

2nd

**International
Scientific
Conference**

1-3 June, 2017

Vrnjačka Banja, Serbia

2

0

1

7

**TOURISM
IN FUNCTION OF DEVELOPMENT
OF THE REPUBLIC OF SERBIA**

Tourism product as a factor of competitiveness of
the Serbian economy and experiences of other countries



**THEMATIC
PROCEEDINGS**

I



**UNIVERSITY OF KRAGUJEVAC
FACULTY OF HOTEL MANAGEMENT
AND TOURISM IN VRNJAČKA BANJA**



EVALUATING PORT WINE ROUTE FAILURE ANTECEDENTS

Darko Dimitrovski¹; Susana Rachão²

Abstract

Portugal's long history and a great diversity in wine producing resulted in 13 demarcated wine regions. From the 13 demarcated wine regions, the Douro region is the oldest in the world (1756) and a part of it was classified as a UNESCO world heritage site in 2001. The most well-known product of the Douro region is the Port wine, now almost globally recognized as being of excellent quality. In order to enhance collaboration between stakeholders, the Port wine route was created in 1996, but unfortunately, it ceased functioning in 2008. This study analyses the Port wine route evolution and the reasons for its failure from an ex-members' perspective. Therefore, a qualitative research based on in-depth semi-structured interviews with the most influential wine route ex-members was implemented in order to reveal which barriers were crucial for the collapse of the Porto wine route.

Keywords: *wine tourism, wine routes, Douro, Port wine routes, failure, antecedents*

JEL classification: *L83*

Introduction

At global level, Portugal is earning ever more respect as an attractive wine tourism destination. It counts 13 demarcated wine regions and 31 wines with a DOC/DOP (*Denominação de Origem Controlada* and *Denominação de Origem Protegida*) quality label. The demarcated Douro wine region has been involved in wine making since antiquity, but only

1 Darko Dimitrovski, Phd, Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Hotel Management and Tourism, University of Kragujevac; Post-doctoral researcher for the INNOVINE & WINE project at the University of Trás-os-Montes and Alto Douro, Portugal, +381642925386, e-mail: darko.dimitrovski@kg.ac.rs

2 Susana Rachão, MSc in Tourism Innovation and PhD Tourism candidate. Researcher for the INNOVINE & WINE project at the University of Trás-os-Montes and Alto Douro, Portugal, e-mail: susanarachao@ua.pt

thanks to the Royal Charter of the Marquis of Pombal from 1756, the borders of the winemaking region were delimited by 335 stone markers (Dimitrovski et al., 2016). The Demarcated Douro Region (DDR) is located in the North of Portugal, covering an area of approximately 250,000 hectares, with 40,000 ha of vineyards, or almost 18% of the total area of the region (Dimitrovski et al., 2016; Rachão et al., 2016). In 2001, 24,600 ha of the Alto Douro Wine Region was included in the list of World Heritage Sites as an evolving and living cultural landscape, based on three important criteria: long history of wine producing; unique landscape associated with winemaking; and cultural landscape changed by human activity over time (Lourenço-Gomes et al., 2015). The authenticity and integrity of the Douro wine region cultural landscape arises from the combination of nature, an historical background and cultural crossroads (Andresen et al., 2004). Due to its quality wines and natural landscape, the Douro wine region is profiling itself as one of the leading wine tourism destinations in the world, but in recent years its wine production has been challenged with new emerging countries and regions which have raised its competitiveness significantly on the global scale (Rebelo & Caldas, 2013).

The best-known product of the Douro region is the Port wine (Rebelo & Caldas, 2013). It is, moreover, the most exported Portuguese wine, accounting almost one third of Portuguese wine export (Correia & Brito, 2014). In order to enhance collaboration between stakeholders, the Port wine route (*Rota do Vinho do Porto*) was created in 1996. Wine routes are usually used for joint promotion and considered important drivers of the economic activity, especially because they are situated in rural areas. Originally, based on pre-defined criteria, 54 companies related to the wine tourism business were involved, the majority of them being focused on wine production. Unfortunately, the Port wine route ceased functioning in 2008.

A typical main goal of a wine route is to secure the development of the regional wine tourism as a whole. Considering this importance of wine routes, they should function as smoothly as possible. This study analyses the Port wine route evolution and the reason for its failure from an ex-members' perspective. Therefore, a qualitative research based on in-depth semi-structured interviews with the most influential wine route ex-members has been implemented in order to reveal which barriers were crucial for the collapse of the Porto wine route. The obtained results

provide useful guidelines to optimise the strategic planning of wine route dynamics.

Wine tourism

Wine tourism is an increasingly popular type of holiday that combines the degustation of wines of a certain natural surroundings with tours within the area, visits to cultural and historical monuments, and getting to know more about regional customs (Senić et al, 2013; Taskov et al., 2013). Nowadays, wine can have a predominant, complementary, marginal, or exclusive role in the destination's tourism supply with a strong influence on the destination's competitiveness (Asero & Patti, 2009). Wine tourism visitors are eager to understand wine as a resource, and want to become personally acquainted with the places and ways of production (Asero & Patti, 2009). Thus, consumers often consider wine experiences as being a prime motivation to travel (Dodd, 1995).

Someone who engages in wine-related tourism seeks for an overall tourism experience (Alebaki & Iakovidou, 2011), including other regional resources (Getz & Brown, 2006). Charters and Ali-Knight (2002) quickly figured out that a part from a wide range of wine tourism experiences offered by the wine producers, heritage buildings, historical sites, restaurants and attractive landscapes made part of the "to do"-list of wine visitors. Getz and Brown (2006) appointed that the main elements of these complementary wine tourism experiences were (in)directly wine-related features, other destination features and cultural activities. Cohen and Ben-Nun (2009) stated that complementary activities like visiting the area, enjoying the scenery and visiting other local attractions, added value not only to the wine tourism experience (benefitting the tourist), but also to the local economy (benefitting diverse local stakeholders).

Wine tourism as a phenomenon has a long history in tourism studies, nevertheless there is no comprehensive (Koch et al., 2013) and single definition which is generally accepted (Marzo-Navarro & Pedraja-Iglesias, 2012). Hall and Macionis (1998, p. 197) formulated the most cited definition of wine tourism, defining wine tourism «as visitation to vineyards, wineries, wine festivals and wine shows for which grape wine tasting and/or experiencing the attributes of a grape and wine region are the primary motivations for the visitor». Over time the definition of wine tourism has evolved due to the contribution of different authors,

incorporating elements of the winery's character, the tourism product and the regional identity (Treloar et al., 2004).

The link between the wine industry and tourism has been already recognized (Getz, 2000), and therefore they are usually seen as natural symbiotic partners (Fraser & Alonso, 2006). Tourism and wine are products that can be differentiated based on regional identity (Dawson et al., 2011), given that regulation and certification of the wine takes place at the level of a demarcated region or territory (Bras et al., 2010). Several authors have already concluded that the wine and tourism industries rely on regional branding (Hall & Macionis, 1998). Thus, well-established connections between the wine and tourism sector at a regional level can provide stimulus for strengthening, recovering and promoting regional brands that contribute to the regional economic development (Hall et al., 2000). A well-developed regional wine tourism strategy has the capacity to contribute towards attracting more visitors, all of them being potential customers, which provides complementary approach (Bras et al., 2010). The development of wine tourism in a particular region normally provides a wide range of benefits, both for the wine region destination and the local community (Getz, 2000). Investing in wine tourism allows a destination to grow a network that integrates three distinct sectors of activity: the wine sector (agriculture and wine processing industry), the tourism sector, which is based on service providers (accommodation, food and beverage, transportation, cultural and recreational services), and the public sector (Mitchell & Schreiber, 2007). Thus, for a wine destination to be competitive on the wine tourism market, it is crucial that it enhances collaboration between wineries (horizontal collaborations) and between them and tourism (vertical collaborations) (Telfer, 2001).

Several authors have pointed out the significant wine tourism growth over the last few decades (Alonso & Liu, 2010; Dawson et al., 2011; Getz & Brown, 2006). Many wine regions around the world have found it financially beneficial to promote wine tourism (Barber et al., 2010). Therefore, the wine tourism market is constantly evolving, and new wine regions are appearing (Jaffe & Pasternak, 2004), while some traditional regions are falling in decay or are being revitalized (Scherrer et al., 2009).

Wine routes

Over time, the wine routes have become important tourism products worldwide (Getz, 2000; Hashimoto & Telfer, 2003). The essence of the

wine route concept is based on a bounded space in the form of a demarcated wine region including its wine-producing members, whose identity is created by unique attributes of the wines and cultural heritage (Bruwer, 2003). The wine route is defined as a “tourist route that connects several wine estates and wineries in a given area” (Bruwer, 2003, p. 424). According to Hall et al. (2000) the wine route consists of a designated itinerary through the wine region that is thematically sign-posted, aggregates different vineyards and winemakers and provides information on sites of historical and other interest.

A wine route is a sign-posted itinerary, through a well-defined area whose aim is the ‘discovery’ of the wine products in the region and the activities associated with it (Brunori & Rossi, 2000). It is usually characterised by a portfolio of different itineraries and tourism experiences, delivered to visitors through promotional materials, which include basic information about wineries, tourists’ attractions, services and facilities (Correia *et al.*, 2004). Each of these easily recognizable wine itineraries is unique because of the regional stakeholders and resources involved in it (Bras et al., 2010).

Any wine route is considered as a complex dynamic network of relationships of public and private stakeholders (Rhodes, 1997). Thus, the collaboration and networking among both types of stakeholders in the wine tourism destination has been considered as a precondition for the wine tourism success (Wargenau & Che, 2006). It is in the best interest of all that the wine and tourism industries create and maintain a united, cooperative network that promotes the region, and that allows the integration of other service providers within the region (Getz, 2000; Hall & Macionis, 1998; Telfer, 2001). Although, in general terms, the perceived benefits of collaboration and networking for the wine and tourism industries are highlighted (Dawson et al., 2011), some studies defend the opposite, namely that wine routes may not provide much benefit to the individual winery business (Fraser & Alonso, 2006).

Being a unique mix of environmental, cultural and social features is what makes every wine route different from other wine routes (Bruwer, 2003). The dynamic nature of wine routes allows to provide unique tourism experiences, which are customer tailored (Brás *et al.*, 2010). In fact, customers like wine routes because they allow them to choose their own itinerary in function of the resources they consider attractive and want to include in their visit (Bras et al., 2010). Also, the tourists will appreciate

the changes in the landscape and winescape between different wine routes and consequently build up their loyalty based on their level of satisfaction (Hall et al., 2000).

As has already been said, the main goal of any wine route is the development and promotion of the wine region in the broader sense (Marques, 2001). Development goals include the creation of a flexible economic network and scale economies (Bras et al., 2010), the possibility to generate commercial investment (Correia et al., 2004), regional diversified economic growth and employment opportunities (Cambourne et al., 2000; Getz, 2000). Wine routes support their development by using road signs, information centres, brochures and events, as the most common development tools, in order to strengthen legitimacy and social recognition (Brunori & Rossi, 2000). However, the experience of some countries shows that the wine routes do not automatically become a good tool for rural regeneration (Brunori & Rossi, 2000). Promotion goals within the wine route context include enhancement of the image of the wine region and its wines (Correia et al., 2004; O'Neill & Charters, 2000; Cambourne et al., 2000) and the opportunity to provide the right environment for internationalization of wine-related activities and growth of wineries' sales (Bras et al., 2010; Correia et al., 2004).

Success of the wine route depends on the quality and dynamism of lead bodies responsible for the wine route development (Hingley et al., 2010). Thus, the wine route development needs to be supported with the appropriate organisational structure (Correia et al., 2004), regardless whether it is new or existing or if they are coming it emanates from the public or private sector (Getz, 2000). Mitchell and Hall (2006) stress the importance of the organisational structure of the wine routes for their success, equally dividing the responsibility between both public and private organisations. This is especially apparent when it comes to different perceptions and interests between the wine route members, with special focus on differences between the wine industry and tourism actors. For a wine route to be successful, wineries need to work together, and leave their inborn commercial rivalry behind them (Telfer, 2001).

Barriers in wine routes dynamics

Despite the benefits that wine routes can generate, they are also faced with several barriers in their everyday business (Bregoli et al., 2016). Hall et al. (2000) have identified a set of barriers related to the development

and management of wine routes, such as: the wine producers' poor perception of the tourism development benefits; the producers' restrained perception that wine is a dominant product; the lack of experience in combining tourism development and wine production facilities; the lack of entrepreneurial, marketing and tourism product design skills; the physical distance to vineyards and wineries; the administrative distance between the multiple public organizations and lack of elements capable to enhance the formal cooperation. Mitchell and Schreiber (2006) have divided perceived wine route barriers into two categories: vertical integration determinants (lack of cohesion between organisations and sectors) and structural/physical determinants (geographical distance and dispersion of wine route members).

Correia et al. (2004) have stated that in the beginning the wine routes' development will increase both costs and the need for a significant capital investment (Dodd, 1995). According to Correia et al. (2004), though, initial investments made by the members usually do not have a major impact on the creation of new direct jobs. Nowers et al. (2002) add another financial worry: each route should be financially healthy. They suggest to contract skilled personnel to manage the budget and cash flow. Additionally some authors (Mitchell & Schreiber, 2006; Hall, 2003) have revealed spatial issues (distance from the tourism market and main tourism flows) and administrative difficulties as prominent barriers in the wine route functioning. As wine routes are often spread over different municipalities (Brás et al., 2010), the intertwining of different regulations, especially between local and regional government organisations, is an additional problem. Several authors (Alonso & Liu, 2012; Brás et al., 2010; Bregoli et al., 2016) have concluded that wine routes are faced with difficulties that arise from the fragmentation and lack of cohesion among public and private stakeholders. Limited understanding between stakeholders increases the poor performance and the lack of effectiveness of wine routes (Dodd, 1995; Bregoli et al., 2016). The failing coordination of a wine route development strategy is one more barrier, especially when it comes down to the management model used by the coordinating organisation. If the management model is not adequate, the coordinating organisation fails in its effort to manage the route professionally, for example by not being able to fulfil the main interests of the members or to capitalise on the existing resources (Correia et al., 2004). Frochot (2000) referred a simple physical obstacle with huge negative outputs on wine route dynamics: the lack of signage clearly reduces the visitors' accessibility to wineries (Hall, 2003; Correia et al.,

2004). Further, the wine tourism development may be negatively affected by the physical/perceived distance between vineyards, and the administrative bodies. The existence of multiple public administrative agencies within a region, all ambitioning leadership, is another barrier (Hall, 2003). The lack of visitor management data could cause long-term problems for wine routes as their future planning and development cannot be done in an efficient way without these key data (Correia et al., 2004).

Qualitative procedures

This study applies a qualitative methodology with three semi-structured individual in-depth interviews as its core elements. Moreover, the recursive approach is employed in the research design of this study as the hypothesis formation evolves while the research progresses and as writing often results from an evolutionary process (Veal, 2006).

The research team used the criterion sampling (Suri, 2011) as the selected individuals were all route members involved in the Porto Wine Route, from former presidents to members in order to better understand the factors that made the wine route fail.

An interview protocol was used in order to follow standard procedures in all interviews. All the interviews were tape-recorded and supported, whenever necessary, with hand-written notes. Once the interviews were transcribed, the analysis of the textual data was performed in a systematic process.

Considering epistemological issues when translating text segments, this study used a parallel transcription using a side-by-side column layout (Nikander, 2008) where the English translation of the data is presented in the left hand column, next to the original Portuguese phrases in the right column.

In the next phase, the qualitative data were submitted to content analysis considering its nonobtrusive characteristics and its excellent applicability to interview transcripts (Stepchenkova et al., 2008); and thus was done what Bengtsson (2016, p. 10) describes: “in qualitative content analysis, data are presented in words and themes, which makes it possible to draw some interpretation of the results”. The emergent themes then underwent relational analysis which goal is to “explore relationships between the concepts identified” (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008, p. 129). As a result,

similar topics were clustered together as emergent themes as illustrated in Figure 1.

Findings

Taking as a starting point the barriers encountered in the development of a wine route, already described in the literature review, this section will analyse a small section of three interviews, of 105, 90 and 60 minutes respectively, carried out with relevant stakeholders of the former Port Wine Route in February 2017.

When the interviewees were questioned about the main reasons for the collapse of the Port Wine Route, all three showed some kind of agreement regarding the financial issues that the route was facing and which have consequently led to its collapse.

The financial problems were, more in particular, due to the reconstruction project of the new route's headquarters, the entrance of a new management team with private and public members, that began to focus on high cost media events and that showed a lack of leadership.

"...a "hole" of 30 to 40 thousand euros of debt to the construction company" (X, ex-director).

"...Well, the route has debts, namely 80 thousand euros to Comboios de Portugal (Trains of Portugal), the rent of the space that they did not pay" (Y, ex-President).

"...The Port Wine Route was plunged into a financial hole, a very confusing situation that no one understood" (Z, founding institute of the route).

The geographical change of headquarters of the Port Wine Route implied a requalification project of the new premises, which was reimbursed in 75% by European Community funds. Nevertheless, the wine route could not support the remaining 25%, which led its management to request the financial back up of the municipalities involved in the route. All the city halls guaranteed a rescue contribution, but in the end, some failed their promise showing their lack of commitment to the wine route (Table 1).

Additionally, the newly elected management of the Port wine route started to focus mainly on the promotion of high cost “media” events, in collaboration with the Tourism Board and the Institute of Port and Douro Wine (IVDP). Media events as the “New 7 Wonders of Nature of the World” as well as the international singer BB King had a great impact on the promotion of the Douro destination. However, the promotion of the wine route members was neglected and the huge costs of these events pushed the route towards a financial disaster.

Table 1: *Extracts from three Porto wine route ex-members’ interviews*
Porto wine route ex-members

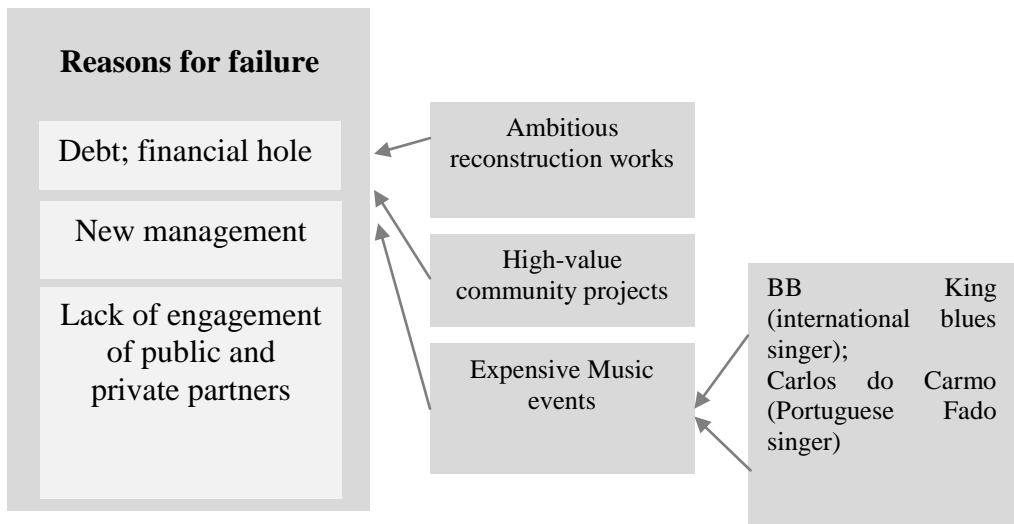
Interview	Research Question: <i>What were the main reasons for the failure of the Porto wine route?</i>
<p style="text-align: center;">X (ex-director)</p>	<p>(1) "... In 2003 we moved from our temporary headquarters to our own headquarters [...] next to the Régua train station in agreement with REFER. A project was undertaken to do some requalification works [...] with considerable value: 200 to 300 thousand euros. At the time, assistance was requested from the Municipalities to help to pay the 25% of the costs that had to be supported by the Rout. The other 75% were paid with community funds. All the mayors verbally said yes, but the time came and not everyone complied. And that created a "hole" of 30 to 40 thousand euros of debt with the construction company".</p> <p>(2) "However the management that entered said that the route should do more. And they started up high-value community projects. Before this change, the route had a budget of around 40/50 thousand euros and suddenly entered into projects of 400/500 thousand euros that, apart from the European Funding, always required a contribution of its own. Of course this approach allowed giving more visibility to the route".</p> <p>(3) "Somewhere in 2009/2010 the route goes into total financial imbalance. Partnerships are no longer possible, partnerships with private companies are beginning to fail and debt is beginning to accumulate. The route stopped paying rents, electricity, and employees. The Port wine route quickly changed from the only route that worked to the one that did not work. "</p>
<p>Reasons</p>	<p>construction works; debt; new management; high-value community projects;</p>

Y (ex-President)	(1) "He was a fierce megalomaniac [...] who made projects such as bringing in BB King and fado singer Carlos do Carmo. He did a number of things [...] but he could not gather the necessary documents (invoices) to receive the money. Well, the route is with debts, namely 80 thousand euros to Comboios de Portugal, the rent of the office space that they did not pay".	(1) "Única e exclusivamente foi um megalómano [...] que fez projetos, tais como trazendo o BB King e o fadista Carlos do Carmo". Fez uma série de coisas [...] não conseguiu reunir documentação para receber o dinheiro. Ora, a rota está com dívidas, nomeadamente 80 mil euros à Comboios de Portugal que era o aluguer do espaço que não pagaram".
Reasons	megalomaniac; debts;	
Z (founding institute of the route)	(1) "We arrived at the Douro and Porto Wine Institute (IVDP) at the end of 2011 beginning of 2012. The Port Wine Route was plunged into a confusing financial hole that no one understood". (2) "So the Port Wine Route should develop... but the truth is that no one took up this challenge and, in my opinion, the day that IVDP acquires the route, things will not go well, because we should have dynamic actors who do all the work; leading a Wine Route is not an IVDP activity, IVDP has other things to do".	(1) "Nós chegamos ao Instituto do Vinho do Douro e Porto no final de 2011 principio de 2012. A Rota do Vinho do Porto estava mergulhada num buraco financeiro e de grande confusão que ninguém se entendia". (2) "Portanto, a Rota do Vinho do Porto ou se desenvolve [...] mas a verdade é que ninguém pegou e no meu conceito, no dia em que o IVDP pegar na rota, as coisas não vão correr bem, porque ou temos atores que sejam domadores da rota e a dinamizem ou então não é pela atividade do IVDP, que tem outras coisas que fazer".
Reasons	financial hole; confusion; dynamic actors;	

Source: *authors*

The conceptual framework displayed in Figure 1 shows the themes and relationships that emerged from the interviews.

Figure 1: *Conceptual framework of reasons for failure*



Source: *authors*

Conclusion

Based on the qualitative interview analysis constructed on the research question “What were the main reasons for the failure of the Porto Wine Route?” it was possible to draw a sum of conclusions.

Even the fact that the Douro region is the oldest demarcated region in the world (1756) and that a part of it is classified as a UNESCO world heritage site since 2001 did not prevent the wine route failure. The interviewed ex-members agreed that financial issues were the main reason for the failure of the Port Wine Route in 2008. This conclusion is in line with earlier findings: each route needs to be funded and managed with the aim to achieve financial viability (Nowers et al., 2002). It is of utmost importance to secure personnel with sound financial skills in order to manage the budget and cash flow of the wine route and guarantee economic sustainability (Nowers et al., 2002).

The far too expensive reconstruction works of the new headquarters was the first element that led the Port Wine Route to its extinction. Second, the new management of the route, which implied the development and organisation of costly mega events in order to promote the Douro region, created an even higher debt. Third, as discussed in the literature review, wine routes are typically faced with difficulties that arise from the fragmentation and lack of cohesion among public and private stakeholders (Alonso & Liu, 2012; Brás et al., 2010; Bregoli et al., 2016). The Port Wine Route was not an exception. Being created by public institutions, in a rather short time it evolved to being the only wine route in Portugal functioning thanks to the intervention of private adherents. Although the lack of commitment and support among public and private stakeholders was fatal to the route survival, according to one of the ex-members, the ideal structure for the route would be a joint management between the local Wine Commission and the city halls since they are the “guards” of the territory.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank Veronika Joukes for her critical review of the first versions of this article.

This research is part of the wider project INNOVINE & WINE – Vineyard and Wine Innovation Platform - Operation NORTE -01-0145-

FEDER-000038, co-funded by the European and Structural Investment Funds (FEDER) and by Norte 2020 (Programa Operacional Regional do Norte 2014/2020). As the authors are members of CETRAD, this research is also co-funded by FEDER through the Operational Competitiveness and Internationalization Programme (COMPETE 2020) [Project No. 006971 (UID/SOC/04011)]; Funding Reference: POCI-01-0145-FEDER-006971]; and by national funds, through the FCT – Portuguese Foundation for Science and Technology under the project UID/SOC/04011/2013.

References

1. Alebaki, M., Iakovidou, O. (2011). Market Segmentation in Wine Tourism: A Comparison of Approaches. *Tourismos*, Vol. 6, No.1, 123-140.
2. Alonso, A., Liu, Y. (2010). Wine Tourism Development in Emerging Western Australian Regions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 22, No. 2, 245-262.
3. Alonso, A. D., Liu, Y. (2012). Old Wine Region, New Concept and Sustainable Development: Winery Entrepreneurs' Perceived Benefits from Wine Tourism on Spain's Canary Islands. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, Vol. 20, No. 7, 991-1009.
4. Altinay, L., Paraskevas, P. (2008). Data Collection Techniques. *Planning Research in Hospitality and Tourism*, 107-135.
5. Andresen, T., De Aguiar, F. B., Curado, M. J. (2004). The Alto Douro Wine Region Greenway. *Landscape and urban planning*, Vol. 68, No.2, 289-303.
6. Asero, V., Patti, S. (2009). Prodotti Enogastronomici e Territorio: La Proposta dell'enoturismo. In: E. Becheri. (Eds.), *XVI Rapporto sul Turismo Italiano* (pp. 637-668). FrancoAngeli.
7. Barber, N., Taylor, D. C, Deale, C. S. (2010). Wine Tourism, Environmental Concerns, and Purchase Intention. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, Vol. 27, No. 2, 146-165.
8. Bengtsson, M. (2016). How to plan and perform a qualitative study

using content analysis. *NursingPlus Open*, Vol. 2, 8-14.

9. Brás, J. M., Costa, C., Buhalis, D. (2010). Network Analysis and Wine Routes: The Case of the Bairrada Wine Route. *The Service Industries Journal*, Vol. 30, No. 10, 1621-1641.

10. Bregoli, I., Hingley, M., Del Chiappa, G., Sodano, V. (2016). Challenges in Italian Wine Routes: Managing Stakeholder Networks. *Qualitative Market Research*, Vol. 19, No. 2, 204-224.

11. Brunori, G., Rossi, A. (2000). Synergy and Coherence Through Collective Action: Some Insights From Wine Routes in Tuscany. *Sociologia ruralis*, Vol. 40, No. 4, 409-423.

12. Bruwer, J. (2003). South African Wine Routes: Some Perspectives on the Wine Tourism Industry's Structural Dimensions and Wine Tourism Product. *Tourism management*, Vol. 24, No. 4, 423-435.

13. Cambourne, B., Hall, C. M., Johnson, G., Macionis, N., Mitchell, R., Sharples, L. (2000) The Maturing Wine Tourism Product: an International Overview. In: C.M. Hall, L. Sharples, B. Cambourne and N. Macionis (Eds), *Wine Tourism Around the World: Development, Management and Markets* (pp. 24-66). Oxford: Elsevier Science.

14. Charters, S., Ali-Knight, J. (2002). Who is the Wine Tourist? *Tourism Management*, Vol. 23, No. 3, 311-319.

15. Cohen, E., Ben-Nun, L. (2009). The Important Dimensions of Wine Tourism Experience from Potential Visitors' Perception. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, Vol. 9, No. 1, 20-31.

16. Correia, L., Ascensão, M. J. P., Charters, S. (2004). Wine Routes in Portugal: A Case Study of the Bairrada Wine Route. *Journal of Wine Research*, Vol. 15, No. 1, 15-25.

17. Correia, R. F., Brito, C. M. (2014). Mutual Influence Between Firms and Tourist destination: A Case in the Douro Valley. *International Review on Public and Nonprofit Marketing*, Vol. 11, No. 3, 209-228.

18. Dawson, D., Fountain, J., Cohen, D. A. (2011). Seasonality and the Lifestyle “conundrum”: An Analysis of Lifestyle Entrepreneurship in

Wine Tourism Regions. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 16, No. 5, 551-572.

19. Dimitrovski, D., Joukes, V., Rachão, S., Tibério, L. (2016). Combinando enoturismo e agroturismo. Estudo de quintas envolvidas no agroturismo na Região Demarcada do Douro, Norte de Portugal. In: R. F. Marquette, M. L. Bergmann, V. A. Casarin (Eds.), *Turismo, Gastronomia, e Desenvolvimento na Região das Missões-Brasil*, Volume 1 (pp. 125-162). Santo Angelo, Brasil: FURI.

20. Dodd, T. (1995) Opportunities and Pitfalls of Tourism in a Developing Wine Industry, *International Journal of Wine Marketing*, Vol. 7, No. 1, 5-16.

21. Fraser, R. A., Alonso, A. (2006). Do Tourism and Wine Always Fit Together? A Consideration of Business Motivations. *Global wine tourism*, 19-26.

22. Frochot, I. (2000). Wine Tourism in France: Aparadox? In: M. Hall, L. Sharples, B. Cambourne, N. Macionis (Eds.), *Wine tourism around the world: Development, management and markets* (pp. 67-80). Oxford: Butterworth–Heinemann.

23. Getz, D. (2000). *Explore Wine Tourism. Management Development and Destinations*, Cognizant Communication, New York.

24. Getz, D., Brown, G. (2006). Critical Success Factors for Wine Tourism Regions: A Demand Analysis. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 27, No. 1, 146-158.

25. Hall, C. M., Macionis, N. (1998). Wine Tourism in Australia and New Zealand. In: R. W. Butler, C. M. Hall, J. M. Jenkins (Eds.), *Tourism and recreation in rural areas* (pp. 197-224). Chichester: John Wiley.

26. Hall, M., Johnson, G., Cambourne, B. (2000). Wine Tourism. An Introduction. In: C. M. Hall, Sharples, L. Cambourne, B. (Eds), *Wine Tourism around the World, Development Management Markets* (pp. 1-23). Oxford, England: Butterworth-Heinemann.

27. Hall, M. C. (2003). Biosecurity and Wine Tourism: Is a Vineyard a Farm?. *Journal of Wine Research*, Vol. 14, No. 2-3, 121-126.

28. Hashimoto, A., Telfer, D. J. (2003). Positioning an Emerging Wine Route in the Niagara region: Understanding the Wine Tourism Market and its Implications for Marketing. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, Vol. 14, No. 3-4, 61-76.
29. Hingley, M. K., Lindgreen, A., Beverland, M. B. (2010). Barriers to Network Innovation in UK Ethnic Fresh Produce Supply. *Entrepreneurship and Regional Development*, Vol. 22, No. 1, 77-96.
30. Jaffe, E., Pasternak, H. (2004). Developing Wine Trails as a Tourist Attraction in Israel. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 6, No. 4, 237-249.
31. Koch, J., Martin, A., Nash, R. (2013). Overview of Perceptions of German Wine Tourism from the Winery Perspective. *International Journal of Wine Business Research*, Vol. 25, No. 1, 50-74.
32. Lourenço-Gomes, L., Pinto, L. M., Rebelo, J. (2015). Wine and Cultural Heritage. The Experience of the Alto Douro Wine Region. *Wine Economics and Policy*, Vol. 4, No. 2, 78-87.
33. Marques, M. T. (2001). Enquadramento Legal das Rotas do Vinho. *I Congresso das Rotas do Vinho de Portugal*, Vale de Santarém, Portugal, Estação Zootécnica Nacional.
34. Marzo-Navarro, M., Pedraja-Iglesias, M. (2012). Critical Factors of Wine Tourism: Incentives and Barriers from the Potential Tourist's Perspective. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, Vol. 24, No. 2, 312-334.
35. Mitchell, R., Hall, C. M. (2006). Wine Tourism Research: The State of Play. *Tourism Review International*, Vol. 9, No. 4, 307-332.
36. Mitchell, R., Schreiber, C. (2007). Wine Tourism Networks and Clusters: Operation and Barriers in New Zealand. In: E. Michael (Eds.), *Micro-clusters and networks: The growth of tourism* (pp. 79-105). Oxford, UK: Elsevier.
37. Nikander, P. (2008). Working with Transcripts and Translated Data. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, Vol. 5, 225-231.

38. Nowers, R., de Villiers, E., Myburgh, A. (2002). Agricultural Theme Routes as a Diversification Strategy: the Western Cape Wine routes Case Study. *Agrekon*, Vol. 41, No. 2, 195-209.
39. O'Neill, M., Charters, S. (2000). Service Quality at the Cellar Door: Implications for Western Australia's Developing Wine Tourism Industry. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 2, 112-122.
40. Rachão, S., Joukes, V., Dimitrovski, D., Tibério, L. (2016). Agroturismo e turismo criativo nas regiões demarcadas dos Vinho Verde, Porto, Douro e Trás-os-Montes: Estudo de caso. In: R. F. Marquette, M. L. Bergmann, V. A. Casarin (Eds.), *Turismo, Gastronomia, e Desenvolvimento na Região das Missões-Brasil*, Volume 1 (pp. 162-185). Santo Angelo, Brasil: FURI.
41. Rebelo, J., Caldas, J. (2013). The Douro Wine Region: A Cluster Approach. *Journal of wine research*, Vol. 24, No. 1, 19-37.
42. Rhodes, R. A. W. (1997). *Understanding governance: policy networks, governance, reflexivity and accountability*, Open University Press, Buckingham.
43. Scherrer, P., Alonso, A., Sheridan, L. (2009). Expanding the Destination Image: Wine Tourism in the Canary Islands. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, Vol. 11, 451-463.
44. Senić, V., Đorđević, A., Dimitrovski, D. (2013). Identifying the Development Factors of Wine tourism: An Empirical Study. *Actual Problems of Economics*, Vol. 5, No. 143, 461-473.
45. Stepchenkova, S., Kirilenko, P., Morrison, M. (2008). Facilitating Content Analysis in Tourism Research. *Journal of Travel Research*, Vol. 47, No. 4, 454-469.
46. Suri, H. (2011). Purposeful Sampling in Qualitative Research Synthesis. *Qualitative Research Journal*, Vol. 11, No. 2, 63-75.
47. Taskov, N., Dimitrovski, D., Temelkov, Z. (2013). Wine Tourism in Macedonia. A Qualitative Analysis. *Scientific Journal Hotel and Tourism Management*, Vol. 2, 55-62.

48. Telfer, D. J. (2001). Strategic Alliances Along the Niagara Wine Route. *Tourism Management*, Vol. 22, 21-30.
49. Treloar, P., Hall, C.M., Mitchell, R.D. (2004). Wine Tourism and the generation Y market: any possibilities? *CAUTHE 2004 Conference*, Brisbane, Queensland, Australia, 10-13.
50. Veal, A. J. (2006). *Research Methods for Leisure and Tourism*, Pearson Education Limited, Harlow.
51. Wargenau, A., Che, D. (2006). Wine Tourism Development and Marketing Strategies in Southwest Michigan. *International Journal of Wine Marketing*, Vol. 18, No. 1, 45-60.