

THE BRANDING OF TOURIST DESTINATIONS

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THE BRANDING OF TOURIST DESTINATIONS: THEORETICAL AND EMPIRICAL INSIGHTS

EDITED BY

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INVESTOR IN PEOPLE

Dedicated to my wife Adriana and to our special kids, Michela and Sam

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Preface

The marketing of tourist destinations requires continuous strategic planning and decision making. Therefore, this authoritative book provides students and practitioners with a good understanding of different tourism products, marketing strategies and tactics on destination branding, as well as useful insights on sustainable and responsible tourism practices, among other topics. The readers are equipped with a strong pedagogical base on the attractiveness of tourist destinations as this publication presents contemporary conceptual discussions and empirical studies on several aspects of destination branding. They will appreciate that the tourism marketers, including destination management organisations (DMOs), are formulating strategies and tactics to attract prospective visitors. Hence, this book also sheds light on the latest industry developments in travel, tourism, hospitality and events in different contexts around the world.

Chapter 1 describes the marketing environment of the travel and tourism businesses. It explains that tourism marketers should consider macro-aspects, including political, economic, social and technological influences, as well as micro-factors, including capital structures, resources, capabilities and marketing intermediaries.

Chapter 2 provides an explanation of destination marketing, place branding and their related notions. The authors critically review the conceptual developments on the branding of tourist destinations.

Chapter 3 suggests that destination management organisations ought to engage in fruitful relationships with internal and external stakeholders. The authors maintain that there are several factors that can affect the strategic management of these organisations.

Chapter 4 explores how Sweden is branding its destinations by improving its cultural identity and by providing multi-sensory experiences to its visitors.

Chapter 5 sheds light on the agritourism businesses in Italy's Campania region. The author analyses the main critical success factors for a thriving rural tourism market.

Chapter 6 explains the key elements of cultural tourism, including the destination's heritage, lifestyle and 'Made in Italy'. The authors put forward a tourism development model. They suggest that it represents a functional framework for the benefit of tourism practitioners.

Chapter 7 explores the consumer-based brand equity of events. The authors explain how the organisation of events, including music festivals, could add value

to the destinations' image. They imply that the visitors' positive experiences and their word-of-mouth publicity can contribute to the destinations' branding.

Chapter 8 explores the destination branding of Porto in Portugal. The authors analyse the visitors' attitudes on Porto's largest wine festival. They assess their visitors' level of satisfaction with the event and their intention to return.

Chapter 9 identifies the key elements that serve as drivers for the development of oleotourism in Jaen, Spain. The authors suggest that there is scope in stakeholder engagement among the main actors and drivers in the sector.

Chapter 10 investigates the environmental behaviour of three-, four- and five-star hotels in Azuay, Ecuador. The authors explored the relationship between environmental responsibility and stakeholder engagement. Their findings suggest that the hotel managers strive in their endeavours to implement responsible environmental practices to avoid regulatory pressures.

Chapter 11 examines the relationship between the country image and brand equity. The author contends that the tourists' hedonic and monetary values can have a moderating effect on the country-of-origin's image and brand extension.

Chapter 12 investigates the relationship between the customers' satisfaction, commitment, trust and loyalty towards hospitality brands. It develops and empirically test the social identity construct (customer brand identification and other critical social exchange constructs (satisfaction, trust and commitment).

This publication was written by academics for other scholars, researchers, advanced under-graduate and post-graduate students. However, it is also relevant to the industry practitioners, including consultants, senior executives and managers who work for DMOs, tourism offices, hotels, inbound/outbound tour operators and travel agents, among others. The book explains all the theory and the empirical studies in a simple and straightforward manner. It describes the various marketing environments that comprise a wide array of economic, socio-cultural and environmental realities.

Chapter 1

The Marketing Environment of Tourist Destinations

Mark Anthony Camilleri

Abstract

The tourism marketing environment consists of internal and external forces which could impact the organisations' performance. To be successful, companies must adapt to ongoing trends and developments in their macro- and micro-environments. When organisations scan their marketing environment, they will be in a position to deal with any possible threats from the market and to capitalise on any available opportunities. Therefore, this chapter explains the external environmental factors of tourist destinations, including political, economic, social and technological influences. It also considers their internal environmental factors, including capital structures, resources, capabilities and marketing intermediaries, as it identifies competitive forces from differentiated or low-cost service providers.

Keywords: Tourism marketing; destination marketing; marketing environment; competitive forces; tourism macro-environment; tourism micro-environments; environmental scanning

Introduction

A sound knowledge of the customer requirements is an essential ingredient for any successful business. For this reason, destination management organisations (DMOs) should consistently monitor their marketing environment. The marketing environment is continuously changing, as it consists of a number of unpredictable forces which surround the company.

As well as conducting a thorough analysis of the actual marketing environment, the tourism businesses must investigate the conditions in which they

operate. The regulatory and competitive conditions as well as other market forces, including political, economic, social and technological forces, could affect the organisational performance of the tourism businesses. Hence, this chapter will look into some of these issues. The tourism industry is highly influenced by economic factors, including strong exchange rate fluctuations, the price of oil and other commodities, among other matters. Moreover, social factors including global concerns about safety and security could influence tourist behaviours. Notwithstanding, the regulatory environments will also have an impact on tourism and airline businesses (Belobaba, Odoni, & Barnhart, 2015). For instance, the airline industry's deregulation and liberalisation has created numerous opportunities for many airlines, including low-cost carriers (LCCs). At the same time, it has threatened inefficient airlines that have been protected by regulation.

Undoubtedly, competition is a vitally important element in the marketing environment and it should not be underestimated. The businesses competitors comprise suppliers of substitute products. They may be new entrants in the marketplace. Alternatively, they may include customers and suppliers who were stakeholders of the business. In this light, tourism marketers, including DMOs should be knowledgeable of different business models as competition can take different forms, like for example, differentiated, full-service companies or low-cost service providers. For these reasons, organisations should have effective mechanisms to monitor the latest developments in the marketing environment.

Environmental Scanning

Environmental scanning entails the collection of information relating to the various forces within the marketing environment. This involves the observation and examination of primary and secondary sources of information, including online content from business, trade, media and the government, among others. The environmental analysis is the process of assessing and interpreting the information gathered. An ongoing analysis of the gathered data may be carried out by marketing managers or by researchers who have been commissioned to conduct market research. Through analysis, marketing managers can attempt to identify extant environmental patterns and could even predict future trends. By evaluating trends and tendencies, the marketing managers should be able to determine possible threats and opportunities that are associated with environmental fluctuations. When discussing the 'marketing environment' we must consider both the external environment (i.e. the macro-environment) as well as the internal environment (i.e. the micro-environment) (Kotler, Armstrong, Frank, & Bunn, 1990).

The Macro-Environment

The tourism businesses must constantly assess the marketing environment. It is crucial for their survival and achievement of their long-term economic goals. Therefore, marketing managers must engage in environmental scanning and analysis. Most firms are comfortable assessing the political climates in their home countries. However, the evaluation of political climates in foreign territories is far more problematic

for them. Experienced international businesses engage in political risk assessment, as they need to carry out ongoing systematic analyses of the political risks they face in foreign countries. Political risks are any changes in the political environment that may adversely affect the value of any firm’s business activities. Most political risks may result from governmental actions, such as the passage of laws that expropriate private property, an increase in operating costs, the devaluation of the currency or constraints in the repatriation of funds, among others. Political risks may also arise from non-governmental actions when there is criminality (e.g. kidnappings, extortion and acts of terrorism, etc.). Political risks may equally affect all firms or may have an impact on particular sectors, as featured in Table 1.1. Non-governmental political risks should also be considered. For example, Disneyland Paris and McDonalds have been the target of numerous symbolic protests by French farmers, who view them as a convenient target for venting their unhappiness with US international agricultural policies. In some instances, protests could turn violent and may even force firms to shut down their operations, in particular contexts.

International corporations who intend to invest in different markets should consider asking these simple questions: is the host country business-friendly? Is its government a democracy or a dictatorship? Is the authoritative power concentrated in the hands of one person or on one political party? Does the country rely on the free market or on governmental controls to allocate resources? How much of a contribution is the private sector expected to make in helping the government achieve its overall economic objectives? Does the government view foreign firms as a means of promoting or hindering its economic goals? When making

Table 1.1: Typical Examples of Political Risks.

Type	Impact on Firms
Expropriation	Loss of future profits
Confiscation	Loss of assets and loss of profits
Campaigns against businesses	Loss of sales, increased costs of public relation and efforts to improve public image
Mandatory labour benefits legislation	Increased operating costs
Kidnappings, terrorist threats and other forms of violence	Increased security costs, increased managerial costs and lower productivity
Civil wars	Destruction of property, lost sales and increased security costs
Inflation	Higher operating costs
Repatriation	Inability to transfer funds freely
Currency devaluations	Reduced value of repatriated earnings
Increased taxation	Lower after-tax profits

Source: Adapted from Camilleri (2018a).

changes in its policies, does the government act arbitrarily, or does it rely on the rule of law? How stable is the existing government? If it leaves office, are there going to be any drastic changes in the economic policies of the new government? Firms should always contemplate (research) these issues before entering into a new market. They should be knowledgeable about the host country's political and economic structures, in order to minimise uncertainty and unnecessary risks. Appendix provides a good background on the aviation industry's regulatory environment.

A political, economic, social and technological (PEST) analysis provides a useful framework to analyse macro-environmental factors. The businesses should carefully analyse these issues before considering their expansion in a different country through foreign direct investment.

Political, Legal and Regulatory Issues

The political analysis relates to how governments influence the companies' strategy and operations. The political environment encompasses laws, government agencies and pressure groups which could have an effect on tourism organisations and entrepreneurs. Such factors include national politics on financial matters, including foreign debt, rates of inflation (i.e. increase in prices) and recession; policies and regulatory legislation on reciprocal trade and foreign investment; travel restrictions, the governments' tourism policies; as well as ecological considerations, among other issues.

Political, legal and regulatory issues can affect the viability of tourism firms. Therefore, any prospective changes in the governments' priorities (e.g. public spending) or a change in government can lead to the opening-up or the closing of markets. The business activity tends to grow and thrive when a nation is politically stable. National governments and their legal systems could facilitate or hinder businesses, in many areas. Therefore, any political changes are closely related with the legal and economic matters (e.g. employment laws, minimum wage laws, health and safety laws, zoning regulations, environmental protection laws, consumer protection laws, tax laws, etc.). For instance, new European Union regulations have led to greater levels of competition in European aviation. However, many stakeholders are concerned about the environmental impact from airlines.

Many nations are increasingly encouraging free trade by inviting firms to invest in their country, while allowing their domestic firms to engage in overseas business. These nations may decide not to impose conditions on imports, or they would not discriminate against foreign-based firms. On the other hand, there are other governments who may oppose free trade. The most common form of trade restrictions is the tariff (i.e. a tax that is placed on imported goods). Tariffs or levies are usually established to protect domestic manufacturers against competitors by raising the prices of imported goods. Multinational firms may face the risk of expropriation. This happens when the government will take ownership of land, buildings and/or other fixed assets; sometimes, without compensating the rightful owners for their loss. When there is the risk of expropriation, multinational firms will be at the mercy of foreign administrations. Unstable governments may have

the authority to change their laws and regulations at any point in time, to meet their needs.

Very often, the best sources of information are their own employees. Whether they are citizens of the business' home country or of their host country, employees possess first-hand knowledge of the local issues, and are a valuable source of risk information. The views of local staff should be supplemented with the views from outsiders. The government, embassy officials, international chambers and industry associations are often rich sources of information. Many governments will usually signal their economic and political agendas during their political campaigns before being elected in parliament. Once in office, several governments continue to provide useful information about their current and future plans. Moreover, numerous consulting firms specialise in political risk assessment. Their role is to assist those firms who are considering foreign direct investment, those who would like to penetrate into a particular market. To reduce the risk of foreign operations, many developed countries have created government-owned or government-sponsored organisations which insure firms against political risks. For instance, the Overseas Private Investment Corporation insures US overseas investments against nationalisation. The Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency, a subsidiary of the World Bank, provides similar insurance against political risks. Private insurance firms such as Lloyds of London also underwrite political risk insurance.

The Economic Issues

The economic analysis will involve an examination of the foreign countries' monetary, fiscal and economic policies. The factors affecting consumer purchasing and spending patterns include wealth per capita, discretionary income, industrial development, currency restrictions, balance of payments, leave of imports/exports, fluctuations in interest and foreign exchange rates, among other issues. The exchange rate of a country's currency represents its value in relation to that of another country's currency. Currency rates fluctuate on a daily basis, thus creating high risks for many industries, including the travel and hospitality sectors. Tourism businesses will be more encouraged to expand and to take calculated risks when economic conditions are right. For example, when there are low interest rates, and when they are experiencing rising demand. Rising incomes and higher standards of living have often translated to more disposable money on luxuries like long-haul travel and other hedonic behaviours.

Social Issues

A social analysis delves into societal behaviours, customs, values, norms, lifestyles and preferences. Demographic factors, including the age structure of the population may also change over time (e.g. there are many developed countries that are already having an ageing population). Moreover, social issues could also comprise the cultural environment, which is influenced by the individual population's size, race, religious beliefs, gender, family, education, occupation and the individual's

position in the social strata, among other variables. Institutions could influence society's basic values, perceptions and preferences. For instance, there may be changes in consumer behaviours which could be attributed to trending fashions and styles. Climate and seasonal variations could also affect consumer behaviours and their travelling propensity. Of course, there may be other factors that could affect the consumers' inclination to travel, including credit facilities and attitudes, competition from other spending behaviours, etc. In addition, social issues may also relate to distances to be travelled, urban versus rural lifestyles and attitudes to travel, emigration, school vacation periods, perceptions on international commuting, etc.

Tourism marketers ought to be sensitive to different social issues. A good understanding of societal changes could help them position their business and to anticipate market demands. For the time being, many countries are experiencing a surge in popularity, particularly in short-break itineraries. This has inevitably led to a boom in demand for tourism products in the off-peak and low seasons. At the same time, airports and airlines are striving in their endeavours to improve their levels of security, in the wake of the latest terrorist attacks. Currently, there is also the possibility that the US government could ban laptops from aircraft. Other social factors that must be taken into consideration include civil wars, assassinations or kidnappings of foreign people. These contingent matters are equally dangerous for the viability of the tourism firms' operations.

Technological Issues

A technological analysis is required as marketers need to keep themselves up-to-date with the latest innovations in the tourism industry. Like any other business, the tourism firms, including airlines are affected by new technologies, which could create new products and market opportunities (Gretzel, Werthner, Koo, & Lamsfus, 2015; Sigala, 2018). For example, larger and faster aircraft which are more pleasing to the customer, as well as airport developments and their facilities, including efficient check-in desks, lounges, shuttles and online travel booking sites, among other things, have surely improved the customer experience. Moreover, recently there have been a number of interesting developments in the field of airport security. The need for quicker, seamless processing and baggage checks has led the Transportation Security Administration to explore the possibility of new security lanes. There have also been significant efforts to improve the accuracy of threat detection. New emerging technologies are providing better security and can also help to enhance the passenger experience. Recently, many airlines are also considering the introduction of facial recognition devices that may be used for the boarding of passengers.

The rapid pace of technological change has been forcing travel and tourism businesses to spend heavily to remain on the cutting edge. This way they could serve their customers better. In the 1990s, many full-service, legacy airlines have introduced elaborate reservation systems which enabled them to improve their services to passengers. Subsequently, they introduced big data, analytics and

customer relationship management systems that have improved their customer-centric approaches. In addition, many airlines, particularly, the full-service carriers have established sophisticated frequent flyer programmes, as they forged industry partnerships and/or code-sharing agreements with other carriers.

Recently, the uses of digital media, electronic databases and interactive communications have enabled vast quantities of information to be shared and distributed online, in an efficient manner. Tourism marketers are increasingly using technology to improve the standards of service. Several innovative DMOs are utilising a range of smart technologies to improve their customer service levels. For instance, KTO Tourist Information Center of Seoul, in South Korea, has adopted a mix of information, communication technologies, including a visitor website with an interactive map featuring pre-arrival information. Facebook, Twitter, Instagram and Snapchat are being used by marketing and public relations executives for customer engagement and wide array of mobile application are being used by many travellers. For instance, the city of Montreal Tourist Office promotes its attractions through an interactive video that provides virtual experiences to tourists; while, Las Vegas Tourism Office provides personalised itineraries and Tourism New Zealand have come up with an interactive trip planner with customisable maps, price ranges and activities. Tourism businesses are increasingly expected to be knowledgeable and proficient in the use of internet (Buhalis & Law, 2008). The ongoing developments in technology and the proliferation of ubiquitous media and mobile communications have affected tourism businesses in many ways. Many customers and prospects are using interactive media to engage with the business in two-way communications. They may also get involved in electronic word-of-mouth publicity (which can be either positive or negative) in social media, and by using review and rating sites like TripAdvisor or Yelp.

The Micro-Environment

Many travel and tourism businesses, including DMOs, are continuously monitoring the countries' political, economic, social and technological changes to reduce their risks. However, the external environmental forces will also affect the organisations' micro-environment. The micro-environment consists of forces which are close to the companies themselves, forces which will affect their ability to serve customers. These forces include the organisations' capital structure, resources, capabilities of management and staff, companies' aims and objectives, the companies' marketing intermediaries, customer markets, competitors and all other stakeholders that may have an interest or an impact on the organisations' ability to achieve their objectives (e.g. financial, media and government stakeholders, among others).

Capital Structure

The organisations' capital structure and how finance is allocated across departments and units will have an effect on the companies' marketing programmes.

Resources

The firms' specific assets are useful for creating a cost or differentiation advantage over other competitors. The organisations' resources may include patents and trademarks, intellectual capital, installed customer bases, reputation and brand equity, among others. For example, the size and type of fleet of aircraft that are owned and controlled by airlines will determine the type of service which they can offer to the market.

Capabilities

The firms' ability to utilise resources is one of their capabilities. When organisations introduce a product to the market before their rivals, they will achieve a competitive advantage. Such capabilities may be embedded in organisational routines and may not be documented as strategic procedures. Moreover, the organisations' structures and the leadership of their various departments, and the relationship between management and staff may not be easily replicated by other businesses. The competitors may not always be in a position to mimic the capabilities of successful businesses.

The firms' resources and capabilities together form their distinctive competences. These competences enable innovation, efficiency, quality and customer responsiveness, all of which can be leveraged to create cost or differentiation advantages.

Company Aims and Objectives

When companies decide which market segments to target, they must carefully evaluate their internal strengths and weaknesses, and communicate their value propositions to their chosen markets.

Marketing Intermediaries

Marketing intermediaries are firms which help companies to promote, sell and distribute their goods or services to customers. When discussing about the tourism industry, tour operators and travel agents will usually act as intermediaries. Therefore, travel and hospitality businesses, including airlines and hotels, need to develop a sound relationship, loyalty and a strong bargaining power with tour operators, travel agents to sell their products. Moreover, the tourism industry and its distribution network are exposed to a number of changing internal and external environmental forces (these have been mentioned in the earlier sections). With technological developments, there may be variations in economies and consumers could become more sophisticated and demanding. For example, today's customers have access to price comparison websites like Google Flights, Kayak, Momondo, TravelSupermarket.com, Expedia, etc.

Identifying Competition

An adequate knowledge and understanding of competitive trends in the market place is necessary, as competition is a vitally important element in the marketing environment (Kotler et al., 1990). The competitive forces determine whether there is profit potential for a specific industry. The starting point of the competitive analysis is the identification of competitors. Porter (1979) identified five forces that govern industry competition: the threat of new entrants, the bargaining power of suppliers, current competitors, the bargaining power of customers and the threat of substitute products or services. According to Porter (1979), the key to growth and survival is to use one's knowledge of these five forces to

stake out a position that is less vulnerable to attack from head-to-head opponents, whether established or new, and less vulnerable to erosion from the direction of buyers, suppliers, and substitute goods.

Such a position, he argues, can be gained by solidifying relationships with profitable customers, by integrating operations or by gaining technical leadership.

In the tourism industry, the suppliers of tourism amenities can exert pressures over other businesses. For instance, these suppliers may refuse to work with the firm or they may charge excessively, high prices for their services. In this day and age, digital media has facilitated offline and online sales as it has provided a platform for interactive communications between businesses and their customers. Moreover, the competition from new entrants has also posed significant threats to businesses (Della Corte & Aria, 2016). The profitable markets that yield high returns will obviously attract new firms. The arrival of new competitors could eventually decrease the profitability for all other incumbent firms within the industry.

For example, the airline industry is a growing one, and extant carriers who fail to enhance their route network may be bypassed by competing airlines (Belobaba et al., 2015). There may be a number of national or LCCs who may be competing for the same customers, on the same route. Furthermore, the bargaining power of customers could also exert pressure on businesses. If a large number of customers ask for lower prices from companies, they will have no other choice but to succumb to their requests. On the other hand, the buyer power is low when the customers act independently. The buyer power is high if the customers have a wide selection of service providers to choose from. When customers are buying in large quantities from a supplier, a temptation exists for the customers to move back along the chain to become direct competitors with the supplier, rather than to remain their customers. This may be the case for those established tour operators who frequently *block* pre-negotiated carrier *seats* or hotel rooms. These travel organisations have grown to a point where it would be more viable and secure for them to set up their own airline or hotel properties. Consequently, they will find themselves competing with the travel and tourism business that originally supplied them.

Analysing Competition

A competitor analysis involves an assessment of the strengths and weaknesses of current and potential competitors. This analysis provides an offensive and defensive strategic context to identify opportunities and threats in the marketplace. Travel and tourism business could profile their competitors into one framework. They need to identify who their competitors are and to determine their strengths and key success factors (e.g. the provision of high-quality services, low-cost operations, route networks, convenient timings, good onward connections, etc.). They should also acquire knowledge on their customers' needs and wants (e.g. business or leisure passengers), including the value propositions that they may offer them.

The generic competitive strategies of cost leadership, differentiation and focus are conspicuous in the airline industry. The legacy carriers usually provide higher quality services as they typically offer first class and business class seating, frequent-flyer programmes and are usually characterised by their exclusive airport lounges. Also, legacy carriers generally have better cabin services, including meal services and inflight entertainment. Whereas, the LCCs, which are also known as no-frills, discount or budget carriers may usually offer lower fares and fewer comforts. To make up for the revenue lost in decreased ticket prices, the LCCs will probably charge for extras such as food, priority boarding, seat allocating and baggage.

Several legacy carriers are also members of established airline networks and alliances that include Star, Oneworld or SkyTeam alliances. During the last 20 years, there were some major mergers and acquisitions among traditional airlines. For instance, in 2015, American Airlines has merged with US Airways; AirTran merged with Southwest a year before; United joined Continental in 2010; and Northwest became part of Delta, back in 2008. These airline mergers have resulted in the consolidation of resources, improved efficiencies, in terms of economies of scale and scope, thereby reducing costs for the new conglomerates. For instance, American Airlines' merger with US Airways has yielded an annual savings of up to \$1.5 billion. Yet, these mergers have often led to reduced competition, higher fares, crowded planes and added baggage fees, at the detriment of customers.

Summary

The tourism marketing environment is made up of a number of unpredictable forces which surround the company. Examples of such forces include political and regulatory issues, economic factors and social and technological developments. By closely monitoring the changing environment, the tourism business and DMOs could be in a position to anticipate certain threats and may possibly capitalise on any available opportunities in the market. They may only do this if they are consistently scanning and analysing their marketing environment. Briefly, environmental scanning involves the collection, observation and examination of information relating to the various forces in the macro (external) and micro (internal) environments. Environmental analysis is the process of assessing and interpreting the gathered information. The marketing managers must be aware of the latest trends and developments. They should continuously monitor

their competitors, as they may take different forms. They may be suppliers of substitute products. They can be new entrants. Alternatively, competition may even come from customers and suppliers. Equally, tourism marketers should be knowledgeable of different business models, as competition is coming from differentiated and low-cost service providers, among others.

Appendix

Competition in the Deregulated Airline Market

Opportunities created by deregulation allow airlines to optimise their route networks (Camilleri, 2018b). New and promising markets can be entered rapidly. Similarly, services can be quickly withdrawn from unprofitable routes and the resources devoted to these markets may be transferred to other developing markets. Deregulation also means that airlines can increase their capacity levels as soon as an increase in demand justifies it. The airlines that incur lower costs than their rivals can afford providing reduced fares. This will enable them to exploit their cost advantages to the full.

It has been argued that deregulation has threatened inefficient airlines. The airlines that operate their services in liberalised markets had to learn to compete with other carriers. To do this, they had to take quick decisions and they also needed access to up-to-date information about the changing marketing environments. This way, they would minimise their rivals' chances to compete against them. For instance, they may use smaller aircraft, improve their service and enhance their route network. If an airline garners control over particular routes, over slots and gate space, they will be in a dominant position in the market, relative to their competitors. The airlines' capability to control its market loyalty, feed traffic and operating costs (including labour costs) are also extremely important factors. The airlines should also defend their brand status at all times.

Today, the airline industry is considered as a service business and must be prepared to operate in a highly competitive environment. No longer will public funds and regulation protect inefficient airlines. In the last few decades, many governments have reduced their direct involvement in the aviation industry. Many European airlines which were previously state-owned have sold their equity stake to private investors. Recently, the European Commission has put forward a comprehensive strategy to strengthen the competitiveness and sustainability of the entire EU air transport network. It has therefore identified three key priorities:

- Tapping into growth markets, by improving services, market access and investment opportunities with third countries, whilst guaranteeing a level playing field;
- Tackling limits to growth in the air and on the ground, by reducing capacity constraints and improving efficiency and connectivity;
- Maintaining high EU safety and security standards, by shifting to a risk and performance based mind-set. (EU, 2015)

Most importantly, the EU airlines have an unprecedented choice of European destinations and they could offer competitive prices to their passengers. The liberalisation of the European aviation industry has led to increased frequencies of domestic and international flights. As a result, the number of passengers travelled has also increased substantially, following the deregulation of markets. Moreover,

low-fare carriers are now among the top airlines, both in terms of passengers and in terms of market capitalisation. For example, there is no limitation on traffic rights within Europe for EU airlines, as long as they have been granted an EU operating licence. However, restrictions and obstacles are still very common outside Europe and in the context of international services and third country markets. The international routes (beyond the EU zone) will usually involve at least two governments. This means that international aviation is negotiated by way of bilateral bargaining.

Air Services Agreements

Agreements between governments relating to scheduled air services are known as air service agreements (ASAs) and they cover many aspects of air services between the countries. One of their primary functions is to regulate traffic rights, in terms of what traffic can be carried and what cannot. Traffic rights are defined under the so-called 'Freedoms of the Air'.

- The First Freedom permits overflying of one country's airspace by airlines from another country. For example, when flying from London to Geneva, the aircraft flies through French air space.
- The Second Freedom allows airlines from the first country to land in a second for non-traffic purposes (e.g. for refuelling). Between friendly nations, the exchange of these non-controversial freedoms is virtually automatic.
- The Third Freedom allows traffic to be carried by the home airline to a foreign country, for example, a flight from London to Paris.
- The Fourth Freedom permits this airline to pick up commercial traffic in the foreign country and to bring it back to its home base.
- The Fifth Freedom is the right to carry traffic between two foreign points. Under the terms of the ASA between the United Kingdom and India, the Indian carrier is granted the right to pick up traffic originating in the United Kingdom and to fly between London and New York. Therefore, the granting of the Fifth Freedom rights is often contentious. Again, where such rights are granted, it is nearly always on a reciprocal basis. In the case of flights offered to Air India, under the terms of the United Kingdom/India ASA, these rights are only given by the UK government because, in return, the Indian government allows Fifth Freedom opportunities for a British carrier to pick up Indian traffic originating in Mumbai, and to fly beyond.
- The Sixth Freedom occurs when airlines fly passengers from outside destinations to their home base, and then from their home base to a point beyond; thus combining Third and Fourth Freedoms. For example, Singapore Airlines (SIA) is an active competitor in the markets between the United Kingdom and Singapore. It also has an agreement with Australia covering the same rights between Singapore and Australia. By combining these sets of rights and using its home base as a refuelling and stopover point, SIA has been able to expand significantly.

Following the granting of traffic rights, ASAs can dictate which gateways can be served by an airline or airlines, from each country. ASAs may also cover frequency and capacity of services. Arguably, the development of the Fifth and Sixth Freedoms has made many of the traditional forms of regulation less significant, in marketing terms. Even in nominally regulated markets, price competition became prevalent with consumers availing discounts in many ways. For example, all routes within the European Union were open to Third, Fourth and Fifth Freedom services. The capacity restrictions have been eased and were completely abolished by 1993. Eventually, greater pricing freedoms became available. The EU commission has been empowered to go ahead with negotiations, initially with the European Free Trade Association and later with others to extend the benefits of LUX II package. Other initiatives are currently being dealt with in possible multi-lateral ASAs.

Open Skies Agreement

Since 1992, the USA's Department of State has pursued an 'open-skies' policy that is designed to eliminate government involvement in airline decision making about routes, capacity and pricing in international markets. Open-Skies agreements also contain provisions governing commercial opportunities, safety, and security issues. The United States has negotiated open-skies agreements with more than 100 aviation partners.

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