study, they suggested the creation of new tourist zones in the cross-border area, and that cooperation and collaboration between both parties is necessary, as presented in the sections under these names already.

On the other hand, studies such as Lee et al. (2007) or Lee et al. (2012) inspired us to analyze the cross-border area of Nicosia from the consumer behavior perspective, analyzing the drivers that led tourists to their willingness to recommend the area to friends and relatives.

Lee et al. (2007) analyzed a tour of tourists visiting the DMZ area between North and South Korea. In this study, they analyzed the relationships among perceived value, satisfaction and the behavioral intentions of those tourists participating in the tour. Results showed that perceived value was an antecedent of satisfaction and also contributed indirectly to the willingness to recommend and the willingness to revisit. Later, a few of these researchers, among others (Lee et al., 2012), went one step further and analyzed the perceived value, satisfaction, motivation and behavioral intentions of tourists visiting the Mt. Kumgang Resort, where contact between people was allowed, in contrast to the previous study conducted by Lee et al. (2007), where the participants were not allowed to leave the bus while they were on the tour at the DMZ.

The study conducted by Lee et al. (2012) was also conducted in Korea and was focused on the relations among North and South Koreans. Analyzing the perceived value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions of those tourists visiting the Mt. Kumgang resort was also important in terms of contacts and peace development. As the authors conclude in their research, one of the aims of the study was to identify whether the contacts that were happening in this resort were important in terms of achieving peace through the recognition of each other, and through the recognition of each other's history. This research is also going further in terms of consumer behavior studies, because it relates to the behavioral intentions of those tourists with the intention of recommending the area in a specific form of tourism development.

Also, they have considered this cross-border space as a unique and perfect representation of an idealized Korean space, in harmony and unity (Lee et al., 2012). Supporting future tourism development in this specific place was supporting peace development and the understanding of others through their sense of Koreanness.

Results showed that perceived value has a positive relation with satisfaction, with the emotional factor being the important dimension predictor explaining satisfaction. Satisfaction is also a predictor of willingness to recommend and willingness to revisit. The authors in turn also analyzed the relationship among these behavioral intentions, with support for further tourism development showing a positive correlation.

In 2008 an incident occurred in the resort when a person was shot and the resort was closed. This did not leave the opportunity for the authors or other researchers to prove or compare their results.

For us, following in the footsteps of Lee et al. (2007, 2012) is very important in terms of analyzing borders from another perspective, the demand one. As seen in this entire chapter, only a few studies have analyzed cross-border tourism from the demand perspective and using a quantitative or mixed methodology. This is a gap that we identified and to which we wanted to contribute with our study in the cross-border area of Nicosia, a well-known destination as a sun and beach resort, but focusing on the cross-border area, in the last divided city in Europe, its capital Nicosia.

Kim et al. (2007) conducted a study based on using tourism to promote peace on the Korean peninsula. This study has been included in the category of tourism promoting peace, but also is in this specific subsection because it analyzed it through the consumer behavior approach. In this specific case study, the authors analyzed their motivation to be involved in the tour, and their perception of North Korea after visiting it. Perception items are related to the perception of the other side, and also with regard to the perception of the others after having the tour experience.

The classification of those peer-reviewed papers has been useful to identify the volume of studies which focus on the main topics included in the six main categories, and the unbalance research from the demand perspective.

After this analysis we have concluded that little evidence exists in studies of consumer behavior in cross-border destinations. Unquestionably, the level of research interest on the tourist's behavior intentions to the cross-border area is insufficient and further research would be of great value. In our specific case study, Cyprus, evidence is found in studies but conducted only on one side of the island. The one conducted by Yoon and Uysal (2005) analyzing hotels on the northern side and others analyzing sustainable tourism development on the south (Farmaki, 2015, Farmaki et al., 2015). Evidence from studying the behavior of Cypriot residents in the cross-border area of Nicosia has been found (Webster & Timothy, 2006), but it does not analyze the behavior of those tourists visiting the area.

Studies conducted in the island, mainly were based in one side or the other, but little evidence was found in studies conducted in the cross-border area which were focused on tourism. When the cross-border area was open, studies based on residents were conducted but not with tourists. With the increasing importance of cross-border areas and due to the lack of studies analyzing tourist behavior in this particular cross-border area, led us to conduct our research on the cross-border area of Nicosia, the last divided city in Europe.

3 THEORETICAL APPROACH

In this chapter, as mentioned in the introduction to the thesis, the theoretical and rational approach of the proposed model will be presented. It will develop the conceptual framework based on the consumer behavior literature, which has demonstrated the relationship attitude-intention (Azjen, 1991)

As seen at the end of Chapter 2, there are a lack of studies analyzing cross-border areas from the consumer behavior approach or perspective, and that is one of the aims of this thesis. Thanks to this review, we can prove that research in cross-border areas is not based on the demand side.

In this chapter constructs will be presented, as well as the rationale that led us to include them in the proposed model that will be tested in this PhD. The first construct presented will be the so-called behavioral intentions, followed by satisfaction, perceived value, perceived crowding, sensation-seeking, and the last covered will be the expectation that will moderate the whole relationship of the proposed model.

3.1 BEHAVIORAL INTENTIONS

Loyal guests are more likely to recommend and speak positively about a product, service or destination to friends and relatives, compared to those who are not loyal (Shoemaker & Lewis, 1999). In addition, retaining customers often implies lower costs than attracting new ones, so loyalty is a key component in the viability of companies, organizations and tourism destinations (Chen & Chen, 2010).

Satisfaction and loyalty are intrinsically connected, despite their asymmetric relationship. Although almost all consumers are or can be satisfied, satisfaction does not translate into more loyalty. For Stewart (1997), satisfaction and loyalty cannot go separately, they travel together, but that is simply incorrect for other authors, who believe that in order to appear loyal it is not enough to have satisfaction (Reichheld, 1996). Oliver (1981) analyzed which aspects of satisfaction have implications for loyalty and in which proportion the later answers apply to the satisfaction component, concluding that satisfaction is a necessary step towards loyalty, but may be less significant if achieved through other mechanisms.

Based on previous studies from Jacoby and Chestnut (1978) where the psychological concept of loyalty detected the beliefs, the affection and the intention in traditional attitudes of consumers, Oliver (1999), following the cognitive-affective-conative pattern, concludes that consumers may be loyal in each of these attitudinal phases in reference to different elements of the structure of the development of the attitude. In other words, loyal consumers were first loyal in a cognitive sense (rational), then in an affective sense (emotional), and then in a conative sense, prior ultimately to behavior referred to as inertia action, which are described as follows.

I. *Cognitive loyalty:* This is the first phase of loyalty. If there is no satisfaction then loyalty cannot exist. It is simply a repeat purchase, a routine transaction. This is the first stage, with loyalty being based on prior or indirect knowledge, a belief. It is viewed as a superficial stage of loyalty. If satisfaction is processed and is part of the experience, some emotional nuances are starting to be acquired that give way to the next stage: affective loyalty.

II. *Affective loyalty:* A taste or positive attitude has been developed through repetition. Commitment is codified in the mind of the consumer as in the cognitive state, while affection is also added. When one begins to establish a link, unlike in the initial stage it is more difficult to give up the product or service. Affective loyalty is equal to the level of affection (taste) felt for the product or service. Nonetheless, this is not a deep-seated level of loyalty, as many consumers switch from a product/service even if they acknowledge that they are satisfied with it.

III. *Conative loyalty:* This loyalty involves behavioral intention. The conative stage is influenced by repeated affective episodes (in the second stage). The definition of connation implies a specific commitment to repurchase. Conative loyalty is, then, the stage of loyalty that includes what would seem to be a deep-seated purchasing commitment. All the same, this commitment translates into repurchasing, and is more similar to motivation. It may resemble or be similar to any positive intention, as it could be an anticipated desire that is not realized. As a result, one must arrive at a further stage.

IV. *Loyalty of action:* Khul and Beckmann (1985) define this as the study of the mechanisms by means of which intentions become actions. This is known as action control. The intentions covered by a conative stage are transformed into a willingness to act. Action is perceived as a result necessary for participation.

There is a debate as to the weaknesses of loyalty, one of the main obstacles being the very idiosyncrasy of consumers. Consumers are always seeking out new products, new challenges and new experiences – this constant quest makes it difficult to arrive at the fourth stage proposed by Oliver (1999): that of action. Another obstacle to loyalty is the change in the needs of consumers. Cognitive loyalty based on information faces more obstacles on the part of competitors, and can be broken down by price, characteristics and so on. As for affective loyalty, its vulnerability lies at the point at which consumers change their taste preferences, for example because they have matured and taken an interest in another type of product. Conative loyalty is vulnerable through the counteraction of the persuasive messages of the competition. These weaknesses establish the importance of affective loyalty in order for a consumer to achieve true loyalty. According to Forgas, Moliner, Sanchez and Palau (2011), the path of loyalty is more visible in the attitude than in the behavior. In line with that argument, previous studies on travel behavior indicated that tourists' behavior is a continuous process that includes varied yet intercorrelated states (Mill & Morrison, 2002). In fact, authors such as Yoon and Uysal (2005) indicate that the final stage of loyalty is insufficient in explaining loyalty to a tourism destination because it does not explain why tourists may return or recommend the destination. There are numerous research studies in this regard involving tourism destinations, which hold that the measures required in order to evaluate loyalty at a destination are intention to return and recommendation to friends and family (Chen & Tsai, 2007; Chi & Qu, 2008; Yoon & Uysal, 2005). Favorable behavioral intentions frequently represent the conative stage of loyalty (Chen & Chen, 2010) and are defined as the degree to which a person has formulated a conscious plan to perform or not perform some future behavior or one specific future behavior (Warshaw & Davis, 1985). In fact, the degree of destination loyalty is frequently reflected in tourists' intentions to revisit, promotion via word of mouth and willingness to recommend (Chen, Lee, Chen & Huang, 2011) as specific forms of behavioral intentions. Loyalty as an attitude implies that tourists have positive attitudes towards a destination and behavioral loyalty is indicated by repeated purchase intentions and word of mouth (Prayag, 2008). Inciting favorable behavioral intentions is also relevant for tourist stakeholders when referring to tourism attractions, as in the case of border sites, many of which have become tourism attractions with large numbers of visitors (Gelbman, 2008; Timothy, 1999, 2001, 2006; Webster & Timothy, 2006; Webster et al., 2009).

Also, there are numerous studies in tourism destinations which consider that the adequate measures of loyalty to a destination are willingness to return and recommendation to friends and relatives, the so-called word of mouth. Academics have discussed the behavioral intentions of trip quality (Chen & Tsai, 2007), of a coastal wellness resort (Chi & Qu, 2008; Yuksel, Yuksel & Bilim, 2010), of a coastal destination (Yoon & Uysal, 2005), of tourists to an urban destination (Forgas-Coll, Palau-Saumell, Sánchez-García & Callarisa-Fiol, 2012) and of tourists on tour visiting the DMZ (Lee et al., 2007).

This study focuses on word of mouth, saying positive things about the destination to others, willingness to recommend to relatives or friends the destination or the area, and willingness to revisit the area in the future (Chen et al., 2011) as specific forms of behavioral intentions.

3.2 SATISFACTION

Satisfaction is viewed as the precursor of loyalty. This is an overall evaluation of the expectations created previously in accordance with the expectations/disconfirmation theory proposed by Oliver (1981), arguing that satisfaction is the end result experienced by consumers as a result of sensations between the disconfirmation of expectations and feelings prior to the consumption experience.

Satisfaction depends on experience of using the product or consuming the service, and so is positioned within the post-purchase context. It could be described as a comparison between the outcome and the prior expectations (Parasuraman, 1997; Ravald & Grönroos, 1996). Satisfaction can also be defined as the degree to which one believes that experience evokes positive feelings (Rust & Oliver, 1994). Hunt (1977) also argues that satisfaction is not in itself pleasant thing to experience, if the evaluation we have of that experience has been at least as good as we expected.

It is widely accepted that satisfaction is an evaluation of the post-purchase and post-consumption stage (Hunt, 1977, Oliver, 1981). Satisfaction depends on the experience of using the product, or consuming the service. For that reason, it is situated in the post-purchase context. It can be described as a comparison between the outcome and the previous expectations. Parasuraman (1977) and Ravald and Grönroos (1996) define it as a comparison between the value of the expectations (before) and the value after the consumption (after). Satisfaction has been treated as a one-dimensional construct varying through the continuum of satisfaction–dissatisfaction.

Satisfaction has been measured using tourists' evaluations as the sum of the entire destination's attributes (Kozak, 2003), which is a subjective judgment. This measure can be taken as an evaluation of performance quality, where tourists not only are satisfied with the experience, they are also satisfied with how they felt in the destination (Um, Chon & Ro, 2006) and are also satisfied with how they felt during the consumption of the service (Baker & Crompton, 2000), so can be evaluated after consuming the experience (Um et al., 2006). Therefore, satisfaction is an effective general answer due to the use of the resources and services in the destination. Overall satisfaction is a broader concept, which includes the evaluation of the accumulated experiences, the expectations, the shopping and the consumption of the experience by tourists (Andreasen, 1995). Hence, it is believed that each service encounter in the destination is a function of satisfaction. So, global satisfaction is a holistic impression after the consumption of the holiday or the visit (Fornell, 1992). A unique measure for overall satisfaction can also be used (Prayag, 2009). Then, satisfaction is a result as well as a process, and can be defined as those benefits or results that people experience with the outcome of a visit (Crompton, 1979, Um et al., 2006). An individual's overall satisfaction with a destination can be seen as the equivalent to a subjective evaluation of a previous experience of the same destination (Huang & Hsu, 2009). Then, overall satisfaction with a destination can be a good praxis for the subjective and qualitative evaluation of a previous experience.

Earlier studies on consumer behavior identified two types of satisfaction: transaction-specific and overall. Transaction-specific satisfaction is defined as satisfaction with a specific service encounter, while overall satisfaction is a consumer's positive evaluation of an accumulation of experiences with a provider of products or services (Bitner & Hubbert, 1994), up to a certain date (Johnson & Fornell, 1991). For Oliver (1981) it is a necessity, much like a fulfilling pleasure. Consumers feel that when they are consuming they are fulfilling a necessity, a desire, or simply obtaining pleasure.

Overall satisfaction measures the overall response to the entire experience or the overall evaluation of the consumption experience during the visit (Johnson, Anderson & Fornell, 1995). Overall satisfaction is adopted in this research because cross-border tourists' satisfaction is derived from an overall evaluation of the entire experience of tourists, as in this case of their trip to the Green Line.

While satisfaction has an asymmetric relationship with loyalty – that is, more satisfaction does not mean a proportional increase of loyalty and therefore intention to return (Bowen & Chen, 2001) – it is proven in the research on tourist destinations that there is a direct and positive relationship between satisfaction and loyalty (Lee et al., 2007; Yoon & Uysal, 2005; Zabkar, Brencic & Dmitrovic, 2010).

The relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions has been widely tested in the literature on tourism to urban destinations (Forgas-Coll et al., 2012), to coastal destinations (Hernández-Lobato, Solís-Radilla, Moliner-Tena & Sánchez-García, 2006; Yoon

& Uysal, 2005), to festivals (Lee, Lee & Choi, 2011, Huang & Hsu, 2009 [with a multidestination approach in four different destinations]; Yuan & Jang, 2008; Zabkar et al., 2010). However, to date there has been little evidence of these relationships in the context of cross-border tourism (Lee et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2012). Thus, based on these empirical studies and the lack of research in the cross-border tourism literature, we hypothesize that:

H1: Cross-border tourists' satisfaction directly and positively influences their behavioral intentions

3.3 VALUE

Value creation has been amply argued and often is part of the mission and the main goals of organizations and companies. For many academics, it is the key to success in the long term (Sweeney & Soutar, 2001) as well as the essential outcome of marketing activities and the main element of a company's relations (Dumond, 2000; Oh 2003; Peterson, 1995; Ravald & Grönroos, 1996). Studies regarding value have been based in the field of sales (shops) where consumers evaluate the product before they buy it (Albrecht, 1992, Sweeney & Soutar, 2001). In tourism services, this is not possible and the evaluation necessarily has to be done after living the experience or consuming the tourism product (Hunt, 1977; Oliver, 1999). As already mentioned, the conceptualization of value in the tourism field has to be an evaluation post purchase or post consumption of the service. Woodruff (1997) suggests that a consumer can perceive value in a different way in the different stages of a purchase, before, during or after.

One accepted perspective of the perceived value of the consumer is the one proposed by Zeithaml (1988). She argues that value is measured as a trade-off between the benefits and sacrifices that a consumer obtains and makes. It is a functional and utilitarian perspective where the construct of value is measured like the ratio between benefits and costs. Both parties in the transaction feel better, because both received something useful (Chang & Wildt, 1994; Zeithaml, 1988). On the contrary, several authors or researchers have started to question the analysis of perceived value as a dichotomy between quality and price. And now they see that in value there are other important variables with roles such as emotional value, social value and novelty value. This is because the consumption of tourism services includes a complex mix of functional components, objectives and tangibles, and also subjective, hedonistic, emotional and symbolic components (Forgas et al., 2011; Sánchez, Callarisa, Rodríguez & Moliner, 2006; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Williams

& Soutar, 2009). For Schechter (1984), viewing the perceived value in its functional dimension could be very simplistic for the tourist experiences. Better understanding the sociopsychological dimensions can help stakeholders to better identify their target market. Mackay (1999) pointed out that the attractiveness of a product or service combines perfectly the rational and emotional factors. Even in some purchases emotions have a key role in the decision, as purchases can be totally emotional. The variability of the perceived value makes it difficult to arrive at a consensus definition. The concept has been conceptualized as the utility of the consumer, as the perceived benefits in relation to a sacrifice, as a psychological price, as its worth and as quality (Woodruff, 1997).

Therefore, and to sum up, there are two approaches to conceptualizing value. The first approach sees value as a bidimensional construct: benefits obtained economics, social and relational, and sacrifices made, price, effort, risk and convenience (Cronin, Brady & Hulf, 2000). The pioneer in the bidimensional approach is Zeithaml (1988) when she says that perceived value is the general evaluation that a consumer makes of the utility of the product based on the perception of what is given and what is received, dividing value into four dimensions: (i) low price; (ii) anything that I want in the product; (iii) quality received for the priced paid; and (iv) what I received for what I was given. Grewal, Monroe and Krishnan (1998) followed Zeithaml's conceptualization and defined value as the utility gained for the use or consumption of the product, and redemption as a residual prize at the final lifespan of the product or finishing the service. Sweeney and Soutar (2001) develop further the concept according to the second approach, which is multidimensional. This has gained importance in the literature review, because researchers can turn from the economic utility of value, with a lot of weight. In this approach, emotions and feelings have more importance in consumer behavior. In the tourism field, the emotional dimension is very important. Tourism activities need to use feelings, fantasies and emotions in order to explain how consumers behave when they are buying. Many products have a symbolic meaning, besides tangible attributes, quality perceived or price (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986). The experience of buying a tourism service is important to increase the level of satisfaction, but also for understanding the construct of perceived value. Consumer behavior has generally been studied from a rational perspective.

In a cross-border destination, tourist perception will depend on the degree of sociocultural similarities between both sides of the border (Donnan & Wilson 1999; Ilbery et al., 2007; Perkmann, 2003; Timothy, 1999; Tosun et al., 2005), because not having contact or not being in contact with the border makes people have a different perception (Leimbruger, 1991). There are several authors who suggest that people do not cross borders because of fear. Fear is a feeling of danger or the sense of losing control and can be grounded in past experiences, in ignorance, because of differences in culture or due to the law (Budd, 1990). Ryden (1993) suggests that a border implies a transition between real experiences, which are lines between life and life lived in another place (Sofield, 2006). And this is what people fear. As to the psychological component of fear, we have to add the subjective environmental concept from the Gestalt discipline, which suggests that people with different cultures live the objective environment in different ways (Kirk, Lösch & Berlin, 1963). If we add the experience to the value, it seems that value seen as a cognitive (rational) variable is partial, because the affective component is missing. If we understand value as a relationship between giving and receiving (benefits/sacrifices), the affective variables also have to enter into the equation. Emotional benefits may affect the choice between instrumental alternatives, which are the equivalent to the functional part in other aspects (Havlena & Holbrook, 1986). With that, it has been demonstrated that value is a dynamic variable and not a static one. The experience after the consumption of these services necessarily includes the subjective or emotional reactions of consumers (Bolton & Drew, 1991, Havlena & Holbrook, 1986).

In regard to emotions, Havlena and Holbrook (1986) demonstrated that the hedonistic component or the emotional is important in the purchase experience. All this previous research meant that Shet, Newman and Gross (1991) created the first multidimensional proposal for value, describing it with five dimensions – functional, emotional, social, epistemic and conditional – specifically related to the perceived utility of the choice. For them, value is created through attributes such as viability, durability and price. The first two are attributes generally related to quality in relation to price, quality being the positive variable and price the negative one. In that sense and related to destinations, Cooper and Hall (2008) argued that in a destination there exist different functional elements such as accommodation, transport (local), access to places, shops, restaurants, activities, services, tourism offices, theme parks, casinos and national parks. Ritchie and Crouch (2003) divided infrastructure into general and basic following Cooper and Hall’s (2008) argument; for them general infrastructure is that related to public services of the administration. Previously, Laws (1995) made a division between primary and secondary characteristics, where the primary are intrinsic – climate, ecology, landscape – and secondary are introduced and developed especially for tourism and which are the same categorized by Cooper and Hall (2008).

For Chen and Tsai (2007), the destination is important for tourist behavior because it determines the behaviors after living the experience, in the moment of evaluating it (satisfaction) and in the behavior of future intentions (word of mouth and willingness to recommend it). In this regard, recent research considers value as a multidimensional construct that has a functional component, but it also has emotional and social components, and that permits it to overcome excessive concentration on the economic utilities of a product or a service. In addition, new theoretical advances in consumer behavior, specifically sensations, feelings and emotions in buying behavior and consumption, are added to the discussion (Forgas et al., 2011).

One of the most relevant contributions to the multidimensionality of this construct is by Sweeney and Soutar (2001), who, after reviewing Shet et al. (1991), defined value as multidimensional value that comprises the functional, the emotional and the social value of a product. In order to measure it, they created a measurement scale called PERVAL, tested in a retail context and applicable in situations of pre- and post-purchase. Their study showed that the multidimensionality of value explains consumer choice in more depth statistically and qualitatively, rather than the simple dimension of value for money. Dimensions in the PERVAL scale indicated that consumers evaluate the touristic experience from a functional perspective – quality, price, product versatility and performance – from the emotional perspective – in what way or how I enjoyed the product – and from the perspective of social value – what consumption of this product can communicate to others. To sum up, the detail of the dimensions is as follows: (i) functional value comprises (a) quality defined as the utility derived from the perceived quality and the performance expected of the product or service and (b) functional value or price; (ii) emotional value is defined as the utility derived from the feelings or affective states that a product or service generates; and (iii) social value is the utility derived from the capacity of the product or service to increase the social self-concept. The use of the PERVAL scale also demonstrates that the multidimensionality of value better explains the purchase decisions of consumers, because they evaluate products and services from the functional perspective – quality, price and functionality – from the emotional perspective –pleasure, the enjoyment they obtain from consuming this product or service – and the social perspective, the social recognition or what they are communicating to others in buying the product or the service. Later on, Williams and Soutar (2009) added a new dimension to the PERVAL scale, in a context of tourism adventure, the novelty of the activity.

Sánchez et al. (2006), based on the contributions of Sweeney and Soutar (2001), conceptualized a multidimensional construct adapted to the tourism context and developed a new scale, the GLOVAL, with the following dimensions: functional value of facilities, functional value in relation to the professionalism of the staff, functional value of the product or service, functional value of the price, emotional value and social value. Later on, Forgas, Moliner, Sánchez and Palau (2010) and Forgas et al. (2011) complemented the scale by adding the non- monetary costs to the functional value, which consist in the non-monetary costs that tourists have to assume in order to consume the product or service (travel to the place, waiting time and pollution,etc.).

The non-monetary costs proposed by Forgas et al. (2011) adapted to the cross-border area could be related to the travel time spent to access the area. Other non-monetary costs are related to effort and time, such as language, religion or the necessity of using a different currency, or the fear of the unknown, or the perception of safety, which can be additional obstacles to crossing borders (Ioannides et al., 2006).

For our study, the perspective of perceived value refers to a consumer's overall evaluation of the difference between perceived benefits and sacrifices in a specific transaction (Zeithaml, 1988). This conceptualization adopts a relationship quality – price, orientation to consumer value, the ratio of benefits to costs, and give-up versus get-back (Gale, 1994). In sum, the literature on customer value has often considered good value to be a favorable match between quality and price (Chaudhuri & Ligas, 2009), meaning that while quality improves value, monetary and non-monetary efforts or sacrifices decrease it (Dodds, Monroe & Grewal 1991). Thus, customer value is a cognitive-based construct that captures discrepancies between benefits and sacrifices or costs (Yoon, Lee & Lee, 2010). In this sense, if cross-border areas want to attract tourists, they must create an attractive environment and cultivate in consumers the belief that their attractions are value for money (Lau et al., 2005).

Thus, in this investigation we define customer value as the overall evaluation that a tourist makes of the cross-border area, based on the perceived fit between the overall quality and price of the trip.

Perceived value is an antecedent of satisfaction and loyalty – if consumers are satisfied with the destination, it is probable that they will recommend it or return to it. Several studies assess that the relationship between value, satisfaction and loyalty is positive (Bajs, 2015; Cheng & Tsai, 2007; Cronin et al., 2000; Duman & Mattila, 2005; Forgas et al., 2010, 2011; Gallarza & Saura, 2006; Grönroos, 1997; Lee et al., 2007; Lee et al., 2011; McDougall & Levesque, 2000; Parasuraman & Grewall, 2000; Petrick & Backman, 2002; Sánchez et al., 2006; Sweeney & Soutar, 2001; Woodruff, 1997;). Therefore, based on the relationships obtained in studies in different contexts, it is hypothesized that:

H2: The value perceived by a cross-border tourist directly and positively influences their satisfaction.

H3: The value perceived by a cross-border tourist directly and positively influences their behavioral intentions.

3.4 PERCEIVED CROWDING

Perceived crowding can be defined as an emotional feeling of the consumer during the encounter, and it is referred to the subjective negative experience of certain levels of density (Hui & Bateson, 1991). The term is generally used to emphasize the subjectivity or the evaluative nature of the concept (Vaske & Shelby, 2008).

There is a certain confusion with the term crowding. It is for that reason that it should be a important field of research and management. Until now, experts have considered two main concepts, density and crowding, using both terms equally and thus creating some confusion. For Stokols (1972), density refers to the physical space, and its limitations (like restriction of movement and crowding) have to do with the experience, with what the individual feels and with their own perception of the limitations of the physical space. Therefore, we can consider that crowding includes the physical variable, limitation of space, and also the cognitive one, individual perception of the space, social and personal dimensions. Crowding seems to be juxtaposition between the density in which some social and personal circumstances sensitize to the individual perception for the possible restrictions that an individual can unfold in a limited space (Machleit et al., 2000). When the density in a physical space is restricted or interferes in the activities of those who are present, people perceive the space as full (Machleit et al., 2000) and this is perceived for the consumer as an unpleasant feeling (Noone & Mattila, 2009).

There are different theories in regard to crowding: (i) expectancy theory, expectations of being crowded or not; (ii) stimulus overload, with regard to urban crowding; and (iii) social interference, activities when visiting places.

Expectancy theory postulated that when people believe that a space is crowded, they are implicitly comparing the impact of their experience with the perception of what is standard for them (Vaske & Shelby, 2008). Shelby, Vaske and Heberlein (1989), in their comparative analysis, indicated that crowding varies in leisure places according to the time or season, depending on the availability of resources and their accessibility. Vaske, Donnelly and Lehto (2002) find differences in perceived crowding in diverse locations: in natural attractions compared with artificial ones, and also during the journey. A similar pattern was found also in the research conducted by Vaske and Donnelly (2001). It is probable that some group activities perceived more or less massification than others depending on their needs and expectations regarding a certain activity (Vaske et al., 2002; Vaske & Donnelly, 2001). Perceived crowding is a psychological construct that exist in individuals' minds, and that generally is measured with self-report techniques (Vaske & Shelby, 2008). Expectations and preferences are particularly important: when people during their encounters have worse conditions than they expect or they prefer, they tend to feel more crowded (Bultena, Albrecht, & Womble, 1981; Ditton, Fedler, & Graefe, 1983; Shelby, 1980; Shelby, Heberlein, Vaske & Alfano, 1983; Womble & Studebaker, 1981). Those visitors whose norms are not violated in these individuals' encounters by the real encounters also feel more crowded (Vaske & Donnelly, 2001; Vaske, Donnelly & Shelby, 1993).

Stimulus overload has its antecedents in urban sociological theories, which characterize areas by their size, their density and also their heterogeneity. Individuals can face many stimuli living in a high-density area, and they are forced to deal with many encounters, so they might be overwhelmed by that (Lee & Graefe, 2003; Schmidt & Keating, 1979). People feel crowded when they are overwhelmed because there are other visitors, or due to the environment of the area (Lee & Graefe, 2003). This approach is also considered more cognitive than focusing on behavioral constraints (Lee & Graefe, 2003). Individuals create certain strategies to overcome stimuli, because they are receiving many inputs, so using these strategies offers less exposure to them. And it also has to do with the fact that individuals cannot handle these stimuli, although these strategies are used to control them. Control can be understood in the sense that when people feel overwhelmed, too many unwanted, unfamiliar and uncontrolled interactions occur in social contacts (Andereck, 1989, quoted in Lee & Graefe, 2003) and that gives a sort of feeling of losing control (Bell, Fisher, Baum & Greene, 1990). Density creates cognitive interference. When individuals are not capable of dealing with it, which is when crowding appears (Schmidt & Keating, 1979).

For this approach, note that individuals determine or fix the optimal levels of stimulation. And by stimulus overload is understood the brake on the perceptual information process, which is why a feeling of being overwhelmed appears. A sense of uncertainty or loss of control is an important factor for the overload experience.

To sum up, different sizes, densities and heterogeneity of others affect visitors in that they are exposed to excessive levels of stress (Lee & Graefe, 2003). The most important factor is density rather than interactions or space.

Finally, social interference theory asserts that crowding is also defined as a negative evaluation of density that involves a value judgment about the number of individuals (Altman, 1975; Desor, 1972; Stokols, 1972). Crowding increases the level of stress associated with the environment. This causes the consumer to see a reduced propensity to engage in certain behaviors, related to spending more time at the site or spending more money (Noone & Mattilla, 2009).

Social interference theory emphasizes that the interference caused by crowd density influences the psychological objectives, motivating the behavior of individuals in that crowd (Gramann, 1982), and suggests that crowding occurs when the density levels interfere with the visitors' objectives and activities (Schmidt & Keating, 1979).

Social interference theory is more suitable for the object of our study when aligned with the findings of Hui & Bateson (1991), who identified negative relationships between crowding and customer emotions when the public perceives lack of control or excessive crowding in waiting areas.

Several crowding studies have demonstrated that crowding perception exercises a negative influence on consumers (Machleit et al., 2000), while in other research the influence is clearly found to be positive, fundamentally where the utility sought by consumers is hedonistic, so that they present higher satisfaction values compared to a utilitarian context (Noone & Mattila, 2009). Consequently, taking into account the literature mentioned, if crowding negatively affects satisfaction (Machleit et al., 2000) and behavioral intentions (Grewal, Baker, Levy & Voss, 2003), a contrary effect will occur if the levels of crowding in the cross-border area are reasonable.

Consequently, in a border setting in which tourists engage in visiting activities, crowding that does not exceed tourists' expectations, or low levels of crowding, will produce a positive effect on satisfaction (Palau-Saumell et al., 2014). Thus, we propose the following hypothesis:

H4: Perceived low crowding when tourists are crossing a border directly and positively influences satisfaction.

Moreover, previous research identified a negative relationship between crowding and behavioral intentions (Grewal et al., 2003). Consequently, if those tourists' perception of crowding when crossing a border is low, there will be a positive reverse effect. Thus, the following hypothesis is proposed:

H5: Perceived low crowding when tourists are crossing a border directly and positively influences behavioral intentions.

3.5 SENSATION-SEEKING

Sensation-seeking is a personal characteristic defined as the need to seek experiences and intense new sensations in order to maintain an optimal level of arousal, as well as a willingness to assume the risks involved in these experiences (Zuckerman, 1994). Sensation-seekers are motivated by the novelty of the experience, the complexity of the stimuli, and the increased intensity of the stimulation that they are experiencing (Roberti, 2004). This intensity comes from knowing what is on the other side of the border of a divided city, which suggests that tourists travel to discover images and stories that were previously inaccessible (Webster & Timothy, 2006).

Sensation-seeking has been used to explain a wide variety of behaviors, and has been found to be positively correlated with adventure travel, tendency to avoid repetition, liking of intense experiences, proneness to boredom under restrained and repetitive situations, and tendency toward disinhibition (Galloway & Lopez, 1999).

The best-known scale for sensation-seeking is that proposed by Zuckerman (1971), who created the Sensation-Seeking Scale (SSS-IV), with four dimensions – thrill and adventure, experience, boredom, and disinhibition – and 72 items. Some authors questioned this scale due to its colloquial expressions, which were very influenced by the time when the scale was created, some items of which were considered too slangy and out of date, and thought that maybe the scale had lost value, viability and reliability. Because of that, Zuckerman (1994) refined his scale, deleting 32 items of the initial 72, and tested it again with only 40 items, creating the SSS-V. Since that time, scholars have used both indistinctly.

Because primarily of the colloquial items, the dimensions and because of its length, later on Hoyle, Stephenson, Palmgreen, Lorch and Donohew (2002) reviewed the SSS-V, with 5 dimensions and 40 items, and created the Brief Sensation-Seeking Scale (BSSS) with 4 dimensions, deleting the one related to the consumption of drugs and alcohol, and with only 2 items per dimension. In their study, Hoyle et al. (2002), they interviewed the same participants at two different periods of time, one to measure the SSS-V and three weeks later using the BSSS. The results showed that both scales have the same validity and are robust to measure the personality treats of participants. The only restriction that they applied is with regard to the age of participants, because it is a very important variable. When people are getting old, our personality traits in relation to sensation-seeking change. When we arrive at adulthood we perceive risk differently. Sensation-seeking is a subjective construct, and can present differences among cultures, ages and genders (Litvin, 2008).

Academics in the tourism field have used both the SSS-V (Fuchs, 2013) and the BSSS (Eachus, 2004; Hoyle et al., 2002; Xu, Barbieri, Stanis & Market, 2012) depending on the type and context of the investigation (Litvin, 2008). According to Litvin (2008), sensation-seeking is an important construct to take into consideration while studying consumer behavior, for both practitioners and scholars.

There is a paucity of studies analyzing the relationship between sensation-seeking and satisfaction, and the influence of sensation-seeking on behavioral intentions, although it is known that people seek optimal levels of stimulation, which in turn influences their behavior (Hebb & Thompson, 1954).

In this regard, Xu et al. (2012) found positive associations between several tour satisfaction indicators and sensation-seeking attributes among recreational storm chasers, and Wang, Jackson, Zhang and Su (2012) found positive relations between sensation-seeking and behavioral intentions in a social networking context. In this sense, these related studies provide some insight into this relationship. Webster and Timothy (2006) posited that much of the motivation for people to travel from one part of Nicosia to the other is curiosity, because the isolation creates perceptions that people wish to explore for themselves. Thus, the following hypotheses are proposed:

H6: The sensation-seeking of a cross-border tourist directly and positively influences their satisfaction.

H7: The sensation-seeking of a cross-border tourist directly and positively influences their behavioral intentions.

3.6 MODERATOR EFFECT OF EXPECTATIONS

Expectations can be defined as wishes, or how a tourist thought a product or a service should be. Expectations are formed using different sources of information, such as advertisement, word of mouth and previous experiences. Even so, expectations can be formed without a previous experience with the service (McGill & Iacobucci, 1992). They are dynamic by nature, so they can vary during the different encounters during the whole service, like the case of the tourism field (Yuksel & Yuksel, 2001).

The expectations refer to the grade of beliefs that an act will be followed by its own consequences. They are also the variation of these beliefs in a particular context, how a person behaves in a situation assuming their own expectations and the subjective value of the outcome after this action (Bandura, 1977; Feather, 1990; Feather, 1982; Hsu, Cai & Li, 2010).

Expectations are mental representations that a person has or creates about future events (Fornell, Johnson, Anderson, Cha & Bryant, 1996; Gnoth, 1997). According to the expectancy disconfirmation paradigm, a tourist's expectations can be defined as their beliefs about what the consequences of an event are most likely to be (Oliver, 1980), or as previous predictions made by consumers of the results or benefits that they will have when consuming the product or service in the future (Higgs, Polonsky & Hollick, 2005). Thus, expectancy is the probability that an action will lead to a certain result or goal (Lawler, 1973), and discrepancy theory suggests that the difference between the perceived outcomes and results that a person believes they should receive serves to determine satisfaction (Schreyer & Roggenbuck, 1978). In fact, Schreyer and Roggenbuck (1978) have argued that people involved in the same activity may have different expectations of rewards.

One important characteristic of expectation is that a person can perceive the possible benefit of an action even if this action is not performed. Between the belief and the action we found the predisposition of the person to this action, and that includes a subjective evaluation of the outcome, in line with the expectation of the belief (Hsu et al., 2010). For that reason, there is no conclusive evidence of whether expectations lead us to satisfaction or to the satisfaction of an action (Petrik, 2004).

Different categories of expectations have been identified in the literature: (i) ideal expectations, which refer to a maximum standard by a service provider in its category, representing the highest or best level of performance that it is possible to achieve (Parasuraman, Berry & Ziethaml, 1991; Woodruff, Cadote & Jenkins, 1983); (ii) normative, which are known as deserved or desired expectations, what a consumer should expect, which is related to the firm or company and what it is feasible or realistic that it will deliver; (iii) minimum tolerable expectations, also named adequate expectations (Parasuraman et al., 1991), referring to the minimum acceptable point of reference of performance, meaning the basic point to start or to expect of performance; and (iv) forecast, which refer to the prediction of a consumer in relation to the future consumption of a service (Boulding, Kalra, Staelin, & Zeithaml, 1993; Higgs et al., 2005). Forecast expectations have been considered in this study.

Expectations exert different levels of influence on satisfaction via direct or indirect paths depending on consumers' psychological consideration of the context (Wong & Dioko, 2013), and can also differ between consumers depending on their information, experience and background (Yi & La, 2003). Expectations play an important role in the formation of satisfaction (Yi & La, 2003) and have a positive effect on performance (Mattila, 1998).

Despite the importance of expectations, the literature has not thoroughly investigated their moderating effect on behavioral intention models. Spreng and Page (2001), Yi and La (2003) and Wong and Dioko (2013) are among the few researchers who have done so. Spreng and Page (2001) identified that the level of confidence in expectations influences the formation of consumer satisfaction; Yi and La (2003) highlighted the asymmetric nature of the influence of expectations on the formation of satisfaction; and Wong and Dioko (2013) identified the moderating effect of expectations on the relationship between performance and value, and between value and satisfaction, differentiating customers with high and low expectations. Wong and Dioko (2013) suggested that customers with high expectations tend to be easier to satisfy if the value of the services fulfills the desired level, whereas customers with low expectations tend to be more difficult to satisfy. According to the literature mentioned earlier, and for the purposes of this research, expectations are defined as tourists' assumptions that a trip or visit to a cross-border area will be satisfactory or successful.

Consequently, and based on the above literature, tourists' expectations will moderate the following hypotheses:

H8a: Tourist expectation moderates the relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions, such that the effect is stronger for high expectation.

H8b: Tourist expectation moderates the relationship between value and satisfaction, such that the effect is stronger for high expectation.

H8c: Tourist expectation moderates the relationship between value and behavioral intentions, such that the effect is stronger for high expectation.

H8d: Tourist expectation moderates the relationship between sensation-seeking and satisfaction, such that the effect is stronger for high expectation.

H8e: Tourist expectation moderates the relationship between sensation-seeking and behavioral intentions, such that the effect is stronger for high expectation.

Moreover, Andereck and Becker (1993) identified that the expectations of human density contribute directly and significantly to perceived crowding among visitors to recreational environments, where the authors stated that crowding is said to be perceived when visitors find more people at an attraction or in an area than expected. Therefore, the opposite situation, fewer visitors than expected, will produce a stronger effect on the relationships between crowding and satisfaction, and between behavioral intentions and crowding in tourists with lower expectations on the Green Line. Thus, the following additional hypotheses are proposed:

H8f: Tourist expectation moderates the relationship between perceived crowding and satisfaction, such that the effect is stronger for low expectation.

H8g: Tourist expectation moderates the relationship between perceived crowding and behavioral intentions, such that the effect is stronger for low expectation.

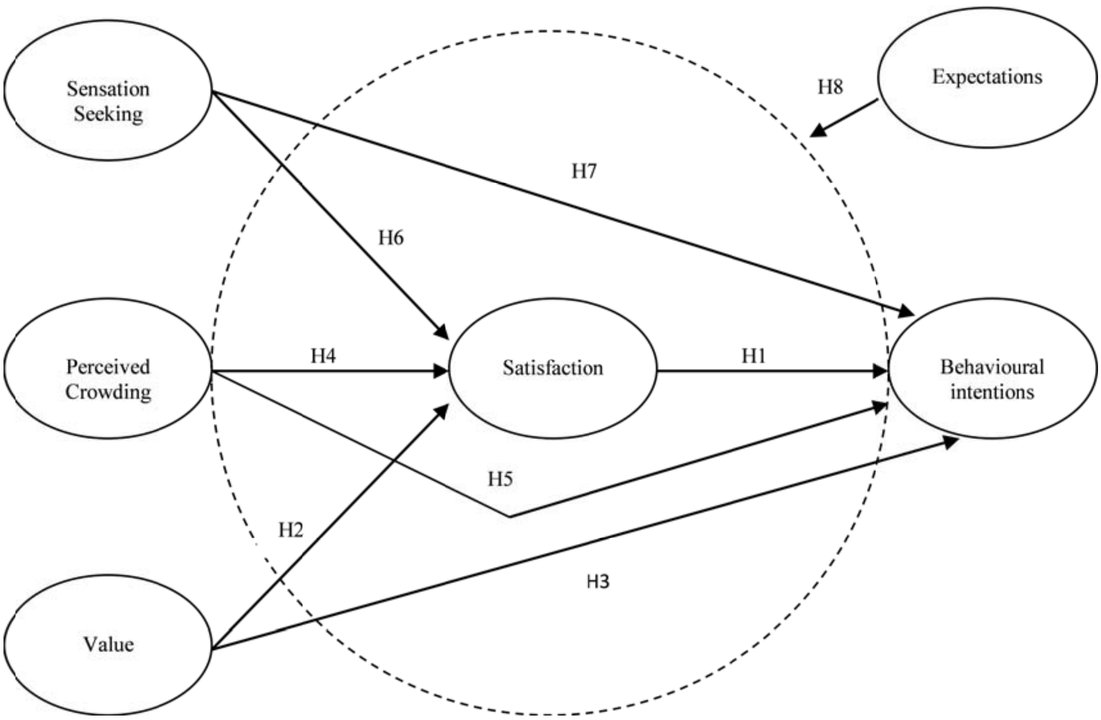
3.7 RESEARCH MODEL

The model (shown in Figure 1) postulates that three variables (sensation-seeking, perceived crowding and value) are direct antecedents of satisfaction, and that satisfaction is a direct antecedent of cross-border tourists' behavioral intentions.

These relationships are based on the consumer behavior literature, which has demonstrated that attitude is an antecedent of intention (Ajzen, 1991), while satisfaction during the post-consumption stage is an evaluation of pre-consumption attitude (Liao, Chen & Yen, 2007). Prior research has indicated that value, one of the three independent variables of the model, is a predictor of attitude (satisfaction) and of the intention to visit a destination (Chen & Chen, 2010). Furthermore, and in order to better explain the intentions of tourists in the border area, we have incorporated two independent variables in the model: sensation-seeking and crowding. Hsu and Huang (2012) demonstrated that the attitude and intentions of tourists can be better explained if motivations are taken into account; it has also been suggested that sensation-seeking may play an important part in motivations (Eachus, 2004) and predict a variety of attitudes and behaviors (Galloway, Mitchell, Getz, Crouch, & Ong, 2008). With respect to perceived crowding, Graefe, Vaske and Kuss (1984) postulated that the density caused by crowding interferes with the objectives that motivate individuals' behavior.

Figure 1 outlines the constructs under consideration in this study, the rationale for linkages between individual concepts and further details of the theory on which they rely.

Figure 1 Proposed conceptual model



Source: Author own elaboration

4 STUDY AREA

Cyprus has been a place where many civilizations have stopped and established themselves through time. Different cultures have inhabited the island: the first, 3,500 years ago, were the Greeks, and they were followed by the Assyrians, the Phoenicians, Egyptians, Romans, Arabs, Byzantines, Lusignans and Venetians. Throughout its territory, the island has ancient cultural remains consequently its culture and heritage is enormous, in addition to being a well-known sun and beach destination. In the middle of the sixteenth century (1571), the Ottoman Empire was established on the island, with brought with it a lot of colonies. Those Turkish Muslims are considered the basis for the Turkish Cypriots of today (Ghosh & Aker, 2006). Cyprus lies on the geostrategic crossroads between Europe, the Middle East and Africa, so its position is very important in terms of geopolitics (Ghosh & Aker, 2006; Kramsch, 2006).

By the end of the nineteenth century, the United Kingdom had signed a secret agreement with the Ottoman Empire, known as the Cyprus Convention (1878). The British Empire took Cyprus as a protectorate in return for its collaboration with the Ottoman Empire after its war with Russia. This agreement lasted until 1914, with the First World War, because the two countries were on different sides. In 1914 the British government declared Cyprus as a Crown Colony (Thompson, St. Karayanni & Vassiliadou, 2004). At this period of time, the decline of the Ottoman Empire and the end of the First World War left enough room for the creation of new nation-states in the ashes of these multiethnic empires. Nationalism and self-determination, the right of people to govern themselves, became a widely accepted principle of international law and customary practice (Smith, 2004; Sözen, 2004; Sözen & Özersay, 2007).

In the twentieth century, around the 1930s, Greek Cypriots demanded *Enosis*, a term used it to explain their desire to be part of what they consider to be their motherland, Greece.

A political struggle started and by the end of the Second World War, *Enosis* was again demanded by Cypriots, who had fought alongside the British during the war. In contrast, Turkish Cypriots claimed that they wanted to continue being under British regulations. In the 1950s, Archbishop Makarios was the political and spiritual leader of the Orthodox church of Cyprus. He started a campaign for *Enosis* once again, this time with the support of Greece, with the difference that it was stronger than 20 years before (Ker-Lindsay, 2007; Papadakis, Peristianis & Welz, 2006). By that time, politics in Cyprus had begun to be framed by two-dimensional splits that were generated by inter-communal and intra-communal conflicts.

The inter-communal conflicts culminated in violent clashes in the 1960s, which ended the bi-communal character of the island, only three years after the achievement of its Independence from the British Empire, which was achieved in 1960.

Before they left, the British signed a Treaty Agreement, used to guarantee the ethnic differences and dividing the government's responsibilities into 60% and 40% to guarantee the representation of both communities on the island. The first president of the island after its independence was Greek Cypriot and his vice-president was from the Turkish minority.

However, that was not convenient for all the people, and intra-communal conflicts started to appear. On the one hand, the Greek Cypriots demanded strongly to know whether they had Enosis or Greek Cypriot domination, and in the other, the Turkish Cypriot nationalists insisted on the separateness of the two communities, without clarifying between a demand for partition and the demand for a separate Turkish state. Also, it has to be added that there were right-wing and left-wing parties on both sides that generated intra-communal division and conflicts between these two communities, who have lived together for at least four centuries. The left-wing parties were not strong, and the extreme right rejected the idea of a common identity on the island unifying both communities (Vural, 2011; Vural & Peristianis, 2008). For Ghosh and Aker (2006), the basic problem with these clashes is due to cultural, ethnic, religious and linguistic differences between both communities.

After all these conflicts and violence, it has been a *de facto* divided island since 1974 (Lönnqvist, 2008). As a result of this two geographical entities have emerged, the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus, with about 37% of the land and only recognized internationally by Turkey; and the Republic of Cyprus, comprising the rest of the island (73%) in the southern part (Barkey & Gordon, 2001; Scott, 2012). It is for this reason that both entities have evolved differently since then, with the North basing its economic growth mainly on Turkey because it has no international recognition, and therefore it has been isolated for more than 40 years already (Barkey & Gordon, 2001). This repartition of the island was accomplished by defining a borderline, also known as the Green Line or No Man's Land. After the Turkish invasion, it was followed by a ceasefire that has been in place since the division. As a result of the ceasefire, the island was divided into the

Republic of Cyprus (South) and the Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus (TRNC; Scott, 2012), which is only recognized *de facto* by Turkey. The borderline symbolically summarizes the hostilities between the two parts into which the island was divided during the conflict in 1974 (Timothy, Prideaux & Kim 2004). Thus, the border can be considered a political one, and can be compared to the Israeli border with Gaza, which was unilaterally declared by Israel as an international border (Mansfeld & Korman, 2015).

The United Nations (UN) is still present on the island, in the so-called Buffer Zone, to control the ceasefire, and was based there a year before the invasion. The United Nations engagement in Cyprus started in 1964 with the establishment of the United Nations Peace Keeping Force in Cyprus (UNFICYP) originally planned for three years to calm the claims of Enosis from one side of the population and the rejection of it by the rest. The UNFICYP has become the UN's longest peacekeeping mission and its largest failure in international diplomacy (Assmuisen, 2004).

That could possibly explain why during the regime of Secretary-General Kofi Annan, the United Nations was very active in trying to find a solution for the Cyprus issue. In the words of Kofi Annan (2004): "*Let us seize this chance for peace in a United Cyprus Republic.*"

Its intention was to solve the differences between the parties before the accession of Cyprus into the EU in 2004. These activities included the releasing of a plan, called "***The Comprehensive Settlement of the Cyprus Problem,"*** known as the "**Annan Plan."** It was launched on 11 November 2002; revised on 10 December 2002 and 26 February 2003; and the final version was released and presented to both sides on 31 March 2004. The idea of this plan was create a Republic of Cyprus with two Federal States. People in Cyprus had to vote in a Referendum, on 24 April 2004, before the accession to the island to the EU.

The principal idea was to return to the status quo of the island in 1960 when it became independent from the British government. The United Nations wanted to achieve that in order to demilitarize the island and achieve the full membership of all the inhabitants when accessing the EU. The "Annan Plan" was drawn up as a Constitution, taking into consideration all the necessary laws or agreements in terms of language, religion and ethnicity, amongst other things. Also, the plan previewed a three sided agreement between Greece, Turkey and the United Kingdom with terms to establish the new Republic of Cyprus, and with the agreement that none of these nation-states would claim any part of the island as its property.

The “Annan Plan” was thought to have been approved under a Referendum in both sides of the island. Political parties on both sides were in charge of the campaign among their citizens to encourage them to vote in the referendum; a year later saw the opening of the first crossing points. The referendum question was:

“*Do you approve the Foundation Agreement with all its Annexes, as well as the constitution of the Greek Cypriot/Turkish Cypriot State and the provisions as to the laws to be in force, to bring into being a new state of affairs in which Cyprus joins the European Union United?*” (Annan, 2004, p. 137)

Two days before the referendum was to occur, Tassos Papadopoulos, president of Cyprus at that time, called his counterparts and asked them to vote against the Referendum (Wright, 2004). The plan was accepted by 65% of Turkish Cypriots and was rejected by 76% of Greek Cypriots. With these results, on 1 May 2004, 6 days later, Cyprus joined the EU. The whole island could not achieve membership but the EU pronounced in that regard, and showed its disappointment with the Greek Cypriots. With regard to the Turkish Cypriots, the EU created a specific Protocol to include them:

“The whole of the island is in the EU. However, in the northern part of the island, in the areas in which the Government of Cyprus does not exercise effective control, EU legislation is suspended in line with Protocol 10 of the Accession Treaty 2003.” (European Commission, 2004, pp.88–92)

The situation will change once a Cyprus settlement enters into force and it will then be possible for EU rules to apply throughout the entire island. However, the suspension does not affect the personal rights of Turkish Cypriots as EU citizens.

According to Papadakis et al. (2006) and Papadakis (2005), the situation has to be understood in terms of political issues. Both sides do not perceive the problem in the same way. The south side wants to annex the northern side of the island as part of the whole country, with its ethnic minority. In contrast, the north side is hoping to be internationally recognized, not only by Turkey but also as a Mediterranean country, because that is how it perceives itself. That could be one of the mains reasons why the Plan was not successful, because the approach was conceived erroneously or inaccurately. The result has been all the years of not being in contact and where the narrative discourses from both sides have been totally antagonistic. Much of interest should be paid to education. History and discourse are passed on through years in schools, and textbooks have much to do with the durability of these ideas (Papadakis et al., 2006; Papadakis, 2005).

Studies have also shown the impact of the political unrest on the island for tourism development. These studies reveal that tourism plays a key role in both communities (Ioannides, 1992; Altinay, 2000). Properly designed and developed tourism can help bridge the mental and cultural distances that separate people in religious and ethnic aspects, among other things, and through tourism we can come to appreciate differences between us which helps us to embrace diversity (d'Amore, 1988). Almost all research regarding tourism in Cyprus is analyzed or studied as two separate political entities, from the northern perspective (Altinay, 2000; Alipour & Kilik, 2005; Yoon & Uysal, 2005) or from the southern perspective (Farmaki, 2015; Farmaki et al., 2015), treating both territories as two different entities, mentioning the problematic of being a divided island but analyzing tourism as two different coastal destinations. Even though the northern side is not internationally recognized, in fact, they have always worked as two independent territories.

Contact between both sides has been non-existent or very sparce since 2003 (Lönnqvist, 2008). Following an agreement between Greek and Turkish Cypriot officials, in April 2003 movement between both sides of the Cypriot border was permitted at a small number of crossing points. Two of these are in Nicosia: for pedestrians, at the Ledra Palace, which is right in the Buffer Zone; and for vehicles at the point known as Agios Dometios/Kermia on the western side of Nicosia (Webster et al., 2009). Five years later, in April 2008, a checkpoint in Ledra Street was opened, and the commercial center of the capital was reconnected in both directions. Now, both Turkish and Greek Cypriots can cross over the border, as can tourists visiting the island. In this sense, the cross-border area at Ledra Street, which was already a tourist attraction from 2008, allows tourists to visit the other side; this constitutes a strong motivation for those visiting border areas (Gelbman, 2008; Mansfeld & Korman, 2015; Timothy, 2001; Timothy & Butler, 1995) and adds intrigue and fascination to the crossing experience (Medvedev, 1999). To demonstrate the importance of this attraction, in 2012 a total of 1.1 million international tourists crossed over from and to North Cyprus (Tourism Planning Department of TRNC, 2014). This is in line with the argument by Stone (2006) and Stone and Sharpley (2008) that the more painful an event and the longer a place's history of conflict, the greater its opportunity to be developed as a tourist attraction. However, despite the visitor success, neither of the two official tourism agencies in Cyprus promote the cross-border area of the city (Cyprus Tourism Organization, 2014; Welcome to North Cyprus, 2014)

2014 marked 40 years of the same situation. During 2015, conversations restarted between the communities, and they seem to be going in a good direction. In December 2015 John Kerry visited the island to see first-hand how conversations are continuing between the two sides. Leaders of both sides have commented that the negotiations for a final solution should be accomplished by the end of March 2016 (Smith, 2015).

The extreme right-wing parties are acting like their counterparts 40 years ago, and some violent acts have occurred, but thanks to the citizens and their demonstrations against these responses on both sides of the island, social civil NGOs and citizens have made it clear that now they are calling for the end of the conflict and the beginning of a new horizon for their country.

5 METHODOLOGY

5.1 INSTRUMENT

The questionnaire was developed on the basis of a literature review. Sensation-seeking items were based on the work of Xu et al. (2012). Perceived crowding was evaluated with three items adapted from the study by Kim, Wem and Doh (2010). Three items were employed to measure value, adapted from Yoon et al. (2010). Satisfaction was measured with three items, based on Palau-Saumell, Forgas-Coll, Sanchez-Garcia and Prats-Planaguma (2013). Behavioral intentions are defined as intentions to revisit, promotion via word of mouth and willingness to recommend, and their measurement included three items adapted from Ramkissoon and Uysal (2011).

To evaluate expectations, the following three items were used, adapted from the study by Rufín, Medina and Rey (2012): “Before the visit, I was expecting the border area to be attractive considering what happened here,” “Before the visit, I was expecting to live through a really positive experience, and to know more about fences, buildings destroyed by weapons, and walls,” and “Before the visit, I had expected that visiting the last divided city in the EU would be worth it and interesting in terms of discovering what is on the other side.”

To refine these items, qualitative interviews were carried out with tourism experts in consumer behavior from the University of Nicosia, along with tour operators, tourism offices and police officers from both sides of the border. The results of the qualitative interviews showed a need to reduce the items from Xu et al. (2012) in the sensation-seeking scale, delete those that did not reflect the context (the study of tourism in a cross-border area) and adapt the items to the context, so that finally three items remained (Table 23).

The final version of the questionnaire was in English, which limited the profile of the interviewees to those who understood the language or had sufficient knowledge of it; the interviewer was also able to perform the interview in Catalan, French and Spanish. Furthermore, a pre-test using 40 personal interviews was carried out to test the questionnaire items. This allowed the wording of some of the items to be improved. The items were valued by means of a five-point Likert scale, from 1= Totally Disagree and 5= Totally Agree for the assessment.

5.2 SITE, SAMPLING AND DATA COLLECTION

The research was carried out at Ledra Street, Nicosia (Cyprus) at the beginning of the UN area. Convenience sampling was used, yielding a total of 1500 questionnaires from international tourists older than 18 years, at the Ledra Street crossing.

The majority of studies have considered cross-border tourists as people living on adjacent sides of a border, such as Canadians and Americans, as an example. Only studies that have analyzed the patterns of international tourists visiting Hong Kong conducted by McKercher and Lau (2008) and McKercher and Wong (2004) have included crossing borders as an attraction for international tourists visiting this country. Following these studies, and according to the definition that someone who crosses a political boundary, either international or subnational, is a tourist (Timothy, 1995; Timothy & Butler, 1995), we have considered for our study that cross-border tourists are those from outside of Cyprus, visiting the cross-border area and crossing the checkpoints.

In order to cover as many people as possible, interviews were held daily from 9:00 am to 8:00 pm from 2 July to 25 August 2012. Of the 1500 questionnaires, 99 were rejected as incomplete, leaving a total of 1401. The respondents were approached by the authors at Ledra Street and the interviews conducted on the spot. We interviewed tourists crossing in both directions, returning to their accommodation. Tourists returning to the South were stopped after showing their IDs at the Southern police station. We made sure that they were returning to the South after having visited the whole cross-border area (North and South). In the same way, we stopped people walking from the South to the North, who had visited the entire area. Greek and Turkish Cypriots were not interviewed, as our main goal was to interview international tourists visiting the cross-border area.

5.3 METHOD OF ANALYSIS

Hypotheses 1–7 were tested by means of structural equation modeling (SEM), while Hypothesis 8 was tested using a multigroup SEM analysis. The models were estimated from the matrices of variances and covariance using the maximum likelihood procedure with EQS 6.1 statistical software (Bentler, 1995). First, we carried out a study of the dimensionality, reliability and validity of the scale. This analysis permitted us to refine the scale, eliminating non-significant items. Subsequently, the invariance of the instrument of measurement was verified to enable us to compare the regression coefficients of each of the samples (moderator effect – Hypothesis 8). Prior to this comparison, the causal relationships for the whole sample were determined in order to test Hypotheses 1–7.

Regarding the moderator effect of expectations, a four-item scale, based on the work of De Rojas & Camarero (2008), was tested using confirmatory factor analysis and accepted, all the factor loadings being greater than 0.7 (between 0.76 and 0.83), which generated a composite reliability (CR) of 0.88 and an average variance extracted (AVE) of 0.70, the scale being validated. In addition, the model presents an adequate fit, as the probability associated with it is greater than 0.05 (0.34892). Afterwards, a cluster analysis was carried out to obtain different groups with different levels of expectations, forming first a hierarchical cluster. Once the cluster centers were obtained, a k-means cluster analysis was applied, resulting in two groups. The first, with a low level of expectations (values between 2.82 and 3.34), was made up of 896 cases. The second, with a high level of expectations (values between 3.79 and 4.89), contained 505 individuals.

6 RESULTS

The results consist of three analyses. The first analysis conducted is descriptive one with the data gathered, differentiating those visitors with high and low expectations, tested by means of a Cluster Analysis. For this analysis ANOVA test was used, which allows to identify significant differences among the means of more than one independent sample. The second analysis was of the psychometric properties of the model by studying the dimensionality, reliability and validity of the scale used. The third analysis conducted contrasts the conceptual model for the whole sample, with structural equation models. And, a multigroup analysis is also done to compare the causal relationship for the sample with high and low expectations.

The existence of significant differences in the causal relationships was estimated to analyze the moderating effect exercised by the different degrees of expectations.

6.1 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE SAMPLE

In this section, a description of the sample will be presented. Also the distribution of the surveys during the whole process will be discussed. Moreover, an analysis of the questionnaire items and their measurement scales is also presented.

Of the total of 1401 respondents, all their sociodemographic characteristics will be presented: gender, country of origin, age, level of studies and income. These questions were not obligatory, and a few respondents declined to answer, especially questions related to income and studies.

6.1.1 Gender

The equilibrium among the sample is achieved, but there were somewhat more females (51.5%) interviewed than males (48.5%).

Table 6. Gender

	Male	Female
1401	679	722
%	48.5	51.5

Source: Author own elaboration

6.1.2 Country of origin

A list with all the countries of origin of the respondents is presented. Those from the EU with less relevance were grouped, and those countries of origin with a greater presence among the respondents were left behind.

Table 7. Country of origin

ARGENTINA (SA)	LUXEMBOURG (EU)
AUSTRALIA (AU)	MACEDONIA (NO EU)
AUSTRIA (EU)	MALTA (EU)
BELGIUM (EU)	THE NETHERLANDS (EU)
BULGARY (EU)	NORWAY (NO EU)
CANADA (NA)	POLAND (EU)
CATALONIA (EU)	PORTUGAL (EU)
CZECH REPUBLIC (EU)	ROMANIA (EU)
COLOMBIA (SA)	RUSSIA (AS)
CROATIA (EU)	SLOVAKIA (EU)
DENMARK (EU)	SLOVENIA (EU)
ESTONIA (EU)	SOUTH AFRICA (AF)
FINLAND (EU)	SOUTH KOREA (AS)
FRANCE (EU)	SPAIN (EU)
GERMANY (EU)	SWEDEN (EU)
GREECE (EU)	SWITZERLAND (NO EU)
HUNGARY (EU)	TAIWAN (AS)
IRELAND (EU)	UK (EU)
ISRAEL (AS)	UKRANIA (NON UE)
ITALY (EU)	USA (NA)
JAPAN (AS)	CHINA (AS)

Source: Author own elaboration

Legend: AF (Africa), AS (Asia), AU (Australia); EU (European Union); NA (North America); NON EU (Nonmembers of the European Union); SA (South America).

Table 8. Percentages of country origin

	Africa	Asia	Australia	Europe (EU)	North America	Non EU	South America	
N	1	47	8	1293	18	29	5	1401
%	0.1	3.4	0.6	92.3	1.3	2.1	0.4	100

Source: Author own elaboration

The table shows that 92.3% of the respondents were from EU countries. In order to see their exact country of origin, we present another table containing the 92.3% of the sample.

Table 9. Countries of origin and percentage

COUNTRY	N	%	COUNTRY	N	%
AUSTRIA	3	0,23	LUXEMBOURG	6	0,46
BELGIUM	42	3,25	MALTA	2	0,15
BULGARY	1	0,08	NETHERLADNS, THE	176	13,61
CATALONIA	11	0,85	NORWAY	29	2,24
CHEZ REPUBLIC	45	3,48	POLAND	51	3,94
CROATIA	17	1,31	PORTUGAL	1	0,08
DENMARK	31	2,4	ROMANIA	4	0,31
ESTONIA	2	0,15	SLOVAKIA	18	1,39
FINLAND	10	0,77	SLOVENIA	90	6,96
FRANCE	100	7,73	SPAIN	37	2,86
GERMANY	138	10,67	SWEDEN	29	2,24
GREECE	8	0,62	UK	296	22,89
HONGARY	4	0,31	UKRAINA	11	0,85
IRELAND	15	1,16			
ITALY	116	8,97	TOTAL	**1293**	**100**

Source: Author own elaboration

The majority of visitors were from Europe, making the other countries of origin very incidental. We have divided the origin of those tourists from Europe, the majority of which were from the UK (22.9%). followed by those coming from the Netherlands (13.6%) and Germany (10.7%) as the three main destinations from the EU.

6.1.3 Age

With regard to age, 29.9% of the respondents were aged between 25 and 34 years old, followed by those from 45 to 54 (19.7%), from 18 to 24 (16.9%) and from 55 to 64 (11%). Three respondents did not give their age and 3.9% were older than 65 years.

Table 10. Age of tourists visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia

	From 18-24	From 25-34	From 35-44	From 45-54	From 55-64	65 and more		
N	237	419	258	276	154	54	**3**	**1401**
%	16.9	29.9	18.4	19.7	11	3.9	**0.2**	**100**

Source: Author own elaboration

6.1.4 Studies

Table 11 shows that 61% of the respondents were well educated, with higher education (college or postgraduate), followed by 26.3% with professional training.

Table 11. Level of Studies of tourists visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia

	No studies	Primary school	Secondary school	Professional training	College-Postgraduate	N/C	
N	4	33	139	369	854	2	**1401**
%	0.3	2.4	9.9	26.3	61	0.1	**100**

Source: Author own elaboration

6.1.5 Income

This question was formulated using a self-report evaluation. We based the question on the perception of the average salary in the country of the respondent, and how they felt they were situated: very much below, below, equal to average, above average, or a high above average. For the respondent to answer this question was easier because numbers and scales are not involved, so it could be perceived as less invasive, as it is a subjective perception and evaluation of the average salary in their country of origin. Regardless of that, 46.3% of the sample located themselves as “Equal as average,” 38.3% “Above average” and a 6.4% and 6.3% below the average and a High above the average, respectively. Ten people declined to answer this question.

Table 12. Income of tourists visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia

	Very much below	Below	Average	Above	High above	N/C	
N	28	89	649	537	88	10	1401
%	2	6.4	46.3	38.3	6.3	0.7	100

Source: Author own elaboration

The descriptive analysis has been completed and we move forward to the third stage of the data analysis, which is the descriptive analysis of the variables that are the object of our study.

6.2 DESCRIPTIVE ANALYSIS OF THE VARIABLES THAT ARE THE OBJECT OF OUR STUDY

The descriptive analysis will be done variable by variable, taking the measurement scales resulting from the analysis of dimensionality, reliability and validity performed. This analysis will study the measures and analyze the significant differences between the two resulting samples (high or low expectations) through the ANOVA technique. And, a cluster analysis was carried out to obtain different groups with different levels of expectations, forming a hierarchical cluster. Once the cluster centers were obtained, a k-means cluster analysis was applied, resulting in two groups. The first, with a low level of expectation (values between 2.82 and 3.12) contained 896 cases. The second, with high level of expectation (values between 3.79 and 4.26), contained 505 individuals. Those resulting groups will be used lately to conduct the multigroup analysis

6.2.1 Sensation-seeking

First we will see the analysis of sensation-seeking. Table 13 shows the items forming the measurement scale for the sensation-seeking construct.

Table 13. Measurement Scale for Sensation Seeking

Questionnaire Items
I like to explore strange places because I learn of the significance of the Green Line
I like to try risky activities like crossing to the other side of this border
I get restless when I spend much of my vacation time doing nothing.

Source: Author own elaboration

With this scale, the intent is to measure the sensation-seeking of those tourists visiting the cross-border area. We wanted to measure the willingness to explore strange places in order to acquire more knowledge, as well as the willingness to be involved in risky activities, which can be crossing a border of a divided city under the control of the United Nations, and to be involved in some activities while being on vacation so as not to get restless.

Table 14 shows that significant differences exist among all the items of the scale. In this case it served to measure the sensation-seeking of those visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia. Sensation-seeking is understood as "**I like to explore strange places because I learn of the significance of the Green Line, I like to try risky activities like crossing to the other side of this border, I get restless when I spend much of my vacation time doing nothing**." It can be seen that for those with higher expectations the marks are higher, especially when seeking to try risky activities and getting restless on their vacation. Even though the group with higher expectations rated sensation-seeking again under the group with lower expectations, the mark is better than the rest of the items. Table 14 also shows that significant differences exist among both groups in all the items of the questionnaire. The most relevant is the third one, "*I get restless when I spend much of my vacation time doing nothing.*" Those tourists with lower expectations valued this lower than tourists with higher expectations. Exactly the same happened with the question "*I like to explore strange places because I learn of the significance of the Green Line*" and "*I like to try risky activities like crossing to the other side of this border.*" So, those tourists with lower expectations of the visit marked all the sensation-seeking items lower than the group with higher expectations.

Table 14. Means and significant differences – Sensation-Seeking

		N	Mean	Anova Sig
I like to explore strange places because I learn of the significance of the Green Line	Low Expectations	896	3,55	0,000
	High Expectations	505	3,89	
	Total	1401	3,67	
I like to try risky activities like crossing to the other side of this border	Low Expectations	896	4,03	0,000
	High Expectations	505	4,54	
	Total	1401	4,22	
I get restless when I spend much of my vacation time doing nothing.	Low Expectation	896	3,82	0,000
	High Expectations	505	4,28	
	Total	1401	3,99	

Source: Author own elaboration

6.2.2 *Perceived crowding*

The following measurement scale serves to measure the perceived crowding of tourists visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia.

Table 15. Measurement Scale for Perceived Crowding

Questionnaire Items
There weren't many people at the border control
The movement of tourists at the Ledra Street checkpoint was not difficult
The presence of tourists at the border control didn't seem to be cramped

Source: Author own elaboration

In order to complete the entire visit to the area, or to the city, it is necessary to stop at two different checkpoints. On the Turkish side, necessarily you have to obtain a piece of paper with a stamp or instead a stamp in your passport that allows you to enter the area. There are some points during the day when more people are waiting to cross over or there are fewer windows available.

Table 16 shows that again, those tourists with high expectations marked higher the items regarding the perceived crowding that they faced during their visit, in comparison with those tourists with lower expectations. Even so, both groups valued these items very high on the scale, with the lower mark of 4.32 out of 5. So, since the existence of differences between the groups, tourists perceived crowding positively, and they did not have the feeling that the queues were very long or the control at the checkpoints slow.

In this case, Table 16 shows significant differences in all the items. Once again, those with lower expectations of the visit undervalued all the items in comparison with the group of tourist with higher expectations, especially in the item "*the presence of tourists at the border control did not seem to be cramped".*

Table 16. Means and significance differences- Perceived Crowding

		N	Mean	Anova Sig
There weren't many people at the border control	Low Expectations	896	4,37	,001
	High Expectations	505	4,51	
	Total	1401	4,42	
The movement of tourists at Ledra Street check point was not difficult.	Low Expectations	896	4,32	,014
	High Expectations	505	4,44	
	Total	1401	4,37	
The presence of tourists at the border control didn't seem to be cramped	Low Expectations	896	4,43	,000
	High Expectations	505	4,66	
	Total	1401	4,51	

Source: Author own elaboration

6.2.3 Value

Value will be presented as the other constructs. The scale for value aimed to measure the perceived value of tourists visiting the cross-border area in terms of value for money, and time and effort spent while visiting the cross-border area.

Table 17. Measurement Scale for Value

Questionnaire Items
The cross-border area was worth what I spent
The cross-border area offered more value than expected
The cross-border area offered more value than other tourist attractions in Cyprus

Source: Author own elaboration

As far as we can observe from table 18, we can appreciate that tourists visiting the cross-border area do not think that it represents good value for money. For those with low expectations, value in the area is not very well considered, especially compared with other tourist attractions on the island. Those with higher expectations gave two of the three items a value slightly above of 3.5 out of 5, and the third was rated at 3.45.

Again, one can observe that those tourists with higher expectations consider that the area is valuable to visit.

As a mean for the 1401 tourists visiting the area, "*The cross-border area offered more value than other tourist attractions in Cyprus"* obtained 3.13 out of 5.

Table 18. Means and significant differences – Value

		N	Mean	Anova Sig
The cross-border area worth what I spent	Low Expectations	896	3,24	,000
	High Expectations	505	3,53	
	Total	1401	3,34	
The cross-border area offered more value than expected	Low Expectations	896	3,04	,000
	High Expectations	505	3,51	
	Total	1401	3,21	
The cross-border area offered more value than other tourist attractions in Cyprus	Low Expectations	896	2,95	,000
	High Expectations	505	3,45	
	Total	1401	3,13	

Source: Author own elaboration

6.2.4 Satisfaction

As seen in the literature review, overall satisfaction is a global evaluation of the service or product up to a certain date.

With this scale we intend to measure the global satisfaction of those tourists with high and low expectations visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia.

Table 19. Measurement Scale for Satisfaction

Questionnaire Items
I'm happy about my decision to choose the visit to the cross-border area
I believe I did the right thing when I decided to visit the cross-border area
Overall, I am satisfied with the decision to visit the cross-border area

Source: Author own elaboration

In Table 20 we observed what was happening with the rest of the tables presented so far. In all the items, those with higher expectations of the visit gave better marks with regard to the overall satisfaction with their visit. The worst valued for both groups is the third one, "*Overall, I am satisfied with the decision to visit the cross-border area,*" where the difference between both groups is stronger, and not in line with the first two, which were rated very similarly. All in all, except for that, tourists visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia were satisfied with it, with the higher mark of 4.46 out of 5.

Table 20. Means and Significance Differences- Satisfaction

		N	Mean	Anova Sig
I'm happy about my decision to choose the visit to the cross-border area	Low Expectations	896	4,15	,000
	High Expectations	505	4,46	
	Total	1401	4,27	
I believe I did the right thing when I decided to visit the cross-border area	Low Expectations	896	4,00	,000
	High Expectations	505	4,28	
	Total	1401	4,10	
Overall, I am satisfied with the decision to visit the cross-border area	Low Expectations	896	3,5	,000
	High Expectations	505	4,10	
	Total	1401	3,72	

Source: Author own elaboration

6.2.5 Behavioral intentions

With the behavioral intentions we are able to determine whether tourists visiting the area are willing to recommend it or come back in the future. As seen in the literature review, behavioral intentions are considered very important in studies of consumer behavior because they are a tool to know how to recommend our service, and promotion of the destination will be for free, through the word of mouth of our tourists.

Table 21. Measurement Scale for Behavioral Intentions

Questionnaire Items
I will encourage friends and neighbors to visit the area
I would like to come back to this city in the future
I am likely to recommend the area to friends and relatives

Source: Author own elaboration

As seen in Table 22, those with lower expectations do not have the intention, if they could, to come back to the cross-border area in the future. In contrast, those with higher expectations do have this intention, although it is not very strong. Those with higher expectations truly have the intention to recommend other people to visit the area, and will give good references about it to friends and relatives. In contrast, the group of tourists with lower expectations does not seem to have the intention to come back to the cross-border area if they had the opportunity, as they valued that item with a mean of 2.86 out of 5. So their interest in visiting the area is clearly a once in a lifetime event, not to be repeated. With the two other items, the lower expectations group of tourists gave higher marks, but none reached a level above 3.5 out of 5.

Table 22. Means and Significance differences - Behavioral Intentions

		N	Mean	Anova Sig
I will encourage friends and neighbors to visit it	Low Expectations	896	3,49	,000
	High Expectations	505	4,01	
	Total	1401	3,68	
If I can, I intend to come back to this cross-border area	Low Expectations	896	2,86	,000
	High Expectations	505	3,31	
	Total	1401	3,02	
I would give good references of this cross-border area to others	Low Expectations	896	3,25	,000
	High Expectations	505	3,81	
	Total	1401	3,45	

Source: Author own elaboration

6.3 VALIDATION OF SCALE AND INVARIANCE TEST

The first phase of the analysis was focused on a study of the psychometric properties of the model for the whole sample. As can be observed from Table 23, the goodness-of-fit indices of the proposed model showed a good fit to the data (Chi-squared (χ^2) = 81.5398, df = 79, p = 0.400, RMSA = 0.004, CFI = 0.987, NNFI = 0.975) (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996). The convergent validity was confirmed because the factor loadings were significant and greater than 0.5 (Table 23) (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988; Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson & Tatham, 2006), and because the AVE for each of the factors was higher than 0.5 at the $p < 0.001$ level (Fornell & Larcker, 1981), with levels ranging from 0.52 (sensation-seeking) to 0.70 (perceived crowding). The reliability of the scale was demonstrated because the CR indices of each of the dimensions were higher than 0.6 (Bagozzi & Yi, 1988), with levels ranging from 0.71 (sensation-seeking) to 0.85 (perceived crowding) (Table 23).

Table 23 Analysis of the dimensionality, reliability and validity of the scale (Fully standardized solution)

Items	Factor loading	t-Value
Sensation seeking (CR=0.71; AVE=0.52)		
I like to explore strange places because I learn of the significance of the Green Line	0.66**	18.00
I like to try risky activities like crossing to the other side of this border	0.65**	16.78
I get restless when I spend much of my vacation time doing nothing.	0.69**	19.59
Perceived crowding (CR=0.85; AVE=0.70)		
There weren't many people at the border control	0.87**	33.45
The movement of tourists at Ledra Street check point was not difficult	0.88**	44.37
The presence of tourists at the border control didn't seem to be cramped	0.67**	23.06
Value (CR=0.72; AVE=0.54)		
The cross-border area worth what I spent	0.65**	18.64
The cross-border area offered more value than expected	0.71**	22.51
The cross-border area offered more value than other tourist attractions in Cyprus	0.67**	22.38
Satisfaction (CR=0.75; AVE=0.57)		
I'm happy about my decision to choose the visit to the cross-border area	0.88**	34.79
I believe I did the right thing when I decided to visit the cross-border area	0.61**	19.51
Overall, I am satisfied with the decision to visit the cross-border area	0.61**	19.69
Behavioral intentions (CR=0.79; AVE=0.61)		
I will encourage friends and neighbors to visit it	0.68**	29.98
If I can, I intend to come back to this cross-border area	0.88**	32.92
I would give good references of this cross-border area to others	0.66**	27.71
Note: Fit of the model: Chi-squared=81.5398, df=79, P=0.400; RMSEA=0.004; CFI= 0.987; NNFI=0.975.		

CR= Composite reliability; AVE=Average Variance Extracted**p<0.01

Source: Author own elaboration

Table 24 shows the discriminant validity of the constructs considered, evaluated through AVE (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The square roots of the AVE were greater than the correlations among the constructs, supporting the discriminant validity of the constructs.

Table 24. Discriminant validity of the scale

	1	2	3	4	5
1. Sensation seeking	0.72				
2. Perceived crowding	0.05	0.84			
3. Value	0.18	0.23	0.73		
4. Satisfaction	0.17	0.16	0.45	0.76	
5. Behavioral intentions	0.08	0.21	0.58	0.52	0.78

Below the diagonal: correlation estimated between the factors.
Diagonal: square root of AVE.
Source: Author own elaboration

To statistically test the differential effects of expectations between high and low expectation groups, a three-item scale was used, based on the research of Rufín et al. (2012). The scale was submitted to a confirmatory factor analysis (factor loadings were greater than 0.71; CR = 0.85; AVE = 0.69). In addition, the model presented adequate fit, as the probability associated with χ^2 was greater than 0.05 (0.86). Afterwards, a cluster analysis was carried out to obtain different groups with different levels of expectations, forming a hierarchical cluster. Once the cluster centers were obtained, a k-means cluster analysis was applied, resulting in two groups. The first, with a low level of expectation (values between 2.82 and 3.12), contained 896 cases. The second, with a high level of expectation (values between 3.79 and 4.26), contained 505 individuals.

After that, the focus was on analyzing the invariance of the instrument of measurement (Table 25). This analysis was conducted prior to verification of the differences in the parameters common to the study variables between the groups considered (Byrne, 2006). The first step considered the model individually for each of the samples and fit well, separately, in the two samples: low expectations (χ^2 = 675.84; df = 79; RMSEA = 0.017; SRMR = 0.048; CFI = 0.997; NNFI = 0.995) and high expectations (χ^2 = 758.80; df = 79; RMSEA = 0.033; SRMR = 0.053; CFI = 0.983; NNFI = 0.974). The second step estimated the model simultaneously in both samples, to verify that the number of factors was the same, and again the model fit adequately (χ^2 = 1434.64; df = 158; RMSEA = 0.037; SRMR = 0.058; CFI = 0.993; NNFI = 0.992). The third and last step pertained to the equality of factor loadings in the two groups (metrical invariance). When this restriction was introduced, the model fit was not significantly worse than that of the previous step, as deduced from a comparison between the χ^2 of steps 2 and 3 (Δ χ2 = 19.73; Δ df = 15; p = 0.182 > 0.05; RMSEA = 0.060; SRMR = 0.043; CFI = 0.989; NNFI = 0.987); thus the invariance of the factor loadings is confirmed (Hair et al., 2006).

Table 25. Invariance measurement test. Expectations

	χ2	*df*	Δ χ2	Δ *df*	*p*	RMSEA (90% CI)	SRMR	CFI	NNFI
Individual groups:									
	675.84	79				0.017 (0.008-0.026)	0.048	0.997	0.995
-High Expectations	758.80	79				0.033 (0.024-0.042)	0.053	0.983	0.974
Measurement of Invariance:									
Simultaneous model	1434.64	158				0.037 (0.025-0.049)	0.058	0.993	0.992
Model with restricted factor loadings	1454.37	173	19.73	15	0.182	0.043 (0.030-0.056)	0.063	0.989	0.987

Source: Author own elaboration

6.4 MODEL RESULTS

To test Hypotheses 1–7, the causal relationships for the total sample were analyzed (Table 26 and Figure 2). The structural model showed a good fit to the data, given that the probability of χ^2 was higher than 0.05 (0.379), CFI was close to unity (0.99) and RMSEA was close to zero (0.006). Additionally, the variance in satisfaction (R^2 = 0.517) was explained by value, sensation-seeking and perceived crowding, and the variance in behavioral intentions (R^2 = 0.586) was explained by satisfaction and value, indicating that the model of this study does successfully predict and explain behavioral intentions.

Summarizing the results of the hypotheses, the analysis shows that six of the seven relationships proposed in the model were supported for the sample as a whole. A direct and positive relationship was observed between satisfaction and behavioral intentions (H1); value and satisfaction (H2); value and behavioral intentions (H3); perceived crowding and satisfaction (H4); perceived crowding and behavioral intentions (H5); and sensation-seeking and satisfaction (H6). These findings suggest that all of the hypotheses were supported except for Hypothesis 7, which proposed a positive relationship between sensation-seeking and behavioral intentions. Thus, Hypothesis 7 was rejected.

Table 26. Results of hypotheses testing

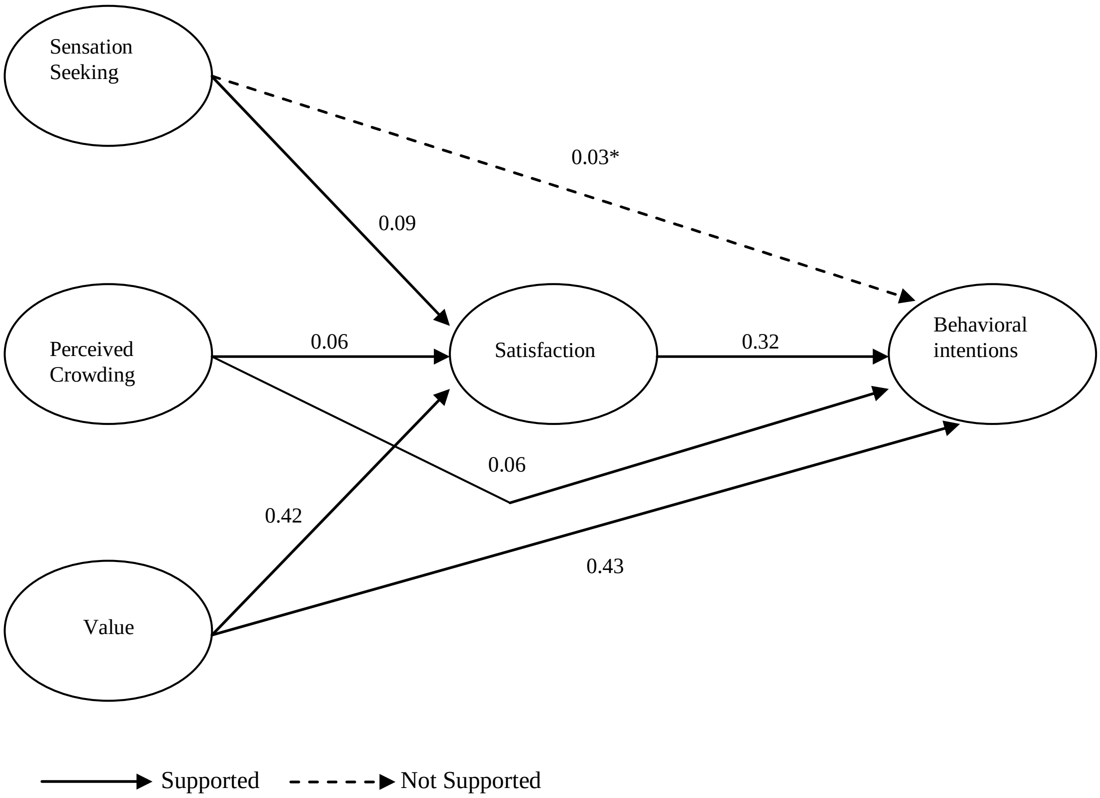
Hypothesis	Path	Parameter	t	Supported
H_1	Satisfaction → Behavioral intentions	0.32	15.95**	Yes
H_2	Value → Satisfaction	0.42	7.39**	Yes
H_3	Value →Behavioral Intentions	0.43	15.92**	Yes
H_4	Perceived crowding → Satisfaction	0.06	2.28*	Yes
H_5	Perceived crowding → Behavioral intentions	0.06	2.26*	Yes
H_6	Sensation seeking → Satisfaction	0.09	2.65**	Yes
H_7	Sensation seeking → Behavioral intentions	0.03	1.79	No

Note: Fit of the model: Chi-squared=81.2100, df=78, P=0.379; RMSEA=0.006; CFI = 0.99; NNFI = 0.98

*p<0.05; **p<0.01

Source: Author own elaboration

Figure 2 Results of hypotheses testing



Note: * = t < 1.96

Source: Author own elaboration

Furthermore, the moderator effect of expectations in the causal relations previously presented will be analysed. To conduct it the groups obtained with the cluster analysis will be used. The groups divide visitors between low and high expectations.

The existence of significant differences in the causal relationships was estimated to analyze the moderating effect exercised by the different degrees of expectations. The restrictions permitting calculation of these significant differences between the parameters were added through comparison of the χ^2 of the restricted structural model with the χ^2 of the unrestricted structural model (Table 27). This enabled the hypotheses to be put forward for testing.

The analysis carried out to establish the causal relationships between the variables being studied was adequate because the statistics of the model exceeded the recommended levels, and thus the fit of the multigroup model was deemed acceptable (Hair et al., 2006).

The expectations were found to moderate the relationships proposed in Hypothesis 8, as shown in Table 27; thus, Hypothesis H8 is confirmed.

Expectations were found to exert more influence for the sample of cross-border tourists with high expectations compared to those with low expectations in the relationships of satisfaction and behavioral intentions (0.84 and 0.52, $\Delta\chi 2 = 17.56$; $p = 0.00 < 0.05$) (H8a); of value and satisfaction (0.87 and 0.51, $\Delta\chi 2 = 12.40$; $p = 0.00 < 0.05$) (H8b); and of value and behavioral intentions (0.59 and 0.30, $\Delta\chi 2 = 4.39$; $p = 0.03 < 0.05$) (H8c).

In the relationship between sensation-seeking and satisfaction (0.11, $\Delta\chi 2 = 10.64$; $p = 0.00 < 0.05$) (H8d), and sensation-seeking and behavioral intentions (0.35, $\Delta\chi 2 = 11.94$; $p = 0.00 < 0.05$) (H8e), we found an influence of expectations in the sample of cross-border tourists with high expectations, but this was not significant in the sample of cross-border tourists with low expectations.

In addition, expectations were found to influence the sample of cross-border tourists with low expectations more significantly than those with high expectations in the relationships of perceived crowding and satisfaction (0.37 and 0.10, $\Delta\chi 2 = 15.12$; $p = 0.00 < 0.05$) (H8f), and perceived crowding and behavioral intentions (0.35 and 0.16, $\Delta\chi 2 = 15.36$; $p = 0.00 < 0.05$) (H8g).

Table 27. Moderating effects of expectations (H8)

Path	Low expectations		High expectations			
	Parameter	t	Parameter	t	Δ χ2	p
Satisfaction → Behavioral Intentions	0.52	19.22**	0.84	19.87	17.56	0.00
Value → Satisfaction	0.51	9.98**	0.87	14.06	12.40	0.00
Value → Behavioral intentions	0.30	16.11**	0.59	9.56	4.39	0.03
Perceived Crowding → Satisfaction	0.37	3.76**	0.10	2.90	15.12	0.00
Perceived Crowding → Behavioral Intentions	0.35	17.08**	0.16	2.83	15.36	0.00
Sensation seeking → Satisfaction	0.01	1.16	0.11	4.25**	10.64	0.00
Sensation seeking → Behavioral Intentions	0.06	1.75	0.35	6.22**	11.94	0.00

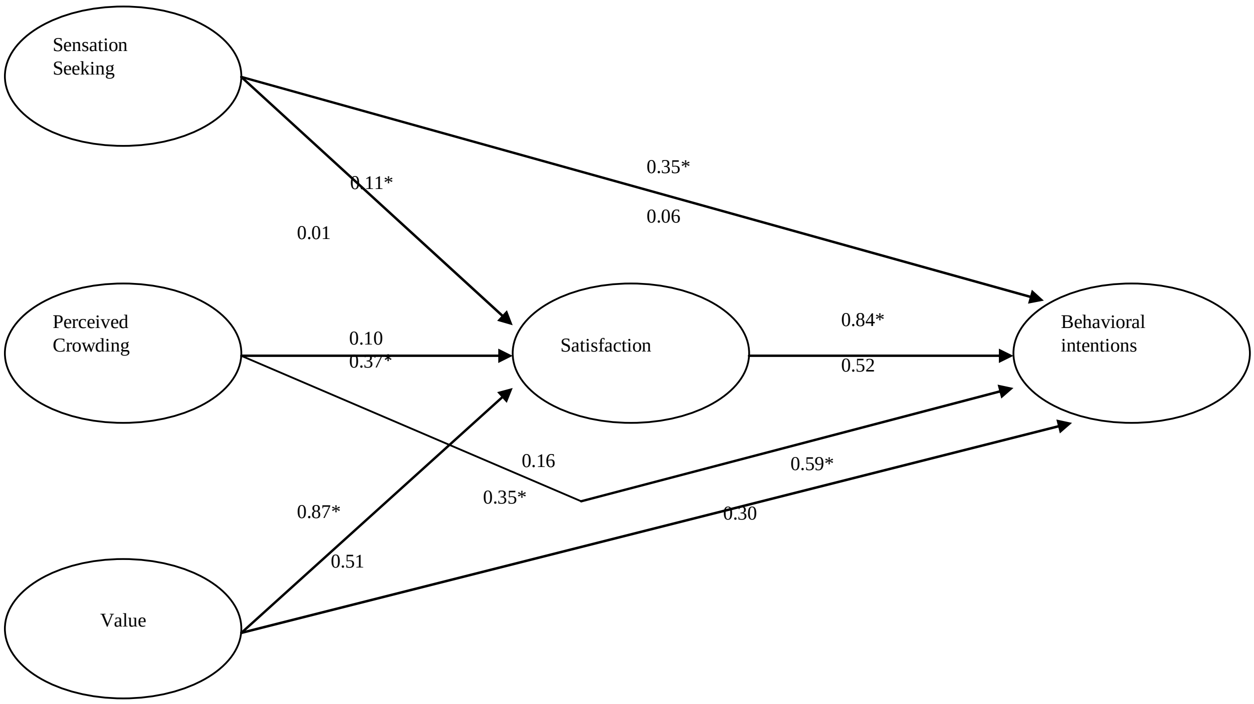
Note: Fit of the model: Chi-squared=189.3363, dF=174, P=0.201965; RMSEA=0.018; CFI= 0.983; NNFI=0.975.

Simultaneously latent variables test: Δ χ2= 61.601; Δdf=7; p=0.000<0.05

*p<0.05; **p<0.01

Source: Author own elaboration

Figure 3 Moderating effects of expectations



Notes: In every relation it is shown two values, the value on the top is for high expectations and the value on the bottom for low expectations.
* When there are significant differences (p<0.05), it is marked the higher value.

Source: Author own elaboration

7 DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

7.1 DISCUSSION

This research aimed to demonstrate that sensation-seeking, perceived crowding, value and satisfaction are predictors of behavioral intentions among international tourists who have visited cross-border areas. From the results, it is believed that the destination behavioral intentions model outlined in the conceptual framework is partially corroborated. In addition, the results of the study confirmed the importance of expectations as a moderator effect in the relationships in the proposed model for a cross-border area.

From a theoretical point of view, this research serves to prove the factors influencing the attitudes and intentions of tourists visiting a cross-border area in an innovative model within the consumer behavior studies field, and especially the field of cross-border tourism. The main theoretical contribution is the finding that the three independent variables influence post-consumption attitudes (satisfaction), and that attitudes influence the intentions of tourists visiting the Green Line of Nicosia. This model should be particularly useful for gaining a better understanding of the behavioral intentions of cross-border tourists.

Generally, studies have analyzed the relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions, because intentions are of key importance both for practitioners and also for managers. This is because intentions will lead to free promotion through word of mouth and because it is much easier to retain loyal tourists rather than attract new ones. So the importance of this relation is not questioned in this study. While this relationship has been proven before, the current findings reveal that significant differences exist among all the studies. Even though this relation has been corroborated so many times before, the significant differences in the various approaches have not been investigated. What can be seen in the former literature is that our findings are in line with the cross-border area study conducted by Lee et al. (2007) in the demilitarized zone (DMZ), with similar values in the relationship, which was 0.32 in Nicosia and 0.29 in the DMZ. By contrast, in the other study conducted in a cross-border area, Lee et al. (2012), the relationship is significantly stronger, 0.84, the same as was found in the cases of Barcelona (0.84), (Forgas et al., 2012), Slovenia (0.79) (Zabkar et al., 2012) and Northern Cyprus (0.79) (Yoon & Uysal, 2005). One possible explanation could be the overall nature of the destination or place visited. The cross-border area analyzed in Lee et al. (2007) is a line, the DMZ, and the cross-border area studied in Lee et al. (2012) is a resort. That could be a possible explanation for the differences in the three studies, in the sense that a coastal area is not the same as an urban destination; a festival is different to a cross-border area. Although all are well delimited, the former can be broader, and the latter very well defined in terms of activity or motivations. This means that, even though the cross-border area is very well delimited, the reasons why tourists are visiting it may vary, and also the purpose of their visit. One may also understand that when tourists are in coastal or urban destinations, what has to be evaluated could be a priori clearer than in a cross-border area due to its uniqueness. The DMZ (Lee et al., 2007) could be considered similar to the Green Line of Nicosia, compared to a cross-border space framed in a resort.

Satisfaction in the end is a personal evaluation. Emotions and perceptions are very important in terms of how we evaluate an experience and, consequently, how we remember it. And that will lead us to recommend it or not. The differences among all these proposed models lie in the antecedents of satisfaction and whether or not it is considered as a mediator to achieve the willingness to recommend and the willingness to revisit. Depending on that, and knowing that the relationship is asymmetric, it should be interesting for academics to analyze the relationship from another perspective, as Bajs (2015) demonstrated. The relationships between both constructs are not always supported, and behavioral intentions can be achieved through other paths.

This argument leads us to the relation between value and satisfaction. In this case we have considered value as an antecedent of satisfaction, and also as an antecedent of behavioral intentions, without considering satisfaction as a mediator between both constructs. In this case a theoretical improvement has been introduced in the field of cross-border studies, as Lee et al. (2012) have considered, and an indirect relation between value and behavioral intentions. Lee et al. (2007) have only considered overall value to have a direct relationship with behavioral intentions, but not functional value, which does not have a relation with satisfaction. Tourists visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia consider the area valuable, and that led them to be satisfied with their visit. Through value they will recommend the area to others and come back to the cross-border area. This is important in terms of theoretical improvements, because as hypothesized, there are other ways of achieving behavioral intentions, and the focus can be wider. Other studies have not demonstrated this relationship (Forgas et al., 2012; McDougall & Levesque, 2000).

Value has been considered as an antecedent of satisfaction and through it behavioral intentions could be achieved. However, it also has been demonstrated that behavioral intentions can be achieved without the mediating role of satisfaction, as demonstrated in Petrick and Backmann's (2002) study in a golf travel context.

We have demonstrated that for tourists visiting the cross-border area there is a significant relationship between value and satisfaction and between value and behavioral intentions, with both relationships obtaining similar weights. That has also been demonstrated in golf travel context (Petrick & Backmann, 2002) and in tourists visiting the city of Dubrovnik (Bajs, 2015).

In the context of golf travel, the relationship between value and satisfaction is not proposed, and the authors of the paper are interested in the relationship between value and behavioral intentions, which was positive. One possible explanation could be that golfers have chosen the package after analyzing over 100 possible choices from a travel agency. So, they know very well what they want, the specifics of the trip, what was included in the price and what not, etc. That could be a possible explanation in terms of leaving value aside, and in this specific case, the focus of analysis was on value as a predictor of behavioral intentions instead of satisfaction.

Analysis of the data collected in the current study has shown that perceived value has a direct effect on future intentions and satisfaction, both with similar values, 0.42 and 0.43, respectively. In both cases value is an important predictor and key determinant in the satisfaction of tourists and in their behavioral intentions. In terms of giving more importance to value rather than other constructs to achieve recommendations or willingness to revisit, a negative relation of value could be something to explore, to see the effects of the negative relationship of value to behavioral intentions.

These findings indicate that tourists consider visiting both sides of the city of Nicosia, the cross-border area, to be a valuable experience, which is likely to affect their level of satisfaction and behavioral intentions. One possible interpretation of these results is that tourists appreciate the border area more than other attractions in Cyprus, and are generally pleased with the opportunity to visit the Green Line, emphasizing satisfaction with the decision to visit the cross-border area, as the results of the ANOVA showed. These results reinforce the idea that many people, especially tourists, are interested in border areas (Timothy, 2001).

After the analysis, the results show that the relationship between perceived of low levels of crowding and satisfaction is the weakest in the entire model, even though it is confirmed. Studies in other contexts have obtained stronger results for this relationship (Palau-Saumell et al., 2014). These authors measured the relationship between perceived crowding and satisfaction in a scuba diving context, where the space is regulated and controlled and a maximum number of scuba divers are doing the activity at the same time.

That could be one possible explanation for the greater influence of perceived crowding with satisfaction found in their research (Palau-Saumell et al., 2014) compared with our study. The cross-border area in Nicosia is not regulated and perceived crowding will depend on external factors like which time of the day the visit to the area was, on which day of the week, how many people were working at the time, how many windows were available, how many tourists were waiting to cross to the other side and so on. All these external factors are uncontrollable for the tourists who are visiting the cross-border area, and certainly will influence their experience positively or negatively. Also, the differences between an open space and being underwater have to be pointed out.

What it is also important to acknowledge is the fact that when you are going to scuba dive, you are aware of the maximum number of people you will share the activity with, and furthermore, all the people conducting the activity have similar skills and abilities at a certain level. This does not happen in an open space, where different people without similarities meet at the same time. When people perceive a low level of crowding in a specific space, the influence on their satisfaction is high. So, in a regulated activity with a certain number of people conducting it at the same time, this influence is higher than in an open space, which is the case for the cross-border area without a regulated number of people. Even so, this relation has to be explored. Another possible explanation for these less significant results between the relationship of crowding and satisfaction is that somehow the nature of the activity can be involved as well as the perceived risk.

It may be assumed that those practicing scuba diving will have less perception of risk, because they have special abilities or skills in order to conduct the activity. On the other hand, tourists visiting the cross-border area are not necessarily knowledgeable about the area; or by the time they were crossing more people were there or fewer windows were open, so the queues were longer; and that could also explain the weaker relationship among perceived crowding and satisfaction and behavioral intentions.

Crossing borders can be related to curiosity, or to the fact of collecting places, and normally tourists visiting these areas are motivated or perceive risk differently. However, other cross-border areas have become attractions that have to be visited, and if we have inappropriate knowledge of the area, our experience can be different. So, if we visit the area just at the precise time when there are more people, our feeling of crowding may increase.

Crowding is a very subjective construct and depends on the emotions felt during the visit. That will influence satisfaction and also behavioral intentions. If tourists feel negative emotions, their influence on satisfaction will be lower. This can also affect the recommendations given to other people. Moreover, this emotional evaluation will be related to the importance of crowding in the activity conducted. Sometimes, the fact of visiting crowded places when entrance or access is difficult can give some appeal to the activity, and result in crowding being positively, more highly and more strongly evaluated. So in this case whether low crowding has a direct and positive influence on satisfaction and on behavioral intentions should be explored in terms of higher levels of crowding, in line with the hedonistic perspective of the activity. In other words, the fact of perceived low levels of crowding when crossing the area could have negatively affected the overall satisfaction of those visiting the area, removing some appeal from the activity. For those people who have to cross the area for utilitarian purposes, for instance to go to work, a low level of crowding has a higher impact on satisfaction and also on behavioral intentions.

The positive relationship between crowding and behavioral intentions is a contribution of our study. This relationship has not been tested before. The hypothesis was taken from previous studies were high levels of crowding affected negatively behavioral intentions. The contribution in that study is the opposite, if the contrary effect occurs, low levels of crowding will affect positively behavioral intentions.

Sensation-seeking has been confirmed partially in the model as having a direct influence on satisfaction, but not on behavioral intentions. One possible argument or explanation could be that sensation-seekers looking for novelty rarely return to destinations they have visited, because their aim is to visit more and more places. That could be the reason why the relationship between sensation-seeking and behavioral intentions was not supported. Thus, more research on this construct should be conducted to understand it better, especially in the decision-making process when choosing a destination. Sensation-seekers have a great desire to visit non-familiar places, to look for different and rare destinations, which can be considered strange places to be explored. Cross-border areas have this appeal, no matter where they are located. Sensation-seekers will visit them (Butler, 1996), but once the visit has been completed, they have to seek new destinations. That could be a possible explanation of why sensation-seeking has a positive and direct relationship with satisfaction, but not with behavioral intentions. In general, sensation-seeking has been related mainly to adventure activities and perceived risk. In fact, tourists visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia considered crossing to the other side a risky activity. They considered that the most valued item of sensation-seeking, and also considered the area a strange place to explore.

Knowing the specific nature of those tourists, the relationship between sensation-seeking and behavioral intentions could be analyzed differently, with a specific focus on worth of mouth instead of putting the focus on the willingness to revisit the destination. If satisfaction is achieved, those tourists can recommend the destination to others, thus satisfaction can mediate this relationship. Sensation-seeking is a construct with a high component of subjectivity. Personal characteristics are very important. Sensation-seeking has been related to risk and also to age. It seems that when we are getting old our preferences change and we perceive risk differently. Studies (Xu et al., 2012) have demonstrated that other social variables can affect sensation-seeking or novelty in certain activities. Besides age, being childless or the level of income seems to have a great deal of influence on sensation-seekers. Therefore, the lens of analysis of this construct can change, and new sociocultural variables can be investigated. Income could be important in terms of fulfilling teenage dreams in the sense that maybe the activity was not conducted before, not because of perceived risk or seeking novelty, but only because of money. And being childless relates to the fact of responsibilities towards others, so it is understandable that risk is perceived differently.

Information could be another variable to explore in terms of visiting strange and unusual places. Sometimes information is not accessible and not easy to get. Information itself could also play an important role, because it can add more mystery to the activity and make it more desirable to visit the place once you obtain it. Previous information on the cross-border area could increase satisfaction with the visit, as was demonstrated in the study of storm-chasing tourists conducted by Xu et al. (2012).

Our sample was divided into two groups, of high and low expectations. The findings demonstrated that expectations have an influence that moderates the relationships among all the constructs of the model. Relationships with the moderating role of expectations tended to be stronger in all the relationships compared with the general model. Expectations have an important role in mediating the relationship and should not be taken for granted. They exercised an influence in all the different stages of the visit to the cross-border area, and therefore can help gain a better understanding of the behavioral intentions of those visiting it. Academics should use them to moderate the relationship not only in regard to satisfaction but also to test if they match better as a mediator rather than an antecedent of the formation of satisfaction, because they also have an important role in the previous stages of the visit, for example with regard to information. When tourists have less prior knowledge of the service they will consume, the effect on expectations tends to be lower (Fornell et al., 1996).

The general results have shown that both groups behave differently in terms of attitude (value and satisfaction); they do not have the same predisposition before the behavior, in the moment of behaving, both groups act differently while they are consuming the cross-border area, and also they have different reactions after visiting the cross-border area, reacting differently to the experience through their behavioral intentions.

Tourists with higher expectations valued their visit to the cross-border area much more highly. That confirms their expectations, which were high; therefore, tourists valued their visit in line with their personal and previous thoughts.

The model with the moderator effect of higher expectations has been totally corroborated, as all the relationships of the model were supported, and values were greater among all the relationships. That reaffirms the contribution to the theoretical framework, because without the moderating role of expectations, which in this case was high, the relationships were not all supported; and not only that, they were strong.

The relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intention is stronger, in line with studies contrasting with the general model. A possible explanation could be that expectations have been covered, so the evaluation of the visit is in line with your previous thoughts and expectations. That is very important, because if the expectations were high and tourists are satisfied, their willingness to recommend and revisit is also high, meaning that the cross-border area is worth it.

With regard to value, those with high expectations have a stronger relationship with satisfaction and with behavioral intentions. Value has more impact on the satisfaction with the visit rather than on the intentions. That means that expectations again were covered in terms of considering the area value for money. The larger number of tourists the cross-border area can have, the more risk it will face in not being valuable.

High expectations explain better the relationship between satisfaction and behavioral intentions. Thus, expectations play an important role in moderating this relationship. And with regard to behavioral intentions, in the post-consumption stage those with higher expectations will recommend the cross-border area. Expectations have been achieved and therefore the visit to the cross-border area has been worth it in the attitudinal approach (value satisfaction), in the behavioral approach (satisfaction), and in post-consumption through their willingness to recommend and revisit.

Sensation-seeking has a positive influence on satisfaction and also on behavioral intentions. In the former relationship the results are very similar to the general model. On the other hand, the relation between sensation-seeking and behavioral intentions was not supported in the general model; with the moderating role of high expectations it is supported, and slightly more strongly. As cross-border areas can be seen as strange places and places to collect for their uniqueness or novelty, it is not strange to understand that once sensation-seekers have experienced one they will recommend it without using satisfaction as the path to achieve it, as is the case in the general model.

As already mentioned, tourists with low expectations behave differently to those with high expectations. People with low expectations have a broader area of tolerance, therefore they are more difficult to please, and this is confirmed in the relations among all the constructs (Wong & Dioko, 2013).

Those tourists with low expectations were surprised to find reasonable levels of crowding, or they were surprised that they did not perceive crowding while they were in the area. That can be related to the control of flows, and also be very connected to the moment when they were crossing. That construct results in a function different from all the rest, where tourists with higher expectations had more influence. On the other hand, those with high expectations have a tighter area of tolerance and, if the value of the service meets their desired level, are easier to make content or to please (Wong & Dioko, 2013). They had the strongest relationship between crowding and satisfaction, and crowding and behavioral intentions. So again, this confirms that value is an antecedent of satisfaction and also positively influences behavioral intentions.

With regard to sensation-seeking, for those tourists with low expectations that does not have an influence on satisfaction and it has a lower one on behavioral intentions. Low expectations do not have a positive relationship with satisfaction.

That could be related to the very nature of the construct. As a subjective evaluation, sensation-seekers are looking for novelty, to avoiding getting restless, to know about the area and so on, and tourists with low expectations do not seem to fit this description of sensation-seekers. Sensation seekers know what they are looking for, in terms of consuming the experience. Those with low expectations do not have previous thoughts or information to contrast their experience with, and that could be a possible explanation for the relationship between sensation-seeking and satisfaction not being supported, and also for the weak relationship between sensation-seeking and behavioral intentions.

As previously mentioned, this model has been partially corroborated in the sample as a whole, and confirmed in its totality with the moderator effect of expectations. Thus, the important role of expectations is confirmed for those tourists visiting the cross-border area of Nicosia in terms of positive influence among all the constructs of the model. This investigation then contributes to the knowledge of the cross-border area in testing and confirming this model. As the results suggest, there are some questions that can be studied, such as the importance of satisfaction in tourist behavioral research, or new ones that consider expectations as a key construct to take into consideration in this field of research.

7.2 CONCLUSIONS

This dissertation has documented that cross-border tourism studies have been focused on different perspectives. In general, studies have been based on geographical and economic perspectives as well as with regard to political issues. What has additionally been shown are different categories in terms of relationships, which led us to different scenarios. Therefore, if two cross-border areas are in contact, their relationships and possibilities for cooperation and collaboration are higher. Through formal or informal contacts, the mental border disappears or, at least, it is to a lesser degree.

From the literature review, different categories were found. The review was done qualitatively, in accordance with the methodology most common used by all researchers who analyzed cross-border tourism. From this, we were able to identify six main categories. They were found to be those that were most researched: cooperation, collaboration, tourism development, political issues and the role of tourism in reconciliation, peace development, and shopping. One topic may lead to another once the first has been achieved. For example, once cooperation has been achieved between both sides of the border, the natural step to follow is collaboration if it transpires. Alternatively, what may also ensue is that due to cooperation, political issues may have changed, among other questions.

Tourism has been perceived as an important activity in cross-border areas, and the majority of cases have been used to enhance the area economically through the development of tourism activities. What has been confirmed is that several actions taken due to cooperation between both sides of the border whether at national, international, regional or local level, are not directly related to tourism, yet they are related indirectly.

The same happens with tourism in peace development or reconciliation. It has been demonstrated through the literature that tourism is a beneficiary of peace, but not necessarily the objective of it.

The classification of this volume research has led to the perspective that much research using quantitative methods can give another approximation to this field of research. As well as this, finally, it could be that what is most important is the fact that the majority of the studies are focused on the supply side rather than the demand side. Most of them are a review of a particular case study, concluding with some good practices and a few recommendations to be followed by the agents involved in the case. This is not something bad to emphasize, if not for the fact that little evidence has been found in terms of monitoring these initiatives. For example, it could be beneficial after analyzing a case study to show if some political issues have occurred, or changes in the borders have happened, in order to monitor these new situations. Or simply to follow the lead scoring of these recommendations of best practices, to see whether they have been achieved or not, or just to know whether they have actually worked or even been applied. This is a gap, which in our perspective is important for research in general and in cross-border tourism research in particular.

Another conclusion indicates that most research puts the focus on the supply perspective. It could be said that, after the classification of the volume studies in relation to the cross-border area, the only one related to the demand side could be considered to be the subsection called shopping. However, it needs to be taken into consideration that this concept has been widely criticized by certain authors (Lord et al., 2004) who do not consider shopping as a tourism activity. Leaving aside this category, little evidence is found analyzing other aspects of cross-border tourism, in relation to consumer behavior or the demand side. That is why a subsection under this name was created in the review. Due to this lack of research or gap in the research, the lack of this approach was perceived.

This is important for our investigation. That is why we are analyzing cross-border tourism from a consumer perspective, from the demand side. Thanks to this review, it has been possible to confirm the lack of research from the consumer perspective in cross-border areas, and also the lack of studies conducted in cross-border areas analyzing simultaneously the relationships among sensation-seeking, perceived crowding, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions of tourists visiting a cross-border area. This investigation has contributed to filling this gap in this research field.

A model of causal relationships among sensation-seeking, perceived crowding, perceived value, satisfaction and behavioral intentions was proposed and subsequently tested. The relationships of the model have been partially corroborated. That is, all the relations of the model have been corroborated, except the one between sensation-seeking and behavioral intentions. Those who are looking for sensation-seeking must be satisfied with their visit to the cross-border area in order to recommend it to others or to revisit the area in the future. That means that the relationship between sensation-seeking and behavioral intentions is not direct and has to be achieved through satisfaction.

With regards to sensation-seeking, a direct relation with satisfaction is found, whereas there is an indirect one between behavioral intentions.

As for perceived crowding, the relationship between this construct and satisfaction has been positive and direct, and also a direct relationship with behavioral intentions has been shown to be positive as well. Value is the construct with the strongest relation with satisfaction and also behavioral intentions, so the results showed that this is supported and direct among these constructs.

All these relations are in accordance with previous studies of consumer behavior at festivals (Lee et al., 2011), coastal destinations (Yoon & Uysal, 2005) and urban destinations (Forgas et al., 2012), amongst others. And the robustness of the model is proved and also its' functionality. That confirms that the relations achieved were also positive in the context of a cross-border area such as Nicosia, thereby improving knowledge of cross-border tourist behavioral intentions launched by previous studies (Lee et al., 2007, Lee et al., 2012).

An innovative contribution has been made with the approximation of including expectations as a moderator effect in all the simultaneous relations as well as testing the general model. There is a lack of evidence in cross-border studies that have analyzed these relations with the moderating effect of expectations, differentiating those tourists with high and low expectations in regard to their visit to the cross-border area of Nicosia. Tourists with high expectations resulted in valuing their visit more than those with low expectations, as is seen in the results section.

That happens in the majority of the relations, except in perceived crowding with satisfaction and behavioral intentions, where tourists with low expectations obtained better values. A low level of perceived crowding, due to an efficient organization of queues or the flow of tourists, leads to the satisfaction of tourists visiting the cross-border area.

The research results established that those tourists seeking novelty, risk and escape from their routine are more satisfied with their visit to a cross-border area hence they are willing to recommend and revisit it. In contrast, those tourists with low expectations are not. The same happens with the relationship between value and satisfaction. Tourists with higher expectations have a positive and direct relation with satisfaction and behavioral intentions, more so than those with lower expectations, who have a positive and direct relation but one that is less intense. Continuing with the same argument, those tourists with high expectations have a direct and positive relation between satisfaction and behavioral intention which once again is much more intense than those tourists with low expectations.

With regard to satisfaction and behavioral intentions, the findings confirm that tourists with high expectations are willing to recommend and revisit the cross-border area more than those with low expectations. Relations again in this case are confirmed and reinforced.

With regard to sensation-seeking, only those with high expectations accomplish this, as they are those who are seeking risk, novelty or are escaping from their daily routine.

7.3 IMPLICATIONS, LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

In addition to the theoretical aspects, there are several practical implications of this research. The results show that the tourists in the study visited the cross-border area despite a lack of promotion by the official tourism entities, both north and south, with a higher value perception influencing the tourists' satisfaction with the visit, and also their promotion via word of mouth, recommendations and intentions to revisit the area. This is of special importance because, if cooperation exists between both sides, political borders offer the possibility of reconnecting (Sofield, 2006) with attractions, natural spaces and heritage from both sides, as well as the opportunity to develop economic proposals, such as shopping malls or entertainment venues (Gelbman, 2008). However, Mansfeld and Korman (2015) affirmed that tourism development will also continue in conflict border areas even if cooperation between the sides is non-existent.

Agents working in both checkpoints should work harder to improve the traffic flow in order to avoid the perception of overcrowding among tourists who visit the cross-border area of Nicosia. In this sense, as the results suggest, any improvement of the traffic flow would influence tourists with lower expectations more than tourists with higher expectations. Therefore, their satisfaction and behavioral intentions would be improved. In contrast, as soon as political agreements can be reached, the cooperation between both sides would improve the tourism attributes in the cross-border area. Consequently, this improvement would affect more strongly the impact of satisfaction and behavioral intentions among tourists with higher expectations.

Both for companies and promoters of the area, it may be important to take into consideration the fact that tourists value the cross-border area more positively than other attractions on the island. Maintaining the atmosphere and the good value for money would be important to satisfy those tourists with high expectations of the area. None of the DMOs promotes the area as a tourist attraction. The area has much to offer as a unique partitioned city. The area not only is a commercial district for the capital, it also can offer a lot of cultural heritage. Yet tourists visiting the area do not appreciate it, and for them the visit is not more valuable than other attractions on the island. For Nicosia this is not a good thing, because the city cannot compete with the coastal destinations, especially during the summer, where the tourist offers tend to be more limited in the city due to the weather conditions. In the end, tourists want to find the same resources provided for them and for the local people. And also they want tourism to be part of the diversity of the area (Ilbery et al., 2007).

Zuckermann (1994) and Litvin (2008) postulated that differences among gender and age are significant when analyzing sensation-seeking. In order to improve the sensation-seeking of those tourists visiting the cross-border area, the model can be moderated by sociodemographic features, instead of expectations. A priori this does make a great deal of sense, because our preferences and tastes are changing through time, they are not static. However, Xu et al. (2012) demonstrated in their research that aspects such as marital status, gender and income were more related to sensation-seeking. Understanding sensation-seeking is important for both practitioners and researchers, because they could include some adventurous activities or plans in their products or services by taking into account the differences mentioned. Considering that 38.3% of tourists visiting the cross-border area answered that their income was above the average, and 6.8% a long way above the average.

Using signs and interpretative instruments to outline to tourists the historical facts pertaining to the area will serve to increase its value and encourage a greater flow of visitors, which will in turn affect the economy on both sides, especially for small and medium-size enterprises. This success factor has already occurred in the creation of tourist destinations such as the “Destination Arctic Circle” on the border between Finland and Sweden (Prokkola, 2007, 2010), or the recovery of touristic attractions such as the Alps–Adriatic Trail between Croatia, Austria and Italy (Wohlmuther et al., 2014).

Models such as that of Ireland might also be followed; the island is promoted as a single destination, including Northern Ireland and the Republic of Ireland (Greer, 2002). Thus, cooperation between both sides could serve to increase tourism development in the north, which has been clearly unbalanced in favor of the south (Ioannides & Apostolopoulos, 1999; Sönmez & Apostolopoulos, 2000) due to its political situation.

As with any study, the findings should be considered in light of their limitations. One limitation pertains to the timespan of data collection. Data collection throughout the year would be interesting for further research, in order to verify whether the results are maintained. Another limitation is the context of the study, which may limit the generalization of the results. These results may vary if the survey were to be conducted in another cross-border area. It would also be interesting to confirm the model by sampling from cross-border tourists in other areas.

The Green Line will continue to exist as long as there is no political agreement between North and South to change the current political status quo. Therefore, in the meantime, international tourists should be encouraged to visit via promotion of the cross-border area, since if governments embrace cooperation along their borders, tourism flows can be facilitated. Nowadays, there seems to be from both parties the intention of reunification of the island, and those who are optimistic think that by the beginning of 2016 that will be a reality.

As the area will continue being the same, another key issue for the research could be to interview tourists visiting the area with similar questions. That would help us to analyze whether tourists perceived any difference between the situation after the reunification and before it. That will help us to confirm what Gelbman and Timothy (2010) said with regard to borders, that the most closed and hostile borders can turn into the most benevolent and the most visited, making Cyprus a new case study to be analyzed, like the Berlin Wall and its Checkpoint Charlie.

What we are trying to say is that if finally the island ends in reunification, it would be very interesting for research to analyze tourists' behavior while they visit Nicosia, to see if their evaluations are different, similar or equal to when the city was divided and the cross-border area existed.

As seen at the beginning of this thesis, borders have a perception component, and sometimes are more mental than physical. If finally reunification or a federal situation arrives, a similar study taking into consideration these mental borders in the same area could be very interesting for both sides of the island. In the end, the construction of nation-states is the mental fruit of mutual understanding. With a well-balanced management of borders tourism development can occur, and contact between host-guest and residents from the two sides could be much better. In the end, it all starts with ourselves and the way we are capable of sorting our own mental borders.

It would not be honest if in this section the author did not include as future research the fact that it would be very interesting to test the model with tourism in the same area by the time conversations about a federal solution or a reunification have ended. That would be the best possible end and beginning of this investigation, giving the opportunity for this research to be uniquely doubled.

If that ends up happening, this research will also be limited and unique at the same time, because no replication through time could be realized. It could be very interesting, though, to conduct it again once a solution had been established and to observe the differences, or to observe or emphasize the physical and mental borders.

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