PROCEEDINGS

EuroCHRIE 2023 Vienna, Austria
October 3-6.

EuroCHRIE Vienna 2023

CHANGING REALITIES. NEW OPPORTUNITIES.

Editors

Xavier Matteucci, PhD
Mariya Katelieva, PhD

Organizing Committee

Conference Chair: FH-Prof. Dr. Florian Aubke
Conference Coordinator: Mag. Daniela Wagner
Student Involvement: Sophie Gräf, MA
Social Events: Peter Klinger, MBA, MSc

Scientific Committee

Co-Chair: Dr. Xavier Matteucci
Co-Chair: Dr. Mariya Katelieva
Dr. Cornelia Dlabaja
Prof. Dai-In Danny Han
Dr. Hema Kesa

ISBN 978-3-200-09359-1

9 783200 093591

How to cite this document:

Matteucci, X., & Katelieva, M. (Eds.) (2023). *Changing Realities - New Opportunities*. Proceedings of the EuroCHRIE Conference 2023, 3-6 October, in Vienna, Austria. ISBN: 978-3-200-09359-1

How to cite a paper in this edited volume:

Author, A. (2023). Title of the paper. In X. Matteucci & M. Katelieva (Eds.) *Changing Realities - New Opportunities* (pp. XX). Proceedings of the EuroCHRIE Conference 2023, 3-6 October, in Vienna, Austria. ISBN: 978-3-200-09359-1

TABLE OF CONTENT

TRACK 5 – Urban Tourism Realities

TRACK 6 – General

Introduction from the editors

Xavier Matteucci | FH Wien der WKW
Mariya Katelieva | FH Wien der WKW

The EuroCHRIE Conference 2023 with the title 'Changing Realities – New Opportunities' was an invitation to tourism and hospitality scholars to rethink visitors, hosts and workers' behaviors and practices in the aftermath of the COVID-19 pandemic. While other dramatic events such as disastrous floods in Libya, the Hong Kong and southern China's rainstorm as well as a powerful earthquake in Morocco have recently caught our attention, the memory of the recent pandemic is still prompting people to withdraw from social activities and many individuals are now wishing to work from home. Furthermore, before the war in Ukraine broke out, the predicament of global warming seemed to have displaced worries of nuclear war, which had been haunting the public imagination for decades (Bostrom, 2007). Furthermore, estimates from the European Commission suggest that the size of the global middle-class is likely to increase from roughly 3.5 billion people in 2017 to about 5.3 billion by 2030 (Sharpley & Telfer, 2023). This potential increase in the number of middle-class consumers may lead to greater consumption of products and services, which, in turn, will add pressure on the Earth's natural resources. Tourists, destination residents and tourism and hospitality professionals, therefore, find themselves in what is now increasingly referred to as a VUCA (Volatile, Uncertain, Complex and Ambiguous) environment with its associated anxieties. However, a VUCA environment is not without opportunities.

A key objective of the EuroCHRIE Conference 2023 was to explore and discuss such opportunities. From the 88 papers presented during the conference, 30 are included here under six thematic tracks, namely: digital realities (1), sustainable realities (2), educational realities (3), managerial and new work realities (4), urban tourism realities (5) and a general track (6) covering various hospitality and tourism management topics. These topics reflect the growing concerns often expressed by both practitioners and academics in the fields of tourism and hospitality. If technological innovation has been, as Bostrom (2007) remarks, the main driving force of long-term economic growth, it is therefore no surprise that a number of authors in this edited volume present digital technologies as a pathway towards sustainable destination management and enhanced visitor experiences. Smart tourism, virtual tourism, user-generated content, chatbots, artificial intelligence (AI) and augmented reality (AR) count amongst the key topics addressed in Track 1.

While advancing technological capabilities may make things better for some people, in some context and to some degree, we should remain cautious about merely and simplistically associating technological development with greater individual and collective well-being. The work presented in Track 2 looks at sustainability through different lenses such as crisis resistance, destination stakeholder coordination and through the provision of small-scale creative tourism experiences. Under Track 3, the studies that focus on tourism and hospitality education not only address issues of equity, diversity and inclusion, but some work also looks at ways to teach entrepreneurship and how technological tools (e.g. simulation platforms) can support the tasks of educators. Track 4, which is concerned with managerial and new work realities, features studies that examine talent management, co-creation, team resilience, post-crisis management and innovative practices at the workplace. Urban destinations, such as many European cities, have recently received much attention in the media for either being the stage of bad tourist behavior or for their residents' growing discontent with what is now commonly known as *overtourism* (Butcher, 2023). Among the many governance challenges that urban destinations are now facing, the topics covered in Track 5 include accessibility, co-creation of street events and the long-debated issues of the equitable distribution of the benefits of tourism. Finally, Track 6 consists of an eclectic set of studies such as work on female and migrant workers, Airbnb quality attributes, destination personality and the potential of singing as a niche creative tourism activity.

The conference's theme 'Changing Realities - New Opportunities' was a call to educators and researchers to rethink the way hospitality operations, tourism activities and educational practices can be shaped in a post-Covid world. We believe that the 30 papers featured in this volume have insightfully contributed to this call. While the work presented here predominantly comes from European scholars, non-European perspectives are also provided by scholars from Asia, North America and the Middle East. This cultural diversity is not only intrinsically valuable in terms of social encounters and dialogue, but it also reflects the many realities and perspectives that cohabit in variegated hospitality and tourism contexts. With the EuroCHRIE Conference 2023, and with this collection of papers, we are, therefore, very pleased to contribute to fostering intercultural exchange.

References

Bostrom, N. (2007). The future of humanity. In J. K. Berg Olsen & E. Selinger (Eds.) *New Waves in Philosophy of Technology* (pp. 186-215). Palgrave McMillan.

Butcher, J. (2023, September 26). Was this the European summer of terrible tourists? Give us a break, media! The "Good Tourism" Blog. Retrieved from: https://www.goodtourismblog.com/2023/09/summer-of-terrible-tourists/

Sharpley, R., & Telfer, D. J. (2023). *Rethinking tourism and development*. Edward Elgar Publishing.

Acknowledgments

We would like to express our sincere gratitude to all the scholars who have dedicated some of their precious time to review papers for the EuroCHRIE Conference 2023. Also, special thanks go to Rai and Steve Shacklock for their tremendous help with the EuroCHRIE 2023 website administration.

TRACK 1 – Digital Realities

1.1. Are you Instagram worthy? An analysis of hotel- and user-generated content

Christian Dragin-Jensen | Business Academy SouthWest
Mia Post-Lundgaard | Business Academy SouthWest
Oliver Schnittka | University of Southern Denmark

Abstract

Instagram has become a powerhouse within the realm of social media. For the hospitality sector, Instagram offers unique visual storytelling and user generated content capabilities, which in turn provides benefits both to hotels and their (potential) guests. Yet there is a scarcity in research on understanding what type of content created by hotels and users generates excitement and activity (by means of likes) on the platform. This paper, through a content analysis of 25 different types of hotels, analyzes hotel and user generated content (N= 1,031), revealing what type of content drives likes, both in terms of categories of posts (e.g., videos, images), the content of posts (e.g., physical attributes of a hotel, people, service offerings), and whether the posts are informative or sales-related. Implications for hospitality professionals are provided on how to tailor their Instagram portfolio, as well as avenues for future research.

Keywords: Instagram; Social media; Hotels; Content analysis

Introduction

In the Netflix hit show, Motel Makeover, the June Motel owners are renovating their second motel in Sauble Beach, Canada. During the renovations, one of the owners mentions several times how a space (whether it be the bar, pool area, or a room) needs to be designed in mind with how guests plan to take pictures and document their stay. Their first motel, a tremendous success "thanks, in part, to an Instagram-ready design" (Dawson, 2021, par. 4), has struck a chord with the modern traveler, namely the intrinsic link between social media and travel. Over 60% of travelers share their own content from holidays or travels on social media (Statista, 2019), and hotels are increasingly interested in staging the scene to provide their guests with an instagrammable moment (Anderson, 2017). This is increasingly vital for a hotel's competitiveness, "given that an increasing number of travelers are now seeking experiential aspects and no longer only consider a comfortable atmosphere or the quality of service", signifying that "standardized hotels have become insufficient for next-generation consumers" (Han & Lee, 2021, p.3). Yet what demarcates an Instagram-worthy moment? What type of content produced by hotels would invite (potential) guests to create their own instagrammable moments? And does this match the user generated content (UGC) created by guests while travelling and staying at the hotel?

There have been significant advances in social media research since their inception (see: Kapoor et al., 2018), as well as an increasing interest in their role in tourism and hotels (see: Kitsios et al., 2022), yet there is a dearth of research with the social media platform Instagram and hotels (a unique platform due to its visual storytelling and UGC capabilities), as well as a very limited amount of digital technology studies "conceived from a holistic perspective which simultaneously takes into account the points of views of users and hotels" (Gonzalez, Gasco, & Llopis, 2019, p.13). Specifically, evidence is missing on (a) what type of content is created by hotels (supply side) as well as (b) what type of UGC for hotels (demand side) generates most engagement by means of likes on Instagram.

This paper addresses the gap by providing an analysis comparing hotel generated content on Instagram from 25 different hotels in Denmark to that of their guests' content (N = 1,031), thus mapping and highlighting key areas of activities and "likes" levels for both the supply and demand side. The paper provides a segmented and detailed approach to hotel and UGC content, managerial implications for hotel professionals, as well as avenues and implications for further research.

Theoretical framework

Social Media: An omnipresent tool for hotels and their guests

Social media has transformed how firms relate to their markets and consumers (Garrido-Moreno et al., 2018). Social media, a "set of online tools that supports social interaction between users, facilitating the creation and sharing of knowledge, and transforming monologue (company to customer) into dialogue" (Hansen et al., 2011, p.12), has opened a myriad of pathways for organizations to enjoy a direct link to their customers. This is particularly the case for hotels, as they characteristically make an intensive use of information (Gonzalez et al., 2019), and social media serves as a powerful medium for organizations to bring information quality, credibility and authenticity to the foreground (Kapoor et al., 2018). Moreover, social media also offers the unique discourse of providing swathes of user-generated content, providing in-depth customer insights to the current state of hospitality and tourism, and as Han and Lee state, "at a time when much more innovative and exciting hospitality experiences are preferred by consumers, image-based, user-created content can help businesses catch up with the changing demands" (2021, p.2).

Considering social media platforms' (e.g., Instagram, Facebook, Twitter) vast size in terms of audience and reach, hotels' proactive presence in the social media verse is a must: to not only create and share knowledge of its product and services, but to also permit and engage (potential) consumers in generating content and providing insights on what matters to them most when travelling and staying at their hotels. This is important, as research has highlighted that activating customer engagement on social media plays an important role in increasing purchase intentions for hotels (Yoong & Lian, 2019). Social media's value to the hotel industry is further cemented by the notion that effective social media use is associated with superior financial performance (Kim & Chae, 2018). Understandably, research on social media impact in hotels has therefore reverberated around value creation – i.e., return on investments, KPI's and metrics, travel planning, purchase intentions, hotel performance and online reviews, electronic word of mouth and brand building (e.g., Kitsios et al., 2022; Leung, Bai, & Stahura, 2013; Lu, Chen, & Law, 2018; Michopoulou & Moisa, 2019). There has been far less focus placed on segmenting and analyzing what type of content is generated by hotels and guests – as well as what type of content drives interest and engagement of users.

Moreover, such previous research has also focused on platforms such as Facebook, twitter, blogs, TripAdvisor and YouTube (see: Garrido-Moreno et al., 2018), and not much focus has been placed on Instagram. There is a particular paucity with regards content type generating likes and engagement. This is clearly an opportunity, as "engagement is highly dependent on the platform….earlier empirical studies lump all digital platforms together and so fail to appreciate that, based on engagement dimensions, each of these platforms comprises a substantially different makeup in terms of experience" (Voorveld et al., 2018, p. 50). Lastly, attracting users' attention is becoming increasingly harder as the information load increases on social media (Xu et al., 2014).

Instagram: A visual storytelling tool for travelers and hotels alike

Instagram has evolved into the social media realm of the ubiquitous, having reached 1.28 billion users as of 2023, and is now the fourth most popular social media platform in the world – behind only Facebook, YouTube and WhatsApp (Statista, 2022a, 2023). The social media platform is of particular value to the tourism and hotel industries due to its ability to provide users with a variety of information- and image-based experiences (Rainie et al., 2012), and research revealing positive relationships between high levels of social activity (such as travelling) and being motivated to use Instagram as a means of documentation (Sheldon & Bryant, 2016). An industry report also found that the engagement rate from consumers on Instagram posts from hotels & resorts was significantly higher than that of other social media platforms such as Facebook and Twitter (RivalIQ, 2019). This corroborates with research, where Instagram scored significantly higher than any other social media platform with regards to entertainment when assessed by users (Voorveld et al., 2018). It is therefore understandable that Instagram plays an important role within hotel decision-making (Varkaris & Neuhofer, 2017) as it contributes to gathering an "objective and authentic overview" (ibidem, p. 109). Moreover, research in the tourism and hospitality fields has found that Instagram is an important source of information and inspiration in the destination selection process (Tešin et al., 2022),and that the posting of pictures can indeed positively affect the experience and brand evaluation of the establishment (Zhu et al., 2019).

Due to Instagram's aesthetic platform (Sheldon & Bryant, 2016), its users tend to be more engaged with positive vibes and pictures, comments and good experiences (Shahbaznezhad et al., 2021) which is, understandably, of great value to hotels who wish to imbue such feelings and engagements for their (potential) guests. It is therefore promising to see that research into UGC on Instagram in lifestyle hotels found that while stylish spatial design (visually attractive interiors and architecture) play an important role in constructing the hospitality experience, it was the experiences attached to those places that was of tantamount importance – so consumption in a hotel "should not be understood in the context of accommodation, but rather from the perspective of activities taking place" (Han & Lee, 2021, p.15).

Yet Instagram still remains an under researched platform – in particular with the hotel industry. Researchers (e.g., Aydin, 2020; Lu et al., 2018; Varkaris & Neuhofer, 2017) also stress the need for future research to delve into Instagram to better comprehend (i) their impact on the dynamic processes of lodging and travel, both due to changing preferences of consumers and Instagram's ability to provide unique video and photo content; and (ii) to research what photos and videos travelers take, and what particular spots are favored in order to better design experiences and understand the preferences of consumers. This paper therefore wishes to answer the following research questions (RQ):

RQ1: What type of content created by hotels generates most likes on Instagram?
RQ2: What type of UGC of hotels generates most likes on Instagram?

Empirical analysis

Research design

To provide an analysis of the RQs, 25 different hotels in Denmark were selected. Denmark was chosen as an apt site for the study as Instagram is the second largest (and growing) social network in Denmark (behind only Facebook) (Statista, 2022b); 70% of Danish Instagrammers are daily users, 93% are weekly users, 99% are monthly (Statista, 2020); and ca. 40% of the Danish population has an Instagram account (2.3 million) (Danish Ministry of Culture, 2020). In order to satisfactorily cover the different types of Danish hotels and geographical regions, 5 types of hotels (conference, city hotel, resort, inn/castle, beach hotel) were each selected in the most relevant regions of Denmark (Capital city region, Zealand, Southern Denmark, Mid Jutland, and Northern Jutland). A pre-screening test was performed by the authors to ensure the hotels had an active Instagram account (i.e., regularly posting content). To ensure a varied type of hotels' presence on Instagram, we included hotels with a smaller following to those with a large following (smallest number of followers: 307; largest number of followers: 117.000)

A quantitative content analysis was conducted to translate qualitative information into numeric variables and items (Halliburton & Ziegfeld, 2009) - in this case – hotel and UGC content on Instagram (photos, videos and stories). This approach permits us to quantify the content units, thus enabling comparative studies to be conducted and has been used previously in studies within tourism and hospitality (e.g., Vinyals-Mirabent et al., 2019). The samples (all posts by hotels and users) were collected during one of the peak seasons for Danish hotels, (8th of June – 11th of July 2022). A total of N = 1,031 posts were collected (hotels = 602; users = 429).

Codification of the content units

The codification process consisted of three phases: [1] creating 2 coding scheme tables (one each for hotels/UGC) with appropriate categories and sub-categories in order to correctly allocate the content units (see table 1); [2] coders (a role fulfilled by authors) identifying each content unit and linking it to a (sub)category/(sub)categories (see tables 2-5); and [3] coders manually measuring likes of the content units (see tables 6 and 7). The content of the coding scheme tables is drawn from multiple sources (Brøns-Poulsen & Mylin, 2022; Han & Lee, 2021; Iglesias-Sánchez et al., 2020) and the authors. Phase 2 was conducted daily throughout the period of June 2022, with three coders evaluating different, but overlapping units. Phase 3 was done at the time the content unit was recorded, and once again in August 2022 to ensure that the posts had received sufficient time on Instagram to reach a point of saturation. To ensure intercoder reliability (Lombard et al., 2002), coders met weekly when collecting data, to review content units for any potential disagreements on coding. In total, 58 posts were in disagreement (94.4% agreement rate). These posts were reviewed by coders again and discussed in plenum and rectified accordingly.

Results and discussion

The content analysis revealed three noteworthy findings for our two RQs as highlighted below. Format of content: Hotels preferred the use of single "image" to post (41.2% of all posts), with "video" (9,6%), "UGC + Hotel story" (5,15%) "video + multiple images" (0,66%) as the least preferred content categories (see fig. 1 & 2). This becomes even more apparent if one excludes the three "story" category variables ("UGC + Hotel story", "Hotel story", and "UGC in Hotel story") - single images then account for 61,8% of all posts. While UGC also strongly favored using single images (38%), they also made more use of multiple images (38,69%), as well as video (16,55%). The least used content category for UGC was the same as the hotels, namely "video + multiple images" (6,76%). These results offer an interesting backdrop when compared to the likes generated by content category (see table 6). Particularly with regards to video content – for UGC, "video" and "video + multiple images" generated a far superior number of likes per post (410 and 490, respectively) than that of its 'static' counterparts of "image" (108 per post) and "multiple images" (187 per post). This is noteworthy, as the video categories account only for 23,31% of the total posts but are responsible for almost half of all likes (47,12%). This is also in a similar vein to that of the hotels, where the "video" category had the most likes per post (311), far surpassing "single image" (145) and multiple image (161). While "video + multiple images" only generated 130 likes per post, there was also a very small sample size (N=4), but also revealing a display of hotels' reluctance to use this content category. When comparing likes per post (posted by hotels) to hotel types (table 8), videos generated most likes per content in all but one hotel type – conference hotels ("video+multiple images" generated the most for resorts but has a very small sample size of N=2).

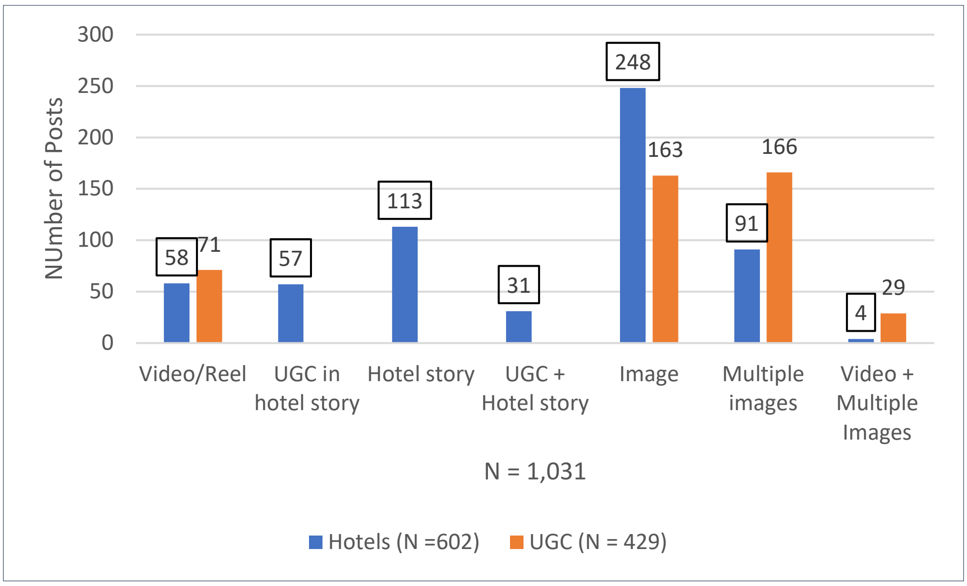
With regards to hotel posts by region (table 9), video content generated most likes per post for 3 of the 5 regions, and multiple images for 2 of the 5 (once again showing that individual images to be the least favorable strategy to generating likes). With regards to UGC by hotel type and region, generating likes per post was harder to determine, though the "image" category was in general the least effective.

Table 1. Overview of categories and sub-categories

Category	Sub-categories	Hotel (supply) / UGC (demand)
Content category	Video (Reel)	Both
	Hotel Story	Hotel
	UGC in Hotel story	Hotel
	UGC + Hotel story	Hotel
	Image	Both
	Multiple images	Both
	Video + Multiple Images	Both
Type of post	Sales-related	Hotel
	Informative	Hotel
	Other	Hotel
Physical attributes of hotel	Ext. views of hotel	Both
	Int. views of hotel (general)	Both
	Lobby	Both
	Room	Both
	Bathroom	Both
	Food and Beverage facilities	Both
	Conference facilities	Both
	Spa/pool/beach facilities	Both
Service offerings	Events/happenings	Both
	Wedding	Both
	Accommodation	Hotel
	Food and Beverage	Both
	Spa (treatments) /Pool/Beach	Both
	Other services (e.g., turndown)	Both
	Sustainable services	Both
People	Employees/Staff	Both
	Guests	Both
	Selfie	UGC
	Other	Both
Branding	Hotel brand	UGC
	Other brand	UGC
Communication/Information	Credentials	Both
	Corporate Social Responsibility	Both
	Safety/Security	Both
	Off-site experiences	Both
	Travelling	UGC
	Job posting	Hotel
	Other	Both
Likes	At time of post	Both
	In August 2022	Both

Hotel attributes: The actual content (the hotel attributes) of the posts were not so easily analogous between hotels and UGC. For hotels, it was apparent that posts which contained multiple hotel attributes was beneficial for driving likes. That is, posts which only contained single attributes (e.g., physical attributes, service offerings, people) did not generate the same levels of likes per post if they were combined (for example, physical attributes + service offerings – see table 7). To provide a practical example: pictures or videos containing physical attributes, such as a pool or spa, would perform better if there was also food and beverage (a plate of food or a cocktail), or people (guests and/or staff), as opposed to just having a picture/video of a pool. For UGC, this was very much comparable when pairing physical attributes with people (the type of post to generate most likes) – very much in line with Han & Lee's research (2021) of guests wishing to attach their personal perspectives and activities to the spatial design of a place. Yet, for UGC, single hotel attributes also generated significant engagements per post, namely physical attributes, people, communication, and service offerings.

Characteristics of posts: The types of posts (whether they were sales-related or informative) played a significant role for generating likes. There were far more informative posts (for example, posting a picture of a restaurant informing (potential) guests of a new menu, as compared to sales-related posts (for example, a picture of a hotel room informing of the price of the room, with a link to book the room) - see tables 4 and 6. Yet the sales-related posts generated far more likes per post (351) than that of the informative posts (130). This is highly noteworthy as this is at odds with influential social media research stating that mentions of prices and deals is associated with lower levels of likes and engagement (Lee et al., 2018). However, the same research has also highlighted that such mentions of prices and deals drove higher engagement levels when provided in combination with brand personality–related attributes.



*UGC stories not possible to collect as hotels are not tagged

Figure 1. Volume of posts*

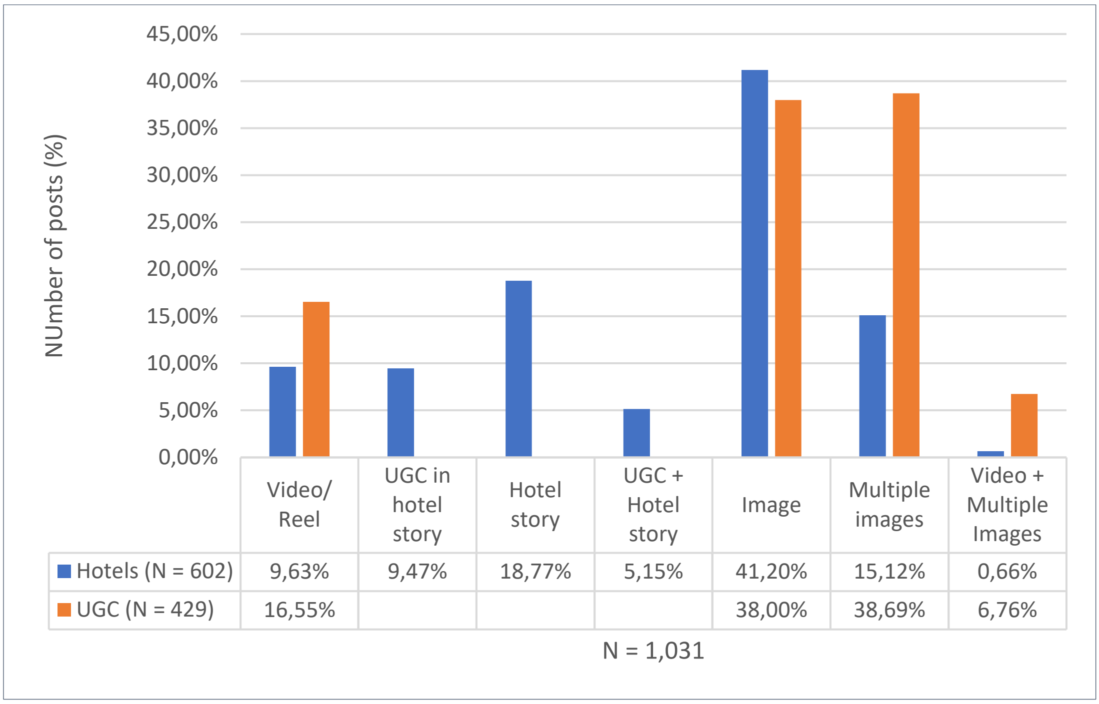


Figure 2. Volume of posts by percentage

Implications for the advancement of hotel and tourism research and industry practice

Video is King

This paper sheds light on an under researched platform (Instagram) for hotels and what drives likes of content for both UGC and hotels. As such, marketing/social media professionals in the hotel industry should focus on increasing content which reverberates around video (and paired with multiple images). Our analysis shows this is a clear driver for likes – which are critical for driving engagement - and engagement is gold (Lee et al., 2018). This also strengthens Varkaris and Neuhofer's conclusions (2017), in that "social media content plays an important role when deciding which hotel to pick" (p. 113). This paper does also raise the question if videos are more valuable due to their scarcity? Future research should delve into if video content would drive the same likes if there wasn't a "library" of images to support them. In other words, is there an ideal manner in how to construct a hotel's Instagram portfolio?

Combining attributes drives likes and the importance of physical spaces

Marketing/social media professionals in hotels should work strategically on creating content which combines multiple attributes of hotels. Our paper reveals that from the perspective of hotel generated content, combining physical attributes with other attributes such as service offerings or people drives likes. This is an important finding, as social media plays an important role influencing potential guests decision making process in whether or not to choose a hotel (Varkaris & Neuhofer, 2017). Future research should delve into how such professionals strategically choose when and what to upload to Instagram. Following an explanatory sequential design (Ivankova et al., 2006), this paper is part of a larger project, which will undertake semi-structured interviews with professionals from the hotels included in this study to gain a deeper understanding of how, when and what they decide to upload to its Instagram platform.

Moreover, our analysis shows that users were very interested in documenting their stay at hotels with physical spaces in mind (both with and without themselves in it). Much like the June Motel's approach, hotel professionals and designers should consider designing their spaces with an "Instagram-lens" in mind. This paper was beneficial to highlight what attributes of a hotel drives likes, but future research should delve into what makes a space specifically instagrammable. Specifically, how does 'hard' features play a role (such as décor, lighting, layout) versus 'soft' features (mood, ambience)?

Sales-related vs. informative posts: the role of brand personality attributes?

For driving likes, sales-related posts significantly outperformed informative posts. While this may offer an area of rich opportunity for marketing/social media professionals in the hotel industry on what to post, this also reveals an area where future studies are needed. Do these types of sales-related posts only perform well if they are attached to the hotel's brand personality attributes? And much like the questions around video content, do sales-related posts only perform so well because they are 'backed up' by informative posts?

Table 2. Content Category by Hotel type – UGC

	Beach Hotel		City Hotel		Conference Hotel		Inn/Castle		Resort	
Variables	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
Content Category	*113*	*100,00%*	*98*	*100,00%*	*48*	*100,00%*	*78*	*100,00%*	*92*	*100,00%*
Videos/Reels	13	11,50%	30	30,61%	10	20,83%	8	10,26%	10	10,87%
Image	38	33,63%	43	43,88%	19	39,58%	33	42,31%	30	32,61%
Multiple Image	54	47,79%	22	22,45%	18	37,50%	32	41,03%	40	43,48%
Video + Multiple Image	8	7,08%	3	3,06%	1	2,08%	5	6,41%	12	13,04%

Table 3. Content Category by Hotel type – Hotels

	Beach Hotel		City Hotel		Conference Hotel		Inn/Castle		Resort	
Variables	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage	Total	Percentage
Content Category	*150*	*100,00%*	*132*	*100,00%*	*93*	*100,00%*	*102*	*100,00%*	*125*	*100,00%*
Video/Reel	26	17,33%	10	7,58%	7	7,53%	7	6,86%	8	6,40%
UGC in hotel story	17	11,33%	12	9,09%	7	7,53%	7	6,86%	14	11,20%
Hotel story	26	17,33%	21	15,91%	13	13,98%	20	19,61%	33	26,40%
UGC + Hotel story	11	7,33%	9	6,82%	0	0,00%	4	3,92%	7	5,60%
Image	51	34,00%	64	48,48%	48	51,61%	40	39,22%	45	36,00%
Multiple images	19	12,67%	16	12,12%	18	19,35%	22	21,57%	16	12,80%
Video + Multiple Images	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	2	1,96%	2	1,60%

Table 4. Posts by Hotel type - Hotels

	Beach Hotel		City Hotel		Conference Hotel		Inn/Castle		Resort	
Type of Post	*150*	*100,00%*	*132*	*100,00%*	*93*	*100,00%*	*102*	*100,00%*	*125*	*100,00%*
Sales-related	47	31,33%	28	21,21%	9	9,68%	6	5,88%	12	9,60%
Informative	88	58,67%	93	70,45%	84	90,32%	90	88,24%	100	80,00%
Other	15	10,00%	11	8,33%	0	0,00%	6	5,88%	13	10,40%
Physical attributes of the hotel	*233*	*100,00%*	*184*	*100,00%*	*110*	*100,00%*	*114*	*100,00%*	*177*	*100,00%*
Ext. views of (from hotel)	50	21,46%	36	19,57%	21	19,09%	37	32,46%	64	36,16%
Int. View of hotel	31	13,30%	26	14,13%	10	9,09%	10	8,77%	23	12,99%
Lobby	5	2,15%	4	2,17%	2	1,82%	1	0,88%	3	1,69%
Room	14	6,01%	27	14,67%	10	9,09%	5	4,39%	7	3,95%
Bathroom	8	3,43%	9	4,89%	2	1,82%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%
F&B facilities	33	14,16%	12	6,52%	11	10,00%	24	21,05%	17	9,60%
Conference facilities	0	0,00%	1	0,54%	8	7,27%	1	0,88%	4	2,26%
Spa/pool/beach	43	18,45%	33	17,93%	5	4,55%	1	0,88%	32	18,08%
N/A	49	21,03%	36	19,57%	41	37,27%	35	30,70%	27	15,25%
Service Offerings	*216*	*100,00%*	*161*	*100,00%*	*102*	*100,00%*	*113*	*100,00%*	*154*	*100,00%*
Events/Happenings	21	9,72%	27	16,77%	14	13,73%	26	23,01%	39	25,32%
Wedding	2	0,93%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	3	2,65%	1	0,65%
Accommodation	44	20,37%	22	13,66%	8	7,84%	4	3,54%	16	10,39%
F&B	81	37,50%	41	25,47%	33	32,35%	42	37,17%	32	20,78%
Spa/pool/beach/treatments	36	16,67%	12	7,45%	3	2,94%	1	0,88%	25	16,23%
Other services	7	3,24%	4	2,48%	6	5,88%	4	3,54%	5	3,25%
Sustainable services	3	1,39%	7	4,35%	8	7,84%	0	0,00%	2	1,30%
N/A	22	10,19%	48	29,81%	30	29,41%	33	29,20%	34	22,08%
People	*155*	*100,00%*	*137*	*100,00%*	*96*	*100,00%*	*107*	*100,00%*	*133*	*100,00%*
Employees/Staff	14	9,03%	11	8,03%	15	15,63%	17	15,89%	11	8,27%
Guests	57	36,77%	27	19,71%	12	12,50%	12	11,21%	44	33,08%
Other	1	0,65%	13	9,49%	5	5,21%	3	2,80%	10	7,52%
N/A	83	53,55%	86	62,77%	64	66,67%	75	70,09%	68	51,13%
Communication/Information	*149*	*100,00%*	*135*	*100,00%*	*95*	*100,00%*	*102*	*100,00%*	*125*	*100,00%*
Credentials	3	2,01%	1	0,74%	1	1,05%	5	4,90%	1	0,80%
CSR	3	2,01%	8	5,93%	13	13,68%	1	0,98%	6	4,80%
Safety/Security	0	0,00%	1	0,74%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%
Off-site experiences	7	4,70%	16	11,85%	8	8,42%	3	2,94%	19	15,20%
Competition	5	3,36%	1	0,74%	4	4,21%	0	0,00%	8	6,40%
Other	30	20,13%	18	13,33%	12	12,63%	11	10,78%	22	17,60%
Job Offers	5	3,36%	11	8,15%	1	1,05%	3	2,94%	1	0,80%
N/A	96	64,43%	79	58,52%	56	58,95%	79	77,45%	68	54,40%

Table 5. Posts by Hotel type – UGC

	Beach Hotel		City Hotel		Conference Hotel		Inn/Castle		Resort	
Physical attributes of the hotel	*193*	*100,00%*	*226*	100,00%	*58*	*100,00%*	*106*	100,00%	*128*	100,00%
Ext. views of (from hotel)	59	30,57%	28	12,39%	10	17,24%	34	32,08%	43	33,59%
Int. View of hotel	18	9,33%	11	4,87%	8	13,79%	16	15,09%	8	6,25%
Lobby	0	0,00%	99	43,81%	0	0,00%	1	0,94%	1	0,78%
Room	13	6,74%	9	3,98%	3	5,17%	2	1,89%	5	3,91%
Bathroom	2	1,04%	1	0,44%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%
F&B facilities	38	19,69%	10	4,42%	4	6,90%	20	18,87%	9	7,03%
Conference facilities	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	5	8,62%	2	1,89%	6	4,69%
Spa/pool/beach	30	15,54%	39	17,26%	1	1,72%	0	0,00%	25	19,53%
N/A	33	17,10%	29	12,83%	27	46,55%	31	29,25%	31	24,22%
Service Offerings	*128*	*100,00%*	*103*	100,00%	*51*	*100,00%*	*89*	100,00%	*109*	100,00%
Events/Happenings	15	11,72%	7	6,80%	16	31,37%	11	12,36%	24	22,02%
F&B	59	46,09%	30	29,13%	8	15,69%	22	24,72%	28	25,69%
Spa/pool/beach/treatments	18	14,06%	11	10,68%	1	1,96%	0	0,00%	15	13,76%
Wedding	6	4,69%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	26	29,21%	1	0,92%
Other services (e.g., turndown)	0	0,00%	3	2,91%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	4	3,67%
Sustainable services	0	0,00%	2	1,94%	2	3,92%	1	1,12%	1	0,92%
N/A	30	23,44%	50	48,54%	24	47,06%	29	32,58%	36	33,03%
People	*138*	*100,00%*	*103*	100,00%	*58*	*100,00%*	*87*	100,00%	*110*	100,00%
Employees/Staff	5	3,62%	4	3,88%	10	17,24%	9	10,34%	0	0,00%
Guests	57	41,30%	47	45,63%	15	25,86%	42	48,28%	50	45,45%
Selfie	23	16,67%	3	2,91%	3	5,17%	4	4,60%	13	11,82%
Other	9	6,52%	6	5,83%	9	15,52%	8	9,20%	16	14,55%
N/A	44	31,88%	43	41,75%	21	36,21%	24	27,59%	31	28,18%
Branding	*118*	*100,00%*	*103*	100,00%	*52*	*100,00%*	*88*	100,00%	*96*	100,00%
Hotel Brand	15	*12,71%*	8	7,77%	6	11,54%	15	17,05%	9	9,38%
Other Brand	25	*21,19%*	19	18,45%	21	40,38%	26	29,55%	22	22,92%
No Brand	78	*66,10%*	76	73,79%	25	48,08%	47	53,41%	65	67,71%
Communication/Information	*116*	*100,00%*	*107*	100,00%	*53*	*100,00%*	*82*	100,00%	*102*	100,00%
Credentials	1	0,86%	1	0,93%	3	5,66%	3	3,66%	0	0,00%
CSR	1	0,86%	2	1,87%	3	5,66%	2	2,44%	3	2,94%
Safety/Security	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%	0	0,00%
Off-site experiences	10	8,62%	19	17,76%	19	35,85%	7	8,54%	35	34,31%
Travelling	5	4,31%	12	11,21%	4	7,55%	4	4,88%	12	11,76%
Other	12	10,34%	6	5,61%	5	9,43%	8	9,76%	3	2,94%
N/A	87	75,00%	67	62,62%	19	35,85%	58	70,73%	49	48,04%

Table 6. Likes

Variables	Total	Percentage	Likes	%	Likes per post
			UGC		
Variables	Total	Percentage	Likes	%	Likes per post
Content Category	*429*	*100,00%*	*92001*	*100,00%*	*214*
Videos/Reels	71	16,55%	29140	31,67%	410
Image	163	38,00%	17603	19,13%	108
Multiple image	166	38,69%	31042	33,74%	187
Video + Multiple image	29	6,76%	14216	15,45%	490
			Hotels		
Variables	Total	Percentage	Likes	%	Likes per post
*Content Category**	*401*	*100,00%*	*69254*	*100,00%*	*173*
Videos/Reels	58	14,46%	18050	26,06%	311
Image	248	61,85%	36039	52,04%	145
Multiple image	91	22,69%	14645	21,15%	161
Video + Multiple image	4	1,00%	520	0,75%	130
*Type of post**	*401*	*100,00%*	*69254*	*100,00%*	*173*
Sales-related	78	19,45%	27414	39,58%	351
Informative	321	80,05%	41751	60,29%	130
Other	2	0,50	89	0,13%	45

*Excludes stories as we cannot measure likes

Table 7. Likes per categories

Category	UGC			Hotels		
	Total	Likes	Likes per post	Total	Likes	Likes per post
Physical attributes of the hotel	37	7496	203	64	5782	90
Service Offerings	32	4068	127	60	3335	56
People	8	1360	170	3	213	71
Branding**	2	127	64			
Communication/Information	6	1058	176	11	626	57
Physical Attributes + Service Offerings	17	674	40	63	13857	220
Physical Attributes + People	30	9582	319	9	941	105
Physical Attributes + Branding**	6	311	52			
Physical Attributes + Communication/Information	16	1409	88	24	4391	183
Service offerings + People	25	1986	79	30	2844	95
Service offerings + Branding**	10	1962	196			
Service offerings + Communication/Information	5	685	137	23	2054	89
Communication/Information + People	7	445	64	7	367	52
Branding + Communication/Information**	7	298	43			
People + Branding**	1	6	6			

*** Excludes Stories as we cannot measure likes**

** Branding category was only conducted for UGC

Table 8. Comparison likes per hotel type

Comparison - likes per post (Hotels)						
Variables	Beach Hotel (N=96)	City Hotel (N=90)	Conf. Hotel (N=73)	Inn/Castle (N=71)	Resort (N=71)	All hotel types
Content Category	345	202	27	75	150	*173*
Video/Reel	412	469	14	140	197	311
Image	279	185	18	66	143	145
Multiple images	430	102	55	76	137	161
Video + Multiple Images	N/A	N/A	N/A	28	232	130
Comparison - likes per post (UGC)						
Variables	Beach Hotel (N=113)	City Hotel (N=98)	Conf. Hotel (N=48)	Inn/Castle (N=78)	Resort (N=92)	All hotel types
Content Category	317	340	176	72	95	214
Video/Reel	63	717	584	30	74	410
Image	167	92	32	71	145	108
Multiple images	402	107	111	87	55	187
Video + Multiple Images	874	1828	10	53	122	490

Table 9. Comparison likes per host (region)

Comparison - likes per post (hotels)						
Variables	Capital City (N=94)	Zealand (N=88)	Southern Denmark (N=73)	Middle Jutland (N=78)	Northern Jutland (N=68)	All regions
Content Category	*362*	*66*	*49*	*111*	*252*	*173*
Video/Reel	709	61	115	125	641	311
Image	258	64	21	84	264	145
Multiple images	383	71	61	176	125	161
Video + Multiple Images	409	55	N/A	N/A	28	130
Comparison - likes per post (UGC)						
Variables	Capital City (N=143)	Zealand (N=64)	Southern Denmark (N=62)	Middle Jutland (N=82)	Northern Jutland (N=78)	All regions
Content Category	*356*	*141*	*89*	*163*	*170*	214
Video/Reel	556	47	55	53	114	410
Image	181	91	104	72	53	108
Multiple images	236	214	80	329	96	187
Video + Multiple Images	582	102	35	129	1184	490

References

Anderson, C. (2017, September). In the millennial, social-media-centric age, Instagrammable hotels stand out. Hotelmanagement.Net, 1–3. Retrieved from https://vtechworks.lib.vt.edu/handle/10919/79885

Aydin, G. (2020). Social media engagement and organic post effectiveness: A roadmap for increasing the effectiveness of social media use in hospitality industry. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 29(1), 1–21.

Brøns-Poulsen, S., & Mylin, K. M. (2022). *Mastering Hospitality Management - Modern competencies and approaches to successful hospitality management* (2nd ed.). Copenhagen, Denmark: Polyteknisk Forlag.

Danish Ministry of Culture. (2020). Sociale medier 2020 - Brug, Indhold og Relationer. In Mediernes udvikling i Danmark. Retrieved from https://mediernesudvikling.kum.dk/fileadmin/user_upload/dokumenter/medier/Mediernes_udvikling/2019/Specialrapporter/Sociale_medier_indhold/Sociale_medier_-_brug__indhold_og_relationer.pdf

Dawson, K. (2021). How Two Best Friends Became the Motel Queens of Canada. Retrieved from Architectural Digest website: https://www.architecturaldigest.com/story/how-two-best-friends-became-the-motel-queens-of-canada

Garrido-Moreno, A., García-Morales, V. J., Lockett, N., & King, S. (2018). The missing link: Creating value with Social Media use in hotels. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 75, 94–104.

Gonzalez, R., Gasco, J., & Llopis, J. (2019). ICTs in hotel management: A research review. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 31(9), 3583–3609.

Halliburton, C., & Ziegfeld, A. (2009). How do major European companies communicate their corporate identity across countries? - An empirical investigation of corporate internet communications. *Journal of Marketing Management*, 25(9), 909–925.

Han, Y., & Lee, H. (2021). Lifestyle experiences: Exploring key attributes of lifestyle hotels using instagram user-created contents in South Korea. *Sustainability*, 13, 1–18.

Hansen, D. L., Shneiderman, B., & Smith, M. A. (2011). *Analyzing Social Media Networks with Nodexl: Insights from a Connected World*. Burlington: Morgan Kaufmann.

Iglesias-Sánchez, P., Correia, M. B., Jambrino-Maldonado, C., & de las Heras-Pedrosa, C. (2020). Instagram as a Co-Creation Space for Tourist Destination Image-Building: Algarve and Costa del Sol Case Studies. *Sustainability*, 12(7), 2793.

Ivankova, N. V, Creswell, J. W., & Stick, S. L. (2006). Sequential Explanatory Design: From Theory to Practice. *Field Methods*, 18(3), 3–20.

Kapoor, K. K., Tamilmani, K., Rana, N. P., Patil, P., Dwivedi, Y. K., & Nerur, S. (2018). Advances in Social Media Research: Past, Present and Future. *Information Systems Frontiers*, 20, 531–558.

Kim, W. H., & Chae, B. (Kevin). (2018). Understanding the relationship among resources, social media use and hotel performance: The case of Twitter use by hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 30(9), 2888–2907.

Kitsios, F., Mitsopoulou, E., Moustaka, E., & Kamariotou, M. (2022). User-Generated Content in Social Media: A Twenty-Year Bibliometric Analysis in Hospitality. *Information*, 13(12).

Lee, D., Hosanagar, K., & Nair, H. S. (2018). Advertising Content and Consumer Engagement on Social Media: Evidence from Facebook. *Management Science*, 64(11), 5105–5131.

Leung, X. Y., Bai, B., & Stahura, K. A. (2013). The Marketing Effectiveness of Social Media in the Hotel Industry: A Comparison of Facebook and Twitter. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 39(2), 147–169.

Lombard, M., Snyder-Duch, J., & Bracken, C. C. (2002). Content Analysis in Mass Communication. *Human Communication Research*, 28(4), 587–604.

Lu, Y. (Tracy), Chen, Z. (Wade), & Law, R. (2018). Mapping the progress of social media research in hospitality and tourism management from 2004 to 2014. *Journal of Travel and Tourism Marketing*, 35(2), 102–118.

Michopoulou, E., & Moisa, D. G. (2019). Hotel social media metrics: The ROI dilemma. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 76(Part A), 308–315.

Rainie, L., Brenner, J., & Purcell, K. (2012). *Photos and Videos as Social Currency Online*. Washington D.C.

RivalIQ. (2019). 2019 Social Media Industry Benchmark Report. Retrieved from https://www.rivaliq.com/blog/2019-social-media-benchmark-report/#title-hotels-resorts

Shahbaznezhad, H., Dolan, R., & Rashidirad, M. (2021). The Role of Social Media Content Format and Platform in Users' Engagement Behavior. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 53, 47–65.

Sheldon, P., & Bryant, K. (2016). Instagram: Motives for its use and relationship to narcissism and contextual age. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 58, 89–97.

Statista. (2019). How do you typically use your mobile phone to find inspiration or ideas on where to travel? Retrieved from: https://www.statista.com/statistics/185454/technology-used-to-plan-leisure-travel-in-the-us-2011/

Statista. (2020). Instagram usage in Denmark in 2020, by frequency. Retrieved from: https://www.statista.com/statistics/656101/instagram-usage-frequency-in-denmark/

Statista. (2022a). Most popular social networks worldwide as of January 2022, ranked by number of monthly active users. Retrieved from: https://www.statista.com/statistics/272014/global-social-networks-ranked-by-number-of-users/

Statista. (2022b). Ranking of social networks in Denmark as of December 2022, by market share. Retrieved from: https://www.statista.com/statistics/621343/most-popular-social-networks-in-denmark/

Statista. (2023). Number of Instagram users worldwide from 2020 to 2025. Retrieved from: https://www.statista.com/statistics/183585/instagram-number-of-global-users/

Tešin, A., Pivac, T., Besermenji, S., & Obradović, S. (2022). Exploring the influence of Instagram on travel destination choice. *The European Journal of Applied Economics*, 19(1), 66–80.

Varkaris, E., & Neuhofer, B. (2017). The influence of social media on the consumers' hotel decision journey. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 8(1), 101–118.

Vinyals-Mirabent, S., Kavaratzis, M., & Fernández-Cavia, J. (2019). The role of functional associations in building destination brand personality: When official websites do the talking. *Tourism Management*, 75, 148–155.

Voorveld, H. A. M., van Noort, G., Muntinga, D. G., & Bronner, F. (2018). Engagement with Social Media and Social Media Advertising: The Differentiating Role of Platform Type. *Journal of Advertising*, 47(1), 38–54.

Xu, Y., Yang, Y., Cheng, Z., & Lim, J. (2014). Retaining and attracting users in social networking services: An empirical investigation of cyber migration. *The Journal of Strategic Information Systems*, 23(3), 239–253.

Yoong, L. C., & Lian, S. B. (2019). Customer Engagement in Social Media and Purchase Intentions in the Hotel Industry. *International Journal of Academic Research in Business and Social Sciences*, 9(1).

Zhu, J., Jiang, L., Dou, W., & Liang, L. (2019). Post, Eat, Change: The Effects of Posting Food Photos on Consumers' Dining Experiences and Brand Evaluation. *Journal of Interactive Marketing*, 46(1).

1.2. Progress of Artificial Intelligence (AI) in the event industry – A review of literature

Eudora Bangura | Leeds Beckett University, UK
Miju Choi | Leeds Beckett University, UK
Annette Pritchard | Leeds Beckett University, UK

Abstract

The paper aims to review the existing literature on Artificial Intelligence (AI) Robotics and Service Automation in the Events Industry. Various databases were searched, and peer-reviewed journal articles from several disciplines were reviewed. Content analysis was conducted, and key attributes of each paper were recorded. A survey of the literature indicated that academic literature on the events industry has not been exhaustive, and there is little critical mention of AI and robotics technology, regardless of its presence in various segments of the events industry. It is at once challenging and uplifting in ways that lead to opportunities in the events industry. However, indications from academia and industry reveal a discernible gap in the event sector. This study investigates real-life applications and its contribution towards enhancing real-life applications in the events industry. The paper proposes to contribute to prevailing theories and developments in the application of AI.

Keywords: Events; Artificial Intelligence; Robotic; Chatbot; Technology

Introduction

The events industry has undergone significant changes over time, leading event professionals to adjust to emerging trends and evolving consumer demands. Events are frequently goal-oriented, intended to fulfil specific social or individual ambitions that arise from individuals gathering together with a common intention, thereby fostering a sense of shared identity. According to UK Events, the industry is currently valued at £70 billion in direct spending, with corporate and conventional events expending £31 billion and £39 billion, respectively (Fullard, 2020). These figures underscore the industry's economic significance and highlight the need for continuous adaptation to changing market dynamics. This paper will delve into the metamorphosis of the events industry and examine the strategic approaches event professionals have taken to remain competitive in the market.

The most prominent use of AI in events is curating entertainment and designs for specific attendees. However, there is a consensus in the existing literature on event management that the integration of technology accommodates the heightened demand of attendees and increases event efficiency (Neuhofer et al., 2020). AI is intelligence performed by machines in contrast to human intellect. There are increasing developments regarding the application of AI technology, raising opportunities and challenges in the event industry. AI is impacting and will continue to impact the events industry. However, according to Event Management (EM), academic literature reviews the adoption of AI, robotics and service automation in events is limited (Ogle and Lamb, 2019).

The event industry is one of the many application areas that have the potential to use AI. However, given the complexity of AI systems, it will be difficult for event organisers to independently design and develop without using an AI plug-in (Eventbrite, 2017). AI applications launched most recently, including chatbot-virtual assistance, robotics and augmented reality / virtual reality (AR/VR), have changed the services industries (Doborjeh et al., 2022). The progress of AI can be categorised into four main areas: Event planning and scheduling, personalisation and recommendation, event security, and virtual and hybrid events.

Literature review

Event planning and scheduling

AI algorithms can help optimise the scheduling and planning of events, considering factors such as attendee preferences, venue availability and travel time. One study by Lu et al. (2021) used a genetic algorithm to optimise event scheduling based on attendee preferences and demonstrated its effectiveness in reducing scheduling conflicts and improving attendee satisfaction. According to Solaris (2018), the events industry has been a great pioneer in digital technologies. However, these emerging technologies have swiftly entered the industry by incorporating virtual reality, interactive activities, smartphones, access systems and apps. The literature indicates that it is no longer just a sprinkle of avant-garde AI applications (Neuhofer, 2020). The development of existing technologies and the emergence of disruptive technologies have affected how event practitioners plan and market events (Panetta, 2017). Ivanov and Webster (2017) state that the limitations become more challenging when it comes to real-life applications where client engagement and customer services are the core of decision-making. Hence, event professionals must engage in technology as the event industry has revolutionised planning and marketing.

Personalisation and recommendation

AI-powered recommendation systems can provide personalised content and recommendations to event attendees based on their preferences and interests. For example, the music festival Coachella used an AI-powered chatbot in 2017 to provide personalised recommendations to attendees based on their music tastes (Leong, 2017). Within events, AI is often referred to as technology or machines that can comprehend and engage in an environment using words, syntax and intelligent learning. AI could help event organisers create value through faster processes and cost savings while co-creating value for clients by recommending money-saving tips and increasing the experience flow (Neuhofer et al., 2020). Robertson and Frew (2008) suggest that the vitality of the modern-day events industry has demanded the integration of technology to meet the heightened demand of event attendees. Therefore, as highlighted by Torres (2017), AI technologies applied in event management yield numerous benefits. Nonetheless, Neuhofer et al. (2002) suggested that the future potential of events depended on how quickly AI evolved.

AI technologies can perform tasks that need human intelligence, including speech recognition, language translation and visual observation (Ogle and Lamb, 2019). Within the scope of AI, the event industry currently uses robotic applications, digital assistants and chatbots. This offers event security, safety, marketing, staging, operations, venue and event experience. Neuhofer et al. (2020) reiterate that AI is already being used in events in chatbots, event apps, predictions, virtual concierges, instant translation apps and personalisation. Jordan and Mitchell (2015) describe machine learning as a computer science technique that enables machines to learn without overt programming. Data sets that cannot be captured, managed and processed by basic computers within an adequate space are called Big Data (Chen et al., 2014; Song and Liu, 2017). A chatbot is a conversational tool that provides variety in a chat-driven process and is one of the most widely used AI technology. The main function of a chatbot is to provide consistent answers to questions through programming (Gupta and Vijayakumar, 2020). Ogle and Lamb (2019) indicate that using AI in events has supported strategic decision-making with the capacity to drive and improve the safety and security of stakeholders.

Event security

AI can also be used to enhance event security by analysing large amounts of data from various sources, such as social media, security cameras and sensor networks, to detect potential threats and anomalies. One example is the use of AI-powered facial recognition technology at the 2020 Super Bowl to identify potential security threats (Eadicicco, 2020). Major events often employ CCTV surveillance as a standard measure for safety and security. However, Neuhofer et al. (2020) suggest that the estimated high potential of AI in events mainly lies in its capability to assist in recognising faces, sounds and voices, facilitate tailored services and make future personal activity actions. In large events, facial recognition technology is employed to verify the identity of ticket holders to prevent impersonations and curtail illegal ticketing resale (Okumura et al., 2017). However, facial recognition is now used at innovative event venues to screen attendees at venue checkpoints, reducing bottlenecks and queues prolonged by manual security checks. Mckay (2017) states that AI allows for analytical analysis, enabling better decision-making based on available data. This ultimately makes events more secure and safer and could lead to favourable outcomes in times of crisis. However, Gretzel (2011) argues that no matter how intelligent and advanced technology has progressed, the event organisers will be responsible for any potential system failures.

According to Gartner's 2023 emerging technologies, despite the advancement in smart robot technology and autonomous mobile robots. Robotics has yet to be extensively adopted in events due to the limitations of its environment, task and human interaction capabilities (Nguyen, 2023). Tussyadiah et al. (2020) identified robotics as one of the latest developments in the hospitality and tourism discipline. However, from the perspective of robots, AI is considered a growing area covering in-depth research and development (Losbichler and Lehner, 2021). Angal and Gade (2016) define robots as electromechanical units programmed or controlled by people to perform specific tasks and actions. These robotics applications are primarily used for better customer engagement and production management (Choi et al., 2020). Some advantages of implementing robotics in the service industries are better service quality, reduced labour cost and improved operations through efficiency (Ivanov et al., 2019). Although AI removes repetitive tasks, it also allows humans to do empathetic tasks, such as genuinely engaging with clients and offering them a more meaningful value. Nonetheless, robots have yet to saturate universally compared to non-robot usage of machine learning (Bharadwaj et al., 2021).

Virtual and hybrid events

With the upsurge of Virtual and hybrid events in response to the Covid-19 pandemic, AI is being used to enhance the virtual event experience. For example, AI-powered chatbots can provide real-time assistance to virtual attendees, while powered video and audio processing can improve the quality of virtual event content (Guzman,2021). Metaverse is set to lead the next wave of human-to-human and human-to-machine interaction. AI also plays a role in creating and engaging authentic and scalable metaverse experiences. Nevertheless, while the risks and challenges of AI are attached to the issues associated with technology, like data security, system failure and the like, it does not affect its viability, rather leaves room for further research on the effective mitigation of these risks (Neuhofer et al., 2020).

Relevant theoretical underpinning

Various theories have been applied by various scholars to AI adoption and implementation in the event industry, such as:

- TAM the (Technology Acceptance Model), proposed by Davis in 1989, has been frequently employed to study the adoption of AI in various contexts, including the event industry (Talantis et al.,2020). Studies have investigated factors influencing intentions to adopt AI technologies and often assess perceived usefulness and ease of use as the main determinants of AI adoption.
- The Innovation Diffusion Theory (IDT), initially proposed by Rogers in 1962, concentrates on the spread of innovations within a social system (Westmattelmann et al., 2020). Scholars have examined the factors influencing the rate and extent of AI adoption among event professionals.
- The Technology Organization Environment (TOE) framework integrates technological, organisational and environmental factors to explain technology adoption decisions (Hradecky et al., 2022). This framework has been used in the event industry to examine the determinants of AI adoption and implementation.
- Venkatesh et al. (2003) proposed the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT), which provides a comprehensive model for understanding technology adoption and use. Scholars have applied this model to investigate the factors influencing event professionals' intentions to adopt (Barlian et al.,2018).
- The Socio-Technical Systems Theory (STS) emphasises the interplay between technology and social factors in organisations. The event industry studies drawing on this theory have examined the implications of AI implementations. Scholars have highlighted the importance of considering both AI implementation's technological and social dimensions (Challenger and Clegg, 2011).

Figure 1. The event industry sectors
(Designed by author, adapted from Bowdin and Mcpherson, 2006)

Figure 1 presents an overview of the multiple sectors and the various functions represented in the event industry. Bowdin and Mcpherson (2006) state that the following events originate from government, corporate and community sectors while serving private individual obligations. This mind map presents the various industry segments, as AI already plays a role across these multiple sectors.

Methodology

Articles were selected for analysis based on predetermined inclusion and exclusion criteria. The criteria included relevance to the study's focus on AI in the Events industry. Only peer-reviewed journal articles were considered for inclusion. A comprehensive search strategy was deployed to identify relevant articles. Data were collected from the following online search engine in February 2023: Google Scholar http://scholar.google.co.uk, Leeds Beckett University library https://leedsbeckett.on.worldcat.org, Scopus https://www.scopus.com and EBSCOhost http://search.ebscohost.com and Science Direct http://www.sciencedirect.com. The search keywords included artificial intelligence, AI, events, event planner, exhibition, MICE, machine learning, metaverse and digitalisation. However, articles that did not specifically address the use of these keywords were excluded. The search was limited to articles published covering the period of ten years from 2014 to 2023, ensuring the most relevant literature was inclusive. Two researchers independently conducted the search and screened the articles based on the required criteria, and discrepancies in article selection were resolved through discussion and consensus. Altogether, 21 papers were identified; however, only 4 directly correlated with AI in the event industry. The full-text versions of the selected papers were retrieved for further analysis. A systematic and comprehensive approach was adopted to examine the textual content within the dataset, and relevant information from the chosen article was extracted and discussed in the findings. However, as this study focused on conducting a systematic review of the literature, a quality assessment or critical appraisal was not performed. Therefore, the quality of the included studies may vary; hence the reliability and rigour of the findings should be considered accordingly. Nevertheless, this method is subject to limitations. Firstly, the inclusion and exclusion criteria and search strategy may introduce some level of subjectivity and potential biases. Additionally, despite efforts to be comprehensive, some relevant journals may have been missed during the search process.

Findings and discussion

Innovations like AI and robotics technology have introduced a new hemisphere of what events can produce, offering event organisers a competitive edge. AI was the future, but the future is now here. Chatbots, deep learning, concierge apps and big data offer opportunities fantastic for event professionals. The most widespread demonstration of AI and software classification for events is Chatbot. It enables the event participants to communicate with AI-powered software via their smartphones and on the event websites. This automated customer service tool allows attendees to receive prompt responses to queries, freeing up much-needed time for event organisers to plan the event. Although AI-powered event solutions can be standalone, developers can integrate them into existing platforms via application programming interfaces (API). The findings will therefore identify and acknowledge the trends, intersection, and power of robotics and AI in the event industry. Figure 2 shows the current AI-powered event trends and AI's pivotal role in creating immersive experiences.

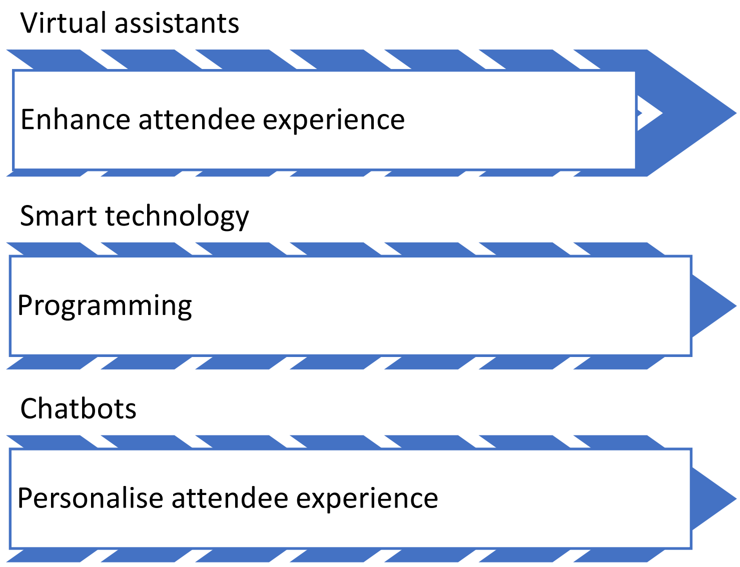


Figure 2. AI-powered event trends
(adapted from Ogle & Lamb, 2019)

Potentially, AI can revolutionise the events industry, presenting new ways to enhance attendee experiences, drive business growth and optimise event planning and management. However, a key area where AI is having an impact is attendee profiling. AI algorithms make it easier for organisers to analyse attendee data from various sources, including social media, registration forms and feedback surveys, to gain insights into attendee interests, preferences, and behaviour. Nevertheless, as with any new technology, it is essential that event professionals carefully consider the potential benefits and challenges and develop strategies that will align with their goals and values. Therefore, a swot analysis is conducted to explore the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats that could accompany adopting and using AI for successful events, as shown in Figure 3. AI plays a pivotal role in growing events, reflecting a positive approach embraced by the industry, often referred to as a late adopter of information technology (Ogle and Lamb, 2019). Although the use of AI in this sector is relatively new and the current state of knowledge in the field of AI and the event industry is still evolving. However, several studies, reports and articles have been published on this topic.

Related Articles

Ogle and Lamb (2019) further discuss the dynamism of the contemporary event industry. Highlighting technology to meet heightened event attendees' expectations. Business to Business event managers and event management software such as legacy data-driven, robotic process, automation, sophisticated AI and machine learning insight-driven solutions. Their study also states that AI-enabled business applications are salient and applicable to event management. Neuhofer et al. (2020) predicted that AI and robots, innovative systems augmented reality, and wearables will play the central role of technologies in facilitating contemporary event experiences and value systems. However, there is no doubt that the opportunities come with challenges for the events industry. Therefore, the weaknesses and threats to the industry must also be highlighted.

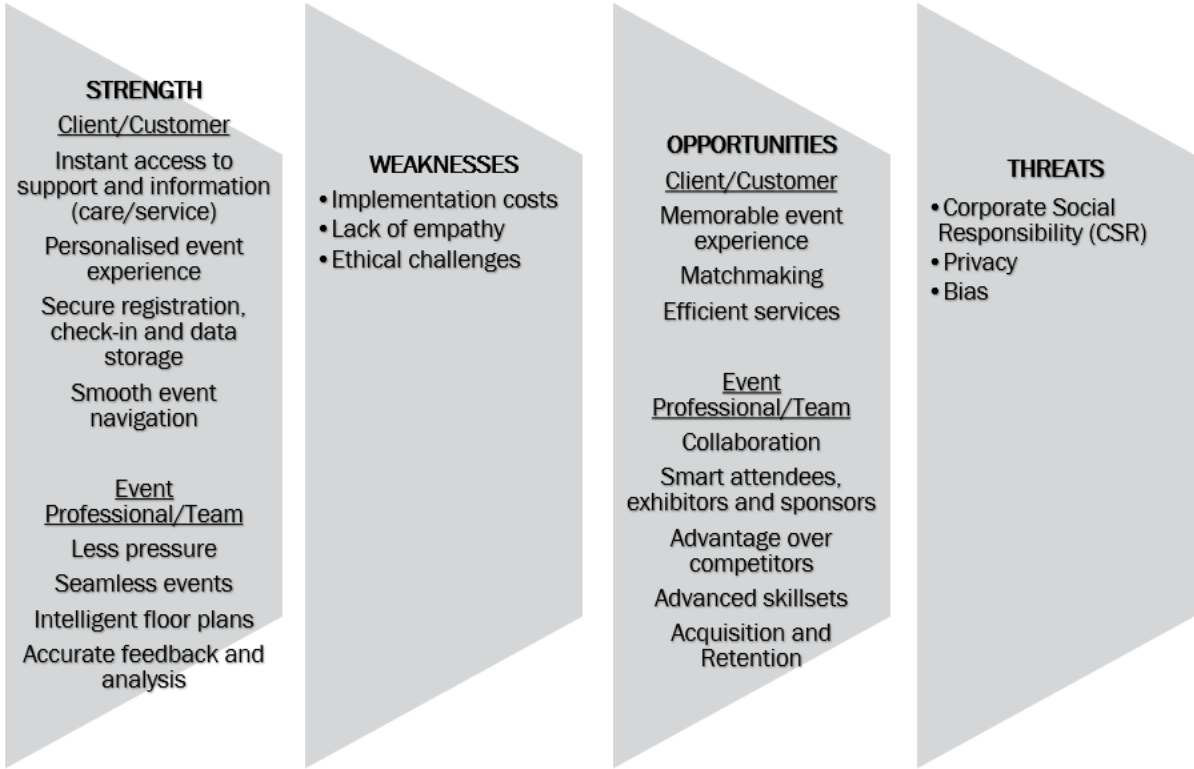


Figure 3. AI-powered event – SWOT analysis
(Designed and compiled by the Authors)

Singh et al. (2021) highlight the use of service robots in the events industry and the factors that influence the adoption of robots, discussing the concerns of humans perceiving robots as threats to their jobs, suggesting that robots should be designed to fit into the event while being used at various aspects of events but ensuring that event attendees are given a choice whether they want to interact with the robots. Hradecky et al. (2022) suggest that the adoption of AI relating to the sector is still in the initial stages. Highlighting that a lack of adequate knowledge and skill is creating uneasiness amongst the stakeholders, such as discomfort and insecurities. However, these stakeholders must be willing to allow experts in AI into the event sector to manage the adoption successfully until it becomes more established.

The findings of this review indicate a significant growth in the integration of AI in the event industry; with numerous success stories and promising applications, the event industry is on the verge of a revolution. However, it also emphasises the importance of a balanced approach that combines AI capabilities with human expertise and creativity to deliver exceptional event experiences. Hence, the importance for event professionals to acquire new AI-related skills. According to Ogle and Lamb (2019), these AI technologies are no more luxury tools but now essential commodities. However, the main concern is event professionals discovering how to use AI effectively and to its full potential.

Conclusion and limitations

This systematic review of the literature and incorporating relevant theoretical frameworks provides a comprehensive understanding of the theoretical underpinnings that have guided research on the progress of AI in the event industry. The identified theories have shed light on AI adoption and implementation aspects, including organisational alignment, ethical considerations, and attendee engagement. However, this study not only explores the potential benefits and opportunities offered by AI but also sheds light on the challenges and threats that must be addressed for successful execution. With a focus on the theories and development, this study contributes to the ongoing evolution of AI in the event industry and paves the way for future advancements.

AI is playing a pivotal role in growing events. However, studies around AI at events are mostly found online in professional event blogs and trend reports (Neuhofer et al., 2020) due to the extensive lack of literature directly from event journals. Therefore, the actual trends do not represent or reflect the industry's speed of growth. In contrast, this theoretical study presents the emergence of the current trending AI and its development in the events sector. Thus, this paper contributes to the present articles directly related to the study of the existing body of knowledge by offering insights for event professionals and researchers and suggesting future research directions. Highlighting the direct impact of AI on the event stakeholders is an area open for further research.

References

Angal, Y., & Gade, A. (2016, December). LabVIEW controlled robot for object handling using NI myRIO. In 2016 IEEE International conference on advances in electronics, communication and computer technology (ICAECCT) (pp. 167-171). IEEE.

Barlian, E., Supardi, D., Pradipto, Y. D., & Suprapto, A. T. (2018). Entrepreneurial Orientation of Small and Medium Enterprises toward the Use of E-commerce Platform: A Case Study of Event and Wedding Industry in Indonesia.

Bharadwaj, H. K., Agarwal, A., Chamola, V., Lakkaniga, N. R., Hassija, V., Guizani, M., & Sikdar, B. (2021). A review on the role of machine learning in enabling IoT-based healthcare applications. IEEE Access, 9, 38859-38890.

Bowdin, G., McPherson, G., & Flinn, J. (2006). *Identifying and analysing existing research undertaken in the events industry: A literature review for People1st*. London: People 1st.

Challenger, R., & Clegg, C. W. (2011). Crowd disasters: a socio-technical systems perspective. *Contemporary Social Science*, 6(3), 343-360.

Chen, M., Mao, S., & Liu, Y. (2014). Big data: A survey. *Mobile Networks and Applications*, 19, 171-209.

Choi, Y., Choi, M., Oh, M. & Kim, S. (2020). Service robots in hotels: understanding the service quality perceptions of human-robot interaction. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 29(6), 613–635.

Doborjeh, Z., Hemmington, N., Doborjeh, M., & Kasabov, N. (2021). Artificial intelligence: a systematic review of methods and applications in hospitality and tourism. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. Ahead-of-print. 10.1108/IJCHM-06-2021-0767.

Eadicicco, L. (2020). How Super Bowl LIV Is Using AI to Keep Fans Safe. Retrieved from: https://time.com/5775874/super-bowl-liv-ai-security/

Fullard, M. (2020). The UK events report reveals depth of £70bn events industry, Conference News. Retrieved from: https://www.conference-news.co.uk/coronavirus-updates-news/uk-events-report-reveals-depth-ps70bn-events-industry

Gretzel, U. (2011). Intelligent systems in tourism: A social science perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(3), 757–779.

Groot, T. (2017). How AI is impacting the events industry in 2017, Eventbrite Blog. Retrieved from: https://www.eventbrite.co.uk/blog/how-ai-impacting-events-industry-2017-ds00/

Gupta, A., Hathwar, D., & Vijayakumar, A. (2020). Introduction to AI chatbots. *International Journal of Engineering Research and Technology*, 9(7), 255-258.

Guzman, I. (2021). AI in virtual events: what to expect. Retrieved from: https://www.technologyrecord.com/Article/ai-in-virtual-events-what-to-expect-122868

Hradecky, D., Kennell, J., Cai, W., & Davidson, R. (2022). Organisational readiness to adopt artificial intelligence in the exhibition sector in Western Europe. *International Journal of Information Management*, 65, 102497.

Ivanov, S., & Webster, C. (2017). Adoption of Robots, Aritificial Intelligence and Service Automation by Travel, Tourism and Hospitality Companies - A cost-benefit Analysis. International Scientific Conference "Contemporary Tourism – Traditions and Innovations", 19- 21 October 2017, Sofia University, 1–9.

Ivanov, S., Gretzel, U., Berezina, K., Sigala, M., & Webster, C. (2019). Progress on robotics in hospitality and tourism: A review of the literature. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 10(4), 489–521.

Jordan, M. I., & Mitchell, T. M. (2015). Machine learning: Trends, perspectives, and prospects. *Science*, 349(6245), 255-260.

Leong, W. (2017). Coachella 2017 chatbot: the future of event tech? Retrieved from: https://www.eventmanagerblog.com/coachella-chatbot-future-event-tech

Losbichler, H., & Lehner, O. M. (2021). Limits of artificial intelligence in controlling and the ways forward: a call for future accounting research. *Journal of Applied Accounting Research*, 22(2), 365-382.

Lu, Y., Li, X., & Huang, C. (2021). An Optimisation Approach to Event Scheduling Problem with User Preferences. In Proceedings of the 2021 International Conference on Computer Science and Artificial Intelligence (pp. 86-90).

McKay, J. (2017). Emotional keynote on Las Vegas shooting a highlight at IAEM conference. In Emergency Management. Retrieved from: http://www. govtech. com/em/disaster/Emotional-Keynote-on-Las-Vegas-Shooting-a-Highlight-at-IAEM-Conference. html.

Neuhofer, B., Magnus, B., & Celuch, K. (2020). The impact of artificial intelligence on event experiences: A scenario technique approach. *Electronic Markets*, Becker 2019.

Nguyen, T. (2023) 4 emerging technologies you need to know about, Gartner. Retrieved from: https://www.gartner.com/en/articles/4-emerging-technologies-you-need-to-know-about

Ogle, A., & Lamb, D. (2019). The role of robots, artificial intelligence, and service automation in events. Robots, Artificial Intelligence and Service Automation in Travel, Tourism and Hospitality, October, 255–269.

Okumura, A., Hoshino, T., Handa, S., Nishiyama, Y., & Tabuchi, M. (2017). Identity verification of ticket holders at large-scale events using face recognition. *Journal of Information Processing*, 25, 448-458.

Panetta, K. (2017). The disruptive power of Artificial Intelligence, Gartner. Retrieved from: https://www.gartner.com/smarterwithgartner/the-disruptive-power-of-artificial-intelligence

Robertson, M. & Frew, E. (Eds.) (2008). Events and festivals: Current trends and issues. London: Routledge.

Singh, S., Olson, E. D., & Tsai, C. H. K. (2021). Use of service robots in an event setting: Understanding the role of social presence, eeriness, and identity threat. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 49, 528-537.

Solaris, J. (2020). The New Era of Event Technology. [online] Event Manager Blog. Retrieved from: https://www.eventmanagerblog.com/the-new-era-of-event-technology

Song, H., & Liu, H. (2017). Predicting tourist demand using big data. In Z. Xiang & D. Fesenmaier (Eds.) *Analytics in smart tourism design: Concepts and methods* (pp. 13-29). Springer.

Talantis, S., Shin, Y. H., & Severt, K. (2020). Conference mobile application: Participant acceptance and the correlation with overall event satisfaction utilising the technology acceptance model (TAM). *Journal of Convention & Event Tourism*, 21(2), 100-122.

Torres, A. (2017). The Event Technology Attendees Will Take for Granted in 5 Years. Eventbrite Blog. Retrieved from: https://www.eventbrite.com/blog/event-technology-ds00/

Tussyadiah, I. P., Zach, F. J., & Wang, J. (2020). Do travelers trust intelligent service robots? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 81, Article 102886.

Westmattelmann, D., Grotenhermen, J. G., Sprenger, M., Oldeweme, A., & Schewe, G. (2020). Antecedents of Mobile Payment Adoption: A Customer Group-Specific Analysis in Mass-Attended Hospitality. In AMCIS.

1.3. Blending tradition and innovation: How smart technologies transform tourist experiences at heritage sites

Huei-Ju Chen | National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality & Tourism (NKUHT), Taiwan
Myunghoe Kim | National Kaohsiung University of Hosp. & Tourism (NKUHT), Taiwan
Hsin-Yu Hsu | National Kaohsiung University of Hospitality & Tourism (NKUHT), Taiwan
Jyun-Hao Huang | National Kaohsiung University of Hosp. & Tourism (NKUHT), Taiwan
Chia-Hui Chien | National Kaohsiung University of Hosp. & Tourism (NKUHT), Taiwan

Abstract

The objective of this study was to examine the influence of augmented reality (AR) and virtual reality (VR) technologies on the visitor experience at heritage sites and their subsequent intention to revisit. and their revisit intention. Participants of the study were visitors to the Center of Old Fongshan City History (COFCH), a recently opened historical museum located in Kaohsiung, Taiwan. The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) was employed to assess the acceptability of AR and VR, including five dimensions: perceived ease of use (PEOU), perceived usefulness (PU), perceived enjoyment (PE), and behavioral intention (BI) to reuse AR and VR. The findings revealed that BI was significantly influenced by PE, followed by PU and PEOU after experiencing AR and VR. These results offer insights into how AR and VR adoption at heritage sites can enhance revisit intentions.

Keywords: Augmented Reality (AR); Virtual Reality (VR); Cultural heritage; Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

Introduction

Heritage sites have positive impacts on communities, including economic growth, citizen engagement, and education. Preserving these sites is crucial to explore the culture and history of places (Herbert, 1995). However, challenges in conservation have arisen due to changes in social and economic development. To address this, various preservation efforts have been implemented by communities and global organizations via preservation and contemporary awareness programs (Zhou et al., 2008). Augmented and virtual reality technologies are also being introduced to enhance preservation and interpretation of heritage sites, creating new opportunities in design, education, and entertainment, allowing users to experience virtual environments and be immersed in the virtual world (Wirth et al., 2007). AR and VR technologies have been applied to heritage sites for easy access to information and may serve as the next generation of personal guides. VR has multiple applications, including enhancing awareness of preservation and attracting tourists. AR and VR also enhance travel experiences and generate positive emotions towards destinations and connect people to history. They are powerful marketing tools that contribute to environmental protection and sustainability and can benefit the management and preservation of heritage sites, and the protection of specific vulnerable assets (Dewailly, 1999).

Although AR and VR have great potential to enhance tourist experience, more research is needed to fully explore tourist experience in the tourism industry (Fritz et al., 2005). There is a gap in the literature regarding the systematic study of AR and VR in tourism, which hinders the understanding of their potential benefits (Huang et al., 2016; Yung & Khoo-Lattimore, 2019). Furthermore, a lack of interest among younger generations can deter them from visiting heritage sites (Yang, Shafi, Song & Yang, 2018). To address this, engaging and entertaining technologies like AR and VR can help increase interest levels. The research in this study targeted visitors to the Center of Old Fongshan City History (COFCH), a historical museum in Kaohsiung, Taiwan. The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) was used to measure the influence of AR and VR technology application on tourism experiences at a heritage site. This research had three main objectives:

1. To investigate how visitor demographics, TAM constructs, and behavioral intentions are related to each other.
2. To determine how TAM constructs, affect behavioral intentions.
3. To offer practical recommendations for managers regarding the use of AR and VR at heritage sites.

Literature review

Development of AR and VR

AR and VR were first developed in the 1950s by Morton Heilig. In 1962, he created a prototype of his vision nicknames as "the Cinema of the Future," which preceded digital computing (Mazuryk & Gervautz, 1996). Azuma's (1997) definition of AR combines real and virtual environments in 3D and in real-time. The Horizon Report (2005) predicted an expansion of AR within four to five years. Since then, more AR and VR applications have been developed, particularly for mobile use. AR and VR are versatile technologies with vast potential that can revolutionize various industries (Jung & Han, 2014). They are expected to reach a market value of $150 billion by 2020 (Digi Capital, 2016) and have exceptional performance in tourism. These technologies can enable visitors to view animations that showcase the history of cultural and heritage sites, thus promoting a greater understanding of culture. Users have a strong desire to experience a new world through AR and VR applications at heritage sites (Lee & Hong, 2016), making them an appropriate method to promote cultural heritage (tom Dieck & Jung, 2017).

Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

The Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) is a modified version of the Theory of Reasoned Action (TRA) developed by Ajzen and Fishbein in 1980, designed to assess the acceptance of technology (Davis, 1986). According to Davis (1986), the original TAM proposed that the individual's intention to use technology is influenced by two experience dimensions: perceived ease of use and perceived usefulness. Research into AR and VR technologies has expanded to various fields, including medicine, architecture, education, mobile applications, online games, and virtual worlds (Ma, 2017; Stavroulia & Lanitis, 2017; Dascal et al., 2017; Kim, Park & Morrison, 2008). While many studies have focused on technological applications and development, accessibility and adaptability by users are also essential (Turoff et al., 2004; Keil et al., 1995). To analyze consumer behavior and attitudes toward AR and VR, the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) has been used to explain intentions to use these technologies (Legris et al., 2003). Several studies have found that enjoyment, ease of use, and usefulness are crucial factors in determining intentions to use AR and VR (Yang et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2017; Mäntymäki & Salo, 2011).

Researchers have utilized TAM to examine individual experiences with AR and VR technology. A study by Manis and Choi (2018) applied TAM, not only to comprehend the intention to use new technologies but also to explain consumer behavior across various technologies. Their research found that consumers require a handheld device viewed online via a computer or another device to experience VR content. TAM was empirically verified to ascertain the intention to accept and use VR technology, revealing that consumer perceptions of usefulness, enjoyment, and ease of use positively predicted VR usage.

Davis (1986) proposed the original TAM to determine consumer intentions to use and verify actual uses of new technologies. The elements of the original TAM included perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, attitude towards use, behavioral intention to use, and actual use. Subsequently, researchers discovered a relationship between enjoyment and positive consumer intentions towards new technologies (Turoff et al., 2004; Keil et al., 1995), leading to the addition of perceived enjoyment to TAM by Manis and Choi (2019). In previous studies (Yang et al., 2016; Huang et al., 2013; Chen et al., 2012), TAM has frequently been employed to understand individuals' inclinations towards adopting novel technology and their level of acceptance towards it. In this particular research, the dimensions of TAM, namely the perception of usefulness, enjoyment, and ease of use, were utilized to investigate people's responses towards the implementation of AR and VR technology at historical sites.

Research model, variables, and hypotheses

The objective of this study was to scrutinize the acceptance of AR and VR technology using the research model illustrated in Figure 1. The model incorporates several constructs is presented below.

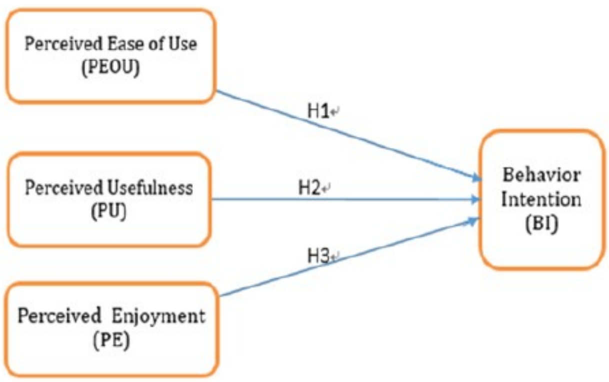


Figure 1. Research conceptual model

After conducting the literature review and defining the relevant terms, the research hypotheses were formulated. Previous studies on AR and VR applications at heritage sites and other tourist destinations (SWI swissinfo.ch, 2017) have suggested a positive correlation between the use of AR and VR and the intention to revisit. PEOU, which refers to the level of ease experienced by users while interacting with the system, is enhanced when users feel comfortable and free of exertion (Nikou & Economides, 2015). Studies by Rasimah et al. (2011) have indicated that PEOU has a significant positive impact on the intention to use AR and VR. Initially, users may face challenges while familiarizing themselves with AR and VR, but they tend to accept and use applications that are perceived as easier to use (Venkatesh, 2000). The degree to which individuals believe that using AR and VR will enhance their travel experiences is known as perceived usefulness (PU)

(Hendrickson, Massey & Cronan, 1993). A system is considered highly useful if it is perceived to have a positive use-performance relationship by users (Yusoff et al., 2009). Consequently, the first and second hypotheses are:

H1: PEOU has a positive impact on the intention to use.
H2: PU has a positive impact on the intention to use.

PE refers to the perception of enjoyment and pleasure derived from using a system (van der Heijden, 2004). The factors that contribute to enjoyment include entertainment, relaxation, excitement, and fun (Nysveen et al., 2005; van der Heijden, 2004; Lin & Bhattacherjee, 2010), making people more inclined to engage with and participate in using AR and VR. Therefore, the third hypothesis is:

H3: Perceived enjoyment has a positive impact on the intention to use.

Research method

Questionnaire design

The survey questionnaire used in this research comprised two parts. The first part focused on collecting demographic information such as age, gender, occupation, education, annual income, travel patterns, AR and VR use experiences, and heritage site visit frequencies. The second part contained measurement items for TAM (PEOU, PU, PE, and BI) to examine the impact on revisit intentions after experiencing AR and VR. The second part included 20 items measured on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Sample design and data collection

Kaohsiung, founded in the early 17th century, played a significant role as an administrative center in Taiwan during the late Ming dynasty when Chinese settlers arrived on Cijin Island. In the Japanese colonial period, it became a main port of Taiwan with the development of rail lines and the harbor (Kaohsiung City Government, 2013). The subject of this study is Old Fongshan City, one of the originally developed areas in Kaohsiung, which is now a national monument. Its walls, gates, and moats signify its importance in the development of culture, education, and politics. COFCH, a local history museum, opened on March 3rd, 2018, to preserve cultural heritage. By utilizing new technologies such as AR and VR, COFCH provides a realistic representation of the city's history (COFCH, 2017). According to COFCH statistics, approximately 17,000 visitors visit the museum annually on average.

Two versions of the questionnaire, in English and Chinese, were developed for international and domestic visitors, respectively, who visited COFCH. The survey was conducted after visitors had completed their visits to COFCH and experienced AR and VR. To meet the requirement for an adequate number of cases for factor analysis, 200 valid questionnaires were collected, which is a standard rule of thumb that the sample size should be at least ten times the number of items.

Results

Upon experiencing AR and VR at COFCH, visitors were requested to fill out questionnaires. The results showed that the majority of respondents (46.0%) were between the ages of 20 and 40, female (57.5%), and highly educated, having attained a bachelor's degree (64.5%). Of the sample, students accounted for 43.5%. A significant proportion of the visitors (43.5%) had previous experience using AR and VR. Additionally, over half (54%) of the respondents had visited heritage sites one to three times in the past year. Reliability and validity tests were utilized to ensure the accuracy of results and to detect any invalid cases or data values. The Cronbach's alpha values for PEOU, PU, PE, and BI were 0.840, 0.909, 0.878, and 0.876). All values were deemed acceptable, with each reliability measure exceeding 0.70, indicating a satisfactory level of internal consistency (Lance, Butts & Michels, 2006). In terms of validity, the questionnaire was developed by adapting existing literature and then revised based on the specific context of a heritage site and the perspectives of scholars in Taiwan.

Stepwise linear regression analysis was employed to investigate the impact of PEOU, PU, and PE on BI. The results, presented in Table 5, showed that all AR and VR TAM dimensions had a statistically significant positive impact on BI. The R2 value was 0.491 (adjusted R2 = 0.483), indicating a good fit. The most influential variable on BI was PE (β = 0.462), followed by PU (β = 0.216) and PEOU (β = 0.184). All hypotheses were supported, indicating that all three TAM dimensions had a significant and positive effect on behavioral intentions. Additionally, a multicollinearity test was conducted with a variance inflation factor (VIF) criterion level of 10, and the results showed that the predictors had acceptable levels of multicollinearity.

Conclusions and discussion

The study focused on the use of AR and VR devices at the COFCH heritage site in Kaohsiung. The regression analysis showed that promoting the use of AR and VR devices by emphasizing enjoyment could be more effective in modifying the perception of heritage attractions as uninteresting and lacking in liveliness. Previous TAM studies emphasized the influence of PEOU and PU on travel decision-making, but this study found that PE had the greatest influence on behavioral intentions, followed by PU and PEOU. This expands the knowledge on the importance of PE in on-site AR and VR device applications in tourism, which generates more favorable images and overshadows the importance of PEOU and PU with user-friendly and innovative device design. This research contributes to TAM studies by investigating an on-site AR and VR device application in tourism and expanding the knowledge on the most important factor influencing behavioral intentions in using AR and VR devices. The availability of AR and VR interpretation at COFCH has successfully attracted younger visitors to the heritage site. A significant proportion of the visitors were under 40 years old (73.5%), with 43.5% being students. Additionally, 58.5% of the visitors had prior experience with AR and VR. These findings suggest that well-designed AR and VR devices can broaden the appeal of heritage sites and attract visitors from diverse demographics.

References

Ajzen, I., & Fishbein, M. (1980). *Understanding attitude and predicting social behavior*. Englewood-Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

Ayeh, J. K., Au, N., & Law, R. (2013). Predicting the intention to use consumer-generated media for travel planning. *Tourism Management*, 35, 132-143.

Azuma, R. T. (1997). A survey of augmented reality. *Presence: Virtual and Augmented Reality*, 6(4), 355-385.

Chen, P., Liu, X., Cheng, W., & Huang, R. (2017). A review of using augmented reality in education from 2011 to 2016, In book: Innovations in smart learning, 10.1007/978-981-10-2419-1_2

Davis, F. D. (1986). A technology acceptance model for empirically testing new end-user information systems: Theory and results. Archives of Doctoral Dissertation, Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Massachusetts, USA.

Davis, F. D. (1989). Perceived usefulness, perceived ease of use, and user acceptance of information technology. *MIS Quarterly*, 13(3), 319-340.

Dascal, J., Reid, M., IsHak, W. W, Spiegel, B., Recacho, J., Rosen, B., & Danovitch, I. (2017). Virtual reality and medical inpatients: a systematic review of randomized, controlled trials. *Innovations in Clinical Neuroscience*, 14(1-2), 14.

Dewailly, J.-M. (1999). Sustainable tourist space: From reality to virtual reality, *Tourism Geographies*, 1(1), 41-55.
Digi Capital. (2016). Augmented/virtual reality revenue forecast revised to hit $120 billion by 2020, Retrieved from: https://www.digi-capital.com/news/2016/01/augmentedvirtual-reality-revenue-forecast-revised-to-hit-120-billion-by-2020/
Domina, T., Lee, S. E., & MacGillivray, M. (2012). Understanding factors affecting consumer intention to shop in a virtual world. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, (6), 613-620.
Fritz, F., Susperregui, A., & Linaza, M. T. (2005). Enhancing Cultural Tourism experiences with augmented reality technologies. In M. Mudge, N. Ryan, R. Scopigno (Editors), *The 6th International Symposium on Virtual Reality, Archaeology and Cultural Heritage VAST*, The Eurographics Association. http://citeseerx.ist.psu.edu/viewdoc/download?doi=10.1.1.622.4265&rep=rep1&type=pdf
González-Rodríguez, M. R., Martínez Torres, R., & Toral, S. (2016). Post-visit and pre-visit tourist destination image through eWOM sentiment analysis and perceived helpfulness. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 28(11), 2609-2627.
Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J., & Anderson, R. E., (2010). *Multivariate data analysis* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc.
Hendrickson, A. R., Massey, P. D., & Cronan, T. P. (1993). On the test-retest of perceived usefulness and perceived ease of use scales. *MIS Quarterly*, 17, 227-230.
Herbert, D. T. (1995). *Heritage, tourism, and society*. London, UK: Mansell Publishing.
Horizon Report. (2005). NMC: The New Media Consortium, National Learning Infrastructure Initiative, Retrieved from: https://library.educause.edu/-/media/files/library/2005/1/csd3737-pdf.pdf
Huang, Y.-C., Backman, S. J., Backman, K. F., & Moore, D. (2013). Exploring user acceptance of 3D virtual worlds in travel and tourism marketing. *Tourism Management*, 36, 490-501.
Huang, Y.-C., Backman, K. F., Backman, S. J., & Chang, L. L. (2016). Exploring the implications of virtual reality technology in tourism marketing: An integrated research framework. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 18, 116-128.
Jung, T., & tom Dieck, M. C. (2017). Augmented reality, virtual reality and 3D printing for the co-creation of value for the visitor experience at cultural heritage places. *Journal of Place Management and Development*, 10(2), 140-151.
Jung, T., & Han, D. (2014). Augmented reality (AR) in urban heritage tourism. *e-Review of Tourism Research*, 5. URI: https://e-space.mmu.ac.uk/id/eprint/608512
Kaohsiung City Government. (2013). The Center of Fengshan City History. Retrieved from https://kh.twport.com.tw/en/cp.aspx?n=91D96D48707133B3
Keil, M., Mixon, R., Saarinen, T., & Tuunainen, V. (1995). Understanding runaway information technology projects: Results from an international research program based on escalation theory. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, 11(3), 67-87.
Kim, H. B., Kim, T. T., & Shin, S. W. (2009). Modeling roles of subjective norms and e-Trust in customers' acceptance of airline B2C e-Commerce websites. *Tourism Management*, 30, 266-277.
Kim, S-R., Youn, S. H, Um, S-H., & Lee, T. J. (2016). The mediation of information technology on visitors' experience at a cultural heritage site. *Asia Pacific Journal of Tourism Research*, 21(10), 1126-1141.

1.4. Hybrid events and formats: Values, barriers and competencies towards digitally driven experiences

Ginka Rinkova | Cphbusiness, Denmark
Rasmus Nissen | Cphbusiness, Denmark
Kasia Petersen | Cphbusiness, Denmark

Abstract

The technological evolution has made it possible for many organisations to undergo digital transformation. Like the rest of the world, the Pandemic in Denmark necessitated a new way of creating experience. Live events (e.g., festivals, concerts), performing arts (e.g., theatres, musicals, ballets) and art exhibitions (e.g., museums, galleries) converted to digital platforms - when possible, which initiated considerations on new business models. This paper examines potential values, barriers, and competencies in relation to digitally driven experiences, and provides theoretical and practical implications on why and how hybrid formats should be considered and applied in the experience and cultural sector. The study takes a point of departure in qualitative research carried out with Danish agents from the event and cultural industries during 2021-2022. The paper is relevant for organisations working with experience design; for students and academics from the Hospitality industry, in particular the Event management and Performing and Exhibiting arts.

Keywords: Digitalisation of experiences; Hybrid event and formats; Generations; Trends

Introduction

The digital transformation is at the very heart of the Fourth Industrial Revolution, which in turn has changed business approaches, ways of learning and communicating. Companies began investing substantial amount of money into digitalising their products and services making sure to live up to current trends (Vey, Fandel-Meyer, Zipp, & Schneider, 2017). Deloitte reports that a company’s digital transformation can lead to substantially higher performance. Companies seen as “digitally mature” drive a positive business impact via digital transformation defined by seven digital pivots. To mention few, “data mastery”, “flexible, secure infrastructure”, “business model adaptation” and “unified customer experience”. This creates efficiency, revenue growth, product/service quality, customer satisfaction and employee engagement. Moreover, it brings positive business impact, resulting in superior financial performance: 45% of higher-maturity companies report industry-leading revenue and profit margin, 29% of them increased in sales from new products and services and 41% tracked increased customer life-time value (Deloitte, 2021).

Digital transformation has a dual purpose - doing things better, faster, and cheaper and doing new things that were previously impossible. Denmark is one of the world's most digitalised countries, with the most citizens and organisations in the EU applying digital solutions. Close collaboration between innovative organisations across the public and private sector in the country do exist, which gives outstanding results: NemID, Digital Post, borger.dk, virk.dk are examples on how the Danish citizens’ everyday life is digitalised (Ministry of Finance, 2022). This strong digital foundation has also been crucial for how quickly Denmark adapted to the Pandemic. Just like the rest of the world, during the

Pandemic the experience and cultural sector in Denmark was hit hard, yet that gave rise to innovation and development of diverse online formats (Haun, 2022). In this paper, the experience and cultural sector is represented by public and private organisations working with B2C cultural events (organisations working directly with end users) and B2B cultural events (organisations working with/for B2C agents), as well as cultural institutions working with performing and exhibiting arts.

During the Pandemic in Denmark, cultural event organisers undertook three general approaches: 1) cancelled production, 2) scaled down to comply with the distance requirements or 3) executed online. A handful of organisations combined the two elements – the onsite and the online production, to create new experience formats, namely hybrid events. Great examples are: CPH: DOX, Pride 2020/21, Folkemødet and Copenhagen Fashion Week.

Cultural institutions reinvented practices as well by integrating online platforms (Therkelsen, Ren, & og James). Within the period March - August 2020, 93 online cultural performances were produced in Denmark. The majority of these were theatre plays and operas. The performances were mainly available free of charge. Several of these online initiatives were successful, yet there was uncertainty if whether/how these are to continue in the future. Lack of digital knowledge, choice of appropriate media/channel and audiences' in-depth understanding are listed as central barriers that hinder digital transformation in the sector. Approached from the audience perspective, the live element – possibility to interact with what is happening onsite, is seen crucial (Hammer, Holdgaard, & Tosca, 2020).

Why hybrid experiences

According to Euromonitor's analysis of megatrends, organisations should work to create technology-driven, personal, flexible, and authentic experiences to better meet customers' expectations. Table 1 shows four megatrends that serve as evidence for why agents from the experience and cultural sector should move towards digital transformation. Referring to the Global Consumer Trends reports for 2022 and 2023 it is evident that "The Metaverse Movement" is booming rapidly. The trend "Authentic Automation" is acknowledged to enhance the customers' journey when balanced carefully. While the "Digital Seniors" (generation babyboomers) are getting more comfortable with applying technology, the "Young and Disrupted" (Gen Z) promote transparent and reliable consumption, and are attracted by raw, real, and relevant content (Euromonitor International, 2022-2023). A combination of online and onsite formats proves to elevate events, and this is why the industry is moving rapidly towards the hybrid direction (Humphries, 2023) and (Wolff, 2022). However, this is seen primarily in the corporate sector - tradeshows, conferences, and seminars (MeetDenmark, 2021) leaving a room for research within the event and cultural industries, which is the focus of this paper.

In this paper hybrid events and hybrid cultural arrangements (e.g., performing and exhibit arts) are referred to jointly as hybrid formats or hybrid experiences, given they both build upon key notions of experience design (Frissen, Janssen, & Luijer, 2018). Based on extensive literature review, the concept hybrid format/experience is defined as: A hybrid format/experience combines the physical (onsite) with a digital (online) presence of the guests. The hybrid element makes it possible for the online and the onsite audiences to participate simultaneously in the experience creation from different locations. The live element (participate simultaneity) and the possibility to co-create in the experience plays an important role in the process.

Table 1. Megatrends: A framework for the future (Source: Euromonitor International, 2022)

Digital Living	Consumers spend an increasing amount of their time in the digital space. The evolution of Metaverse offers some possibilities for an enhanced and immersive 3D web experience that enables a transition between our physical and digital lives.
Experience More	Consumers are looking for authentic experiences that suit their individual tastes and lifestyles. By using technology, organizations can offer an extra experience.
Personalization	The growth of individualism and self-oriented lifestyles influence the increasing consumers' expectations for more customized and personalized products and services. These demands are met by improvements in technology and data collection that give consumers insight into their individual interests and lifestyles.
Convenience	Time is important to today's consumers, who now demand convenience across all aspects of their lives. Convenience is the desire for effortless efficiency across every encounter and interaction, wherever and whenever the consumer wants it, leading to easier and more enjoyable experiences.

Theoretical Framework

Technology-driven experiences

Escapism is the most advanced form of experience transiting to the next level of economic progression, namely the transformation economy. The transformation economy is characterised by a high degree of personalisation or possibility to co-create for customers, which in return creates competitiveness for the organisations (Bettencourt, 2022). Contemporary studies argue that transformational experiences can be further utilized by technology (Buhalis, Lin, & Leung, 2023), where technology is applied to increase the guest's involvement in co-creating the experience. Accordingly, five types of technology-driven experiences are defined, see Figure 1.

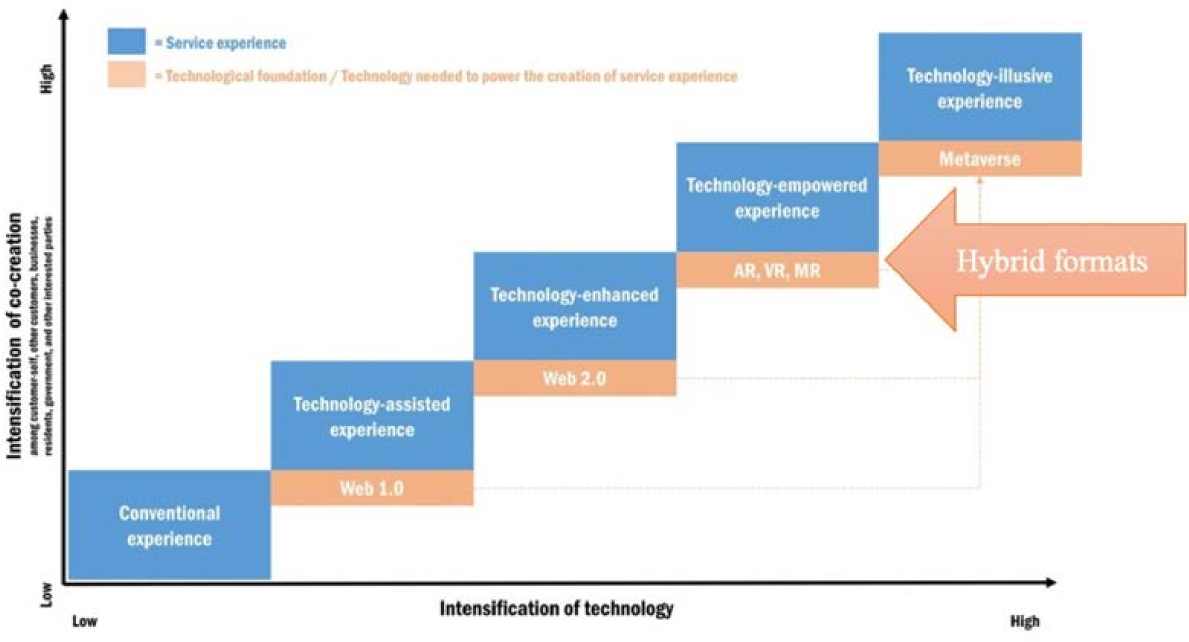


Figure 1. Technology-driven experiences (Adapted from Neuhofer et al., 2014)

1. Conventional experience refers to the live experience and uses analog technology.
2. The technology-assisted experience utilises Web 1.0 and is characterised by static home pages, reservation, and distribution systems; a one-way communication initiated by organisations enabling customer's participation.
3. Technology-enhanced experience utilises Web 2.0, social media, user-generated content, and apps for smartphones. Here the customer's active participation is encouraged, driving value-creation through personalisation of the experience.
4. Technology-empowered experience utilises AR, VR and MR to create new experience spaces, both online and onsite.
5. Technology-illusory experience utilises Metaverse and enables customers to move and have experiences into the virtual universe.

So, if Metaverse drives technology-illusory experience, then what type of experience(s) could hybrid formats drive? Seen as technology-driven life performances, hybrid formats unitize technology-enhanced and technology-empowered experiences, given the channel applied: Anything from advanced app solutions and immersive virtual platforms supported by AR and VR gadgets can sustain the desired format, depending on the organisation's financial resources and the customers' digital preferences. Speaking about customers' digital preferences, it is worth looking at how these (the digital preferences) alter according to generations' shifts, as well as to explore how the generations' digital preferences link to the process of designing hybrid experiences.

Generations and Technology

We all belong to a generation, and the time of our birth says a lot about us: our values, spending habits, political issues and how we spend our free time. Thus, a generation is understood as demographic groupings based on the year of birth and when one becomes an adult. During our formative years, the generations have several shared historical and sociocultural reference points that define and differentiate them from other generations. Marketing agencies use this to understand and predict consumer behaviour. The division of generations is not patented, and there are therefore different ways of dividing generations. The generation overview in this paper is based on widely recognized divisions used in the Western world (e.g., Tyson, Kennnedy, & Funk, 2021; Wintherm Mie, 2022).

According to Prensky (2001), the four generations are further divided into two major groups, digital natives (generation Z and Y) and digital immigrants (baby boomers and generation X). The subdivision is based on when they start using digital solutions. Digital natives grew up with technology which plays an integral part of their daily life; they use technology in nearly each aspect of it (ibid) and Metaverse is most likely to become an integral part of their lives very soon. Digital immigrants – as opposite to digital natives, were exposed to technology later in life and adapt to it, still. Yet, the fast progression of digital solutions made digital immigrants more open to opportunities brought by technology. As reported earlier, today Digital Seniors - 60+ consumers (baby boomers) feel more comfortable with applying technology, compared to the pre-pandemic time, something contemporary companies should consider when working with products and services innovation.

Table 2. The four major generations and their general traits (Compiled by the authors)

Baby boomers (1946-1964) (20%) in Denmark	Generation X (1965-1980) (21%) in Denmark	Millennials Generation Y (1981-1996) (21%) in Denmark	Generation Z (1996/7-2012) (19%) in Denmark
1. Not very concerned with climate change. 2. Often defined as "busy", due to having many interests. 3. Have a high level of activity and often travel. 4. Interested in and wish to understand new technologies and smart gadgets.	1. Care about work-life balance. 2. The last generation to remember a childhood before the Internet. 3. The first generation who, in their childhood early adulthood, have had access to computers and game consoles. 4. Experienced internet users and shop online.	1. Digitally native - from an early age own computers, mobile phones, tablets, and game consoles. 2. The Internet became widely available to them. 3. Many have social profiles on the internet by early age. 4. The option of working from home is highly desired.	1. The internet and social media play a major role. 2. Their social lives are at least as rooted in the digital as in the physical. 3. Climate change and the environment are of great concern to them compared to previous generations. 4. They choose experiences over things.

Methodology

The paper builds upon qualitative research conducted with fifteen informants from the experience and cultural sector represented by public and private organisations working with B2C and B2B cultural events, as well as cultural institutions working with performing and exhibiting arts. Five event-management lecturers from several Danish Business Academies took part in the research too. Aimed to investigate the potential of hybrid formats in the experience and cultural sector in Denmark, the research builds around the following themes: how hybrid formats create value to organisations, what barriers/challenges exist to design hybrid formats, what competences are desired to facilitate hybrid formats, and how to integrate these in education. The data has been collected in four steps. Table 3 illustrates the process.

Step 1: The six individual interviews were carried out in the period November 2021-March 2022 aimed to get an initial idea of how event professionals work with the hybrid formats. The informants were recruited by using the researchers' professional network, representing a mix of employees from event-producing companies, employees from cultural event organizations, and employees from tech-suppling agencies. The findings derived from this initial phase of data collection were used to create the interview frame applied in step two. Step 2: Two focus group interviews represented by informants from step one and a few additional ones were conducted in April 2022, with the aim to elaborate on key findings collected in step one. The purpose was to get the informants to discuss and interact on topics relevant to the research, and thereby get new perspectives and insights. Both focus groups were video- and audio-recorded and subsequently transcribed. Inspired by (Kvale, 1997) approach to meaning creation, the transcripts were analysed to identify patterns organised into categories.

Table 3. Overview of data collection

Step	Purpose	Applied method	Informants
1	Experience with hybrid events?	Six qualitative interviews	Event industry experts
2	What value can hybrid elements create, and which barriers exist?	Two focus group interviews	Event industry experts
3	How to include hybrid elements in event management education?	One focus group interview	Event Management Lecturers from Business Academies in Denmark
4	How is the hybrid element used in the cultural sector in Denmark, and which barriers are seen?	Four qualitative interviews	Cultural agents

Step 3: A central theme during step two was relevant employees' competence desired in the experience and cultural sector. It was agreed that the sector faces a general lack of digital competence. To get insight into the latter, an additional focus group interview was gathered with event management lecturers from the Business Academy sector in Denmark. The focus group was carried out in September 2022, with the purpose to discuss if/how the hybrid element can be included in the event management educational programmes. Given the selected Business Academies are located far from one another geographically, the focus group was carried out on Zoom. Step 4: In step four, four one-to-one interviews were carried out with cultural organisations in Denmark. The interviews were conducted in the period August - November 2022. In this phase, the aim was to get insights from the cultural sector in Denmark. Led by the assumption that the cultural organisations are not far in their digital transformation and that they do not tend to include hybrid elements in their portfolio, a special emphasis was put on examining the barriers that prevent cultural organisations from designing hybrid formats. The assumptions leading to step four were based on the data findings from the previous phases. The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed afterwards, allowing us to identify themes.

Key Findings

The collected data has been processed and organized into three main categories: 1) value creation, 2) barriers and 3) future competences linked to hybrid formats.

Value creation

Hybrid formats carry a great potential in how customers experience today and will experience tomorrow. These are flexible, efficient, sustainable and create a better reach: "*Organizations can expand to new audiences*" (quote from interview). Hybrid formats provide data. Data being not only the demographics of the customers, but also buying behaviour, duration of stay and peak interval during the experience. Moreover, hybrid formats "*give opportunity to promote new artists or test new ideas*" (quote from interview). Central values for end users are flexibility, convenience, and customization: "*By creating the opportunity to participate hybrid, flexibility and convenience is established*" (quote from interview). "*Which fits well with nowadays on demand culture*" (quote from interview) and also generates "*online communities*" (quote from interview). And finally, the central element of suitability, "*we all think more about our climate footprint and there the hybrid element creates the 'feel good' choice for us all*" (quote from interview).

Barriers

It is evident the business sector applies hybrid formats on a large scale, while "*the cultural organizations lay somewhat behind*" (quote from interview). Lack of financial resources and digital competence is a major barrier "*that hinders the development of a two-fold customer journey*". The term two- fold customer journey is defined as the combination of distinguished onsite and online interactions generating different types of experiences for the customers/guests. Today there are so many platforms to choose from to deliver a hybrid event. So, the organizations should have the skills to make the right choices. "*Today, technology is both an asset, but also one of the biggest barriers*" (quote from interview). Having the right people has always been a success factor for an organization. Several informants find it difficult to involve their employees to take part in developing a two-fold customer journey. "*Employees who understand hybrid/digital customer journey will be in a high demand in the coming years*" (quote from interview). Cultural organizations are not far in their hybrid development and some even do not believe in hybrid formats, as "*it takes something out of the physical experience*" (quote from interview). However, all cultural agents show awareness that they must deal with it (the digital development) in the future.

Future competences

The importance of hiring employees who are technology advanced and can work with data was highlighted. One informant said: "*understand the digital customer journey, by able to act as TV hosts and dare to experiment with technology*" (quote from interview). And for these competences to be applied they must be acquired. Thus, a close cooperation between the industry and the event management education is desired. However, the lecturers state" *we are not able to follow up with the vast technological progress*" (quote from interview). Therefore, the industry must be the prime mover in ensuring optimal skills development. This could, for example, be in connection with an internship or guest lecturing. This is not to say that educational institutions do not have a role, because of course they must also contribute, but they cannot stand alone, is a key conclusion of the academics.

Designing hybrid experiences

An event/cultural arrangement can be described as a complex experience encompassed by different types of passive or active sub-experiences. Moreover, it can be represented as a journey with three main stages – before (the time prior `going live`), during (the actual live event) and after (the after live stage) (Frissen, Janssen & Luijer, 2018). When designing an event/cultural arrangement aimed to happen onsite (physical) and online (hybrid), the notion *two-fold customer journey* should be considered. Hence, the journey of the hybrid format should be planned separately to the physical one, with its distinctive before - during - after stages.

Important to note, the hybrid experience should not be free (Pine, 2020), yet it is less expensive compared with its physical comparator. The duration of it is also compressed. Part of the experience is synchronized with the physical one and the live factor, the possibility to co-create, plays a vital role. Finally, it should offer an authentic element to provide uniqueness. Table 4 illustrates the physical versus the hybrid experience journey with their distinctive experience-driven characteristics linked to the customers' digital preferences.

Table 4. The two-fold customer journey

Physical Experience	Hybrid Experience
Before • Passive experiences – builds on organic content from the previous physical arrangement. • Distributed on social media with promotion purposes. • Appreciated by generation Y/Z.	**Before** • Passive experiences – build on the organic content from the previous hybrid arrangement. • Distributed on social media with promotion purposes. • Appreciated by generation Y/Z
During • Active experiences – the guest takes an active part in the experience. • Senses reinforcing solutions and technology supported experiences complement the overall experience. • Relevant to all generations	**During** • Active experience - the guest takes an active part in the experience. • Driven by technology- enhanced and Technology empowered experiences. • Appreciated by generation Y/Z. A small portion of the Digital Seniors (babyboomers) maybe interested, given the time convenience element found in.
After • Passive experience - sums up the live experience. • Possible to share social media. • Appreciated by generation Y.	**After** • Passive experience - sums up the hybrid experience. • Possible to share on social media. • Appreciated by generation Y.

Conclusion and recommendations

The purpose of this paper has been to examine values, barriers, and competence in relation to digitally driven experiences. Moreover, to suggest why and how hybrid formats could be applied within the experience and cultural sector. Driven by the notion that digital transformation is about both efficiency and innovation, the paper suggests hybrid formats as a means of increasing organisations' performances and attracting new target segments. Taking a point of departure in theory and data, the paper argues that organisations from the experience and cultural sector should provide the possibility to customise their experience offer according to customers' digital preferences, demand for convenience and authenticity. Intact with current and future consumers' trends, the two-fold customer journey is suggested as a key element in the process of hybrid experiences' design. Technology proactive and data intelligent employees are seen as a key driver towards innovation. Yet, for the digital transformation to reach its full potential, relevant educational bodies should work on establishing a close cooperation with industry professionals aimed to increase the students' understanding of relevant technology and platforms.

References

Bettencourt, L. A. (2022, January-February). The new you business: How to compete on personal transformations. *Harvard Business Review*, 70-81.

Buhalis, D., Lin, M. S., & Leung, D. (2023). Metaverse as a driver for customer experience and value co-creation: Implications for hospitality and tourism management and marketing. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 35(2), 701-716.

Deloitte. (2021). Uncovering the connection between digital maturity and financial performance. How digital transformation can lead to sustainable high performance. Deloitte. Retrieved from

https://www2.deloitte.com: https://www2.deloitte.com/us/en/insights/topics/digital-transformation/digital-transformation-survey.html
Euromonitor International. (2022). Megatrends: A Framework for the Future November 2022. Euromonitor International.
Euromonitor International. (2022-2023). Top 10 Global Consumer Trends.
Frissen, R., Janssen, R., & Luijer, D. (2018). *Event Design*. Amsterdam: Bis Publishing.
Hammer, R., Holdgaard, N., & Tosca, S. (2020). Online Scenekunst og nye publikumsmøder. Iscene.dk og Applaus.
Haun, A. (2022, January 6). Her er, hvad corona har gjort ved kulturlivet: „Jeg er reelt bekymret for, at folk har vænnet sig af med at bruge kulturen". (A. Haun, Producer) Retrieved from Berlingske Corporate Web site: https://www.berlingske.dk/aok/her-er-hvad-corona-har-gjort-ved-kulturlivet-jeg-er-reelt-bekymret-for- at-folk
Humphries, K. (2023, January 12). 13 corporate event trends that will make your events stand out in 2023. Retrieved from Spotme: https://spotme.com/blog/event-trends/
James, L., & Ren, C. o. (n.d.). kystognaturturisme. Retrieved 2022, from Dancing on my own? Festivaler og events under og efter corona: https://www.kystognaturturisme.dk/kickstart-dansk-turisme/viden-og- inspiration/festivaler-og-events-under-og-efter-corona
Kvale, S. (1997). *Interviews*. Copenhagen: Hans Reitzel.
MeetDenmark. (2021). Hybridmøder i fremtiden - Værktøjskasse fra MeetDenmark. København: MeetDenmark og Erhvervsfremmestyrelsen.
Ministry of Finance. (2022). Danmarks digitaliseringsstrategi. Sammen om den digitale udvikling. Copenhagen: Ministry of Finance.
Nielsen, P. J. (2022, Dec 8). Vi holder fast i Onlinemøderne. Børsen.
Pine, J. (2020, December 11). The Model for Hybrid Expereinces. Retrieved from Strategichorizons: https://strategichorizons.com/the-model-for-hybrid-experiences/
Prensky, M. (2001). Digital Natives, Digital Immigrants Part 1. *On the Horizon*, 9(6), 1-6.
Rie, H., Lene, S-M., & Susana, T. (n.d.). Online Scenekunst og nye publikumsmøder. Iscene.dk og Applaus.
Slimanea, S. C. (2022). Digital transformation of small and medium enterprises: a systematic literature review and an integrative framework. *International Studies of Mamagement & Organisation*, 52(2), 96-120.
Statistik, D. (2023, JAN 16). DST. Retrieved from DST.DK: https://www.dst.dk/da/Statistik/emner/borgere/befolkning/befolkningstal
Therkelsen, A., Ren, C., & og James, L. (n.d.). kystognaturturisme. Retrieved from: Kulturoplevelser under pandemien: Powered up, virtual by origin, co-created online: https://www.kystognaturturisme.dk/kickstart-dansk-turisme/viden-og-inspiration/kulturoplevelser- under-pandemien
Tyson, A., Kennnedy, B., & Funk, C. (2021, May 26). Gen Z, Millennials Stand Out for Climate Change Activism, Social Media Engagement with Issue. Retrieved from:
https://www.pewresearch.org/science/2021/05/26/gen-z-millennials-stand-out-for-climate-change-activism- social-media-engagement-with-issue/
Vey, K., Fandel-Meyer, T., Zipp, J. S., & Schneider, C. (2017). Learning & Development in Times of Digital Transformation: Facilitating a Culture of Change and Innovation. *International Journal of Advanced Corporate Learning (iJAC)*, 10(1), 22–32.
Wintherm Mie, B. (2022, July 15). Seks generationer og deres kendetegn. Retrieved from: https://www.kristeligt-dagblad.dk/liv-og-sjael/seks-generationer-og-deres-kendetegn
Wolff, R. (2022, May 5). 35 Remarkable Hybrid Event Statistics (2022 Research). (R. Wolff, Producer) Retrieved from Markletic Corporate Web site: https://www.markletic.com/blog/hybrid-event-statistics/#:~:text=events%20per%20year.-

1.5. Strategic foresight into the ChatGPT potentials and limitations in the tourism and hospitality sector

Eid Alotaibi | Princess Nourah Bint Abdulrahman University, Saudi Arabia
Asharul Khan | Sultan Qaboos University, Muscat, Oman

Abstract

One of the most significant recent developments has been the development of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning, as well as the prospective applications of these technologies in the tourism and hospitality sector. One of the most recent hot topics is ChatGPT, an OpenAI AI language model. In November 2022, a brand-new AI Chabot named ChatGPT put into the market and quickly garnered one million users. Since then, its applications have swept the globe. The tourism and hospitality industry, one of the largest and most important in the world, is always evolving to meet customers' needs. Unfortunately, there has not been much scholarly research on ChatGPT and its relationship to tourism and hospitality yet. This study aims to investigate the ChatGPT potentials and limitations in the tourism and hospitality sector. This paper conducts a literature review and collects secondary data sources to attain the study's objectives.

Keywords: ChatGPT; Tourism; Hospitality; Artificial Intelligence; Machine learning; Information technology

Introduction

One of the most significant and profitable industries in the world is the hotel and tourist sector. The hospitality and tourist sector includes a wide range of companies, each with its own specialties, such as hotels, resorts, eateries, cafes, bars, and more (Ali, 2023). The tourism and hospitality industries are seeing increased demand to technological advancement due to Fourth Industry Revolution (IR4). In November 2022, an artificial intelligence (AI) based chatbot named ChatGPT took the world with storm. ChatGPT already has more than a million users. According to Reuters (2023), OpenAI hopes to make $1 billion in sales by 2024. ChatGPT uses sophisticated computing methods and huge data sets to anticipate the future and connect words in meaningful ways. It has access to a huge vocabulary and knowledge, which is uses to comprehend and mimic words in the context.

The cutting-edge ChatGPT can assist hotel and tourism companies in streamlining their operations and increasing productivity. ChatGPT has the power to fundamentally alter how travel agents interact with and provide for their customers. ChatGPT may assist businesses. For instance, customized and cost-effective marketing plan, provide excellent content that is search engine optimized, create a sales page with user-friendly content, automate time-consuming and repetitive tasks, personalized customer services, transcripts audio and video (Tourism Tribe, 2023). In 2022, Rawal et al. examined how the hospitality sector uses AI-enabled products including chatbots, robotics, facial recognition technology, and virtual reality. They further investigated customers' perceptions towards AI in the tourist and hospitality sectors and discovered the positive attitude. China's Ctrip, an online travel agency, on February 15, 2023 joined the first group of partners testing Baidu's ChatGPT-style ERNIE Bot ecosystem. According to Kong (2023) this marked the beginning of a new era of AI chatbot project applications in domestic tourism in China. The Ministry of Culture, Sports, and Tourism, Korea on February 22, 2023 had established a working group to maximize the use of ChatGPT. According to Ri (2023), the ministry in collaboration with the National Institute of Korean Language had introduced "Korean Fluent AI" and "Korean Fluency K-ChatGPT" for learning Korean language.

From the day first, when the ChatGPT emerged in the market, many businesses and organizations have shown interests and have liberally deployed across a variety of businesses. However, it is important to identify its usage and potential in the tourism and hospitality sector. The management and operations areas of the tourism and hospitality require attention for businesses to remain competitive due to dynamic shift in the technological innovations such as ChatGPT. Therefore, the study aims to investigate the ChatGPT potentials and limitations in the tourism and hospitality sector. It conducts the practical implementation, uses literature review, and secondary data sources to attain the objectives. There are five sections. Section 2 describes ChatGPT and its working. Section 3 present analysis on the existing literature on the AI and machine learning. Section 3 presents the analysis on the ChatGPT usage in the tourism and hospitality sector. Section 4 highlights the potential challenges. The last section summarizes the findings.

State of arts of ChatGPT

Information and Communication Technology has found place in the tourism and hospitality sector in one or another form. For instance, museum mementos are created using wireless network systems and AI (Ding, 2022). The concept of smart tourism is based on the AI techniques and related technologies (Gajdošík & Marciš, 2019). Sun et al. (2019) developed a framework based on machine learning to forecast the tourists' arrival at major tourist locations in China. Topal and Uçar (2019) used AI to identify a potential customer based on previous TripAdvisor user data in Turkey. Chatbots are tools that speed up learning and communication between people. They can act as personal assistants and disperse information and expertise via user-friendly interfaces (Muniasamy & Alasiry, 2020). Chatbots have interactive learning style, adaptability to be utilized anywhere, and anytime. Chatbots are becoming more and more popular (Zhouet al., 2020). The latest innovation in the technology is the ChatGPT, which is a kind of chatbot based on AI.

What is ChatGPT?

ChatGPT has been in the news since publicly released by OpenAI on November 30, 2022. OpenAI created ChatGPT, a potent conversational AI platform with huge language model relying on GPT-3.5 as its foundation. ChatGPT stands for "Chat Generative Pre-Trained Transformer" follows the same methodology as InstructGPT. ChatGPT can comprehend conversations and provide responses that resemble those of a human. It is remarkably capable of engaging in conversational conversations and responding in a way that occasionally seems surprisingly human.

How does ChatGPT internally work?

OpenAI's language model, gpt-3.5-turbo, is the engine behind ChatGPT. The gpt-3.5-turbo can be used by any programmer to create own programs and OpenAI API for tasks such as drafting a document, construct conversational robots, create a natural language user interface for software, and simulate video game characters, among other things (OpenAI, 2023a). It uses a "natural language" model that simulates how people actually communicate and was trained on enormous data sets. It trains the model using Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF). Data collection is done slightly differently than the earlier models through a more supervised, fine-tuned method. Human AI trainers come up with conversations in which they play both the user and the AI assistant.

These trainers have model-written suggestions to assist them in composing responses. Figure 1 shows the internal working of the ChatGPT

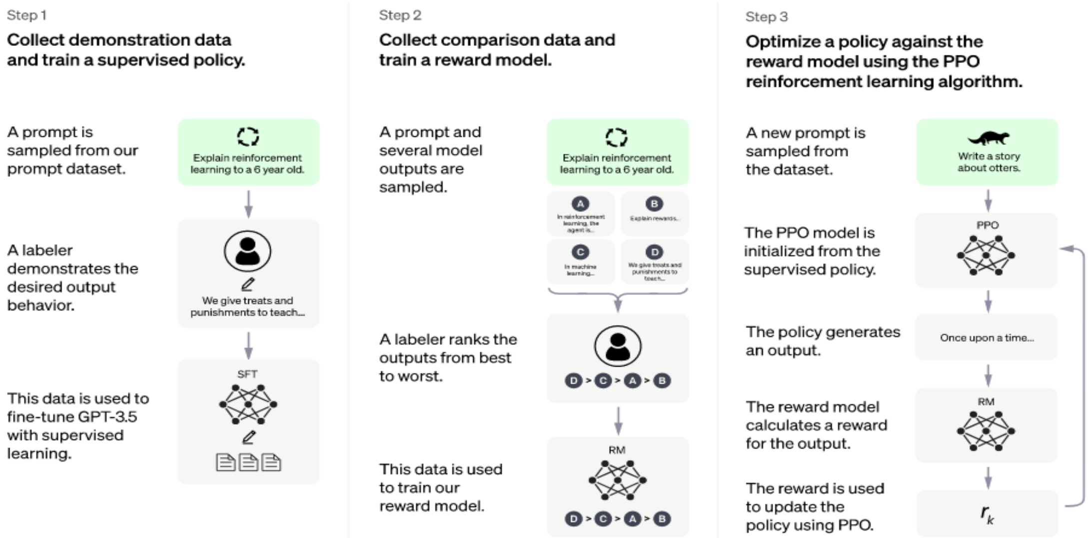


Figure 1. Internal working of the ChatGPT (Adapted from OpenAI, 2023b)

How to use ChatGPT?

ChatGPT a groundbreaking technology, to put it simply it has been taught to understand what people mean when they ask questions. ChatGPT is an AI program that communicates with people via text, responding to their questions and commands. The beta testing, ChatGPT is available to all users without charge. A user can create an account by visiting https://chat.openai.com/. The system simply asks email id and password to register. After that, it asks for the account verification. Once login the interface appears as shown in figure 2. The user can type the queries to get the results.

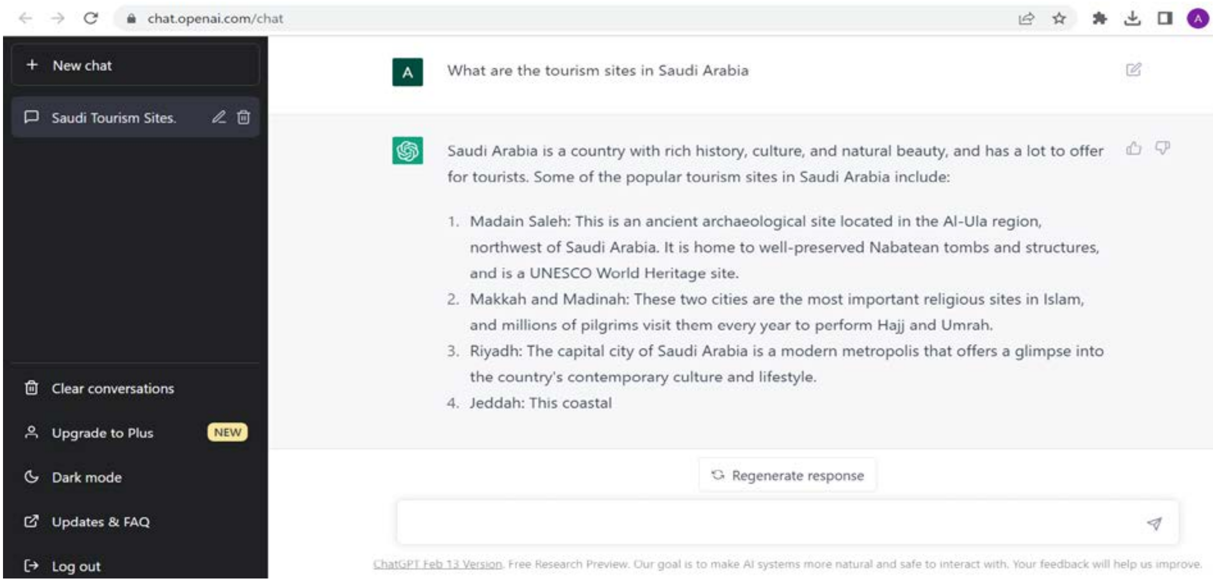


Figure 2. Authors own query on ChatGPT (OpenAI, 2023b)

Figure 3. Authors own query on ChatGPT (OpenAI, 2023b)

Analysis of the existing literature on ChatGPT, AI, and Machine Learning in the hospitality and tourism sector

The study analyzed the existing literature on the use of ChatGPT, AI and machine learning in the hospitality and tourism sector for the years 2021, 2022, and 2023. Table 1 shows the Scopus indexed publications on ChatGPT, AI and machine learning in the hospitality and tourism sector.

Table 1. Scopus indexed publications on ChatGPT, AI and machine learning in the hospitality and tourism sector

Authors	Research type	Year
(Mor et al., 2023)	Tourists classification using machine learning	2023
(Puriet al., 2023)	Use of block chain in smart tourism management	2023
(Mesa-Arango et al., 2023)	Space tourism affecting factors using machine learning	2023
(Mariani & Wirtz, 2023)	Review on artificial intelligence in tourism research	2023
(Ding, 2022)	Artificial intelligence in tourism souvenirs	2022
(Huanget al., 2022)	Review on artificial intelligence in tourism research	2022
(Castelliet al., 2022)	Machine learning benefits in hospitality	2022
(Bi & Liu, 2022)	Machine learning in information services	2022
(Guptaet al., 2022)	Artificial intelligence-based robots in hospitality	2022
(Ma & Cai, 2022)	Artificial intelligence in health tourism	2022
(Leelawatet al., 2022)	Machine learning in tourists sentiment analysis	2022
(Knaniet al., 2022)	Review on artificial intelligence in tourism and hospitality research	2022
(Alrashidi et al., 2022)	Machine learning in tourists sentiment analysis	2022
(Aparicio Castillo et al., 2022)	Machine learning for tourists predictions	2022

(Jabeen et al., 2022)	Review on artificial intelligence in tourism and hospitality research	2022
(Buhalis & Moldavska, 2022)	Artificial intelligence in customer services	2022
(Bi et al., 2022)	Machine learning for tourism predictions	2022
(Tong et al., 2022)	Artificial intelligence in tourism automation	2022
(Čumlievski et al., 2022)	Machine learning in accommodation classification	2022
(Doborjeh et al., 2022)	Review on artificial intelligence in tourism and hospitality research	2022
(Wu et al., 2022)	Artificial intelligence in snow and ice tourism	2022
(Kashem et al., 2022)	Artificial intelligence in sustainable tourism	2022
(Orea-Giner et al., 2022)	Artificial intelligence in cultural tourism	2022
(Sulong et al., 2022)	Machine learning for tourism predictions	2022
(Abdou et al., 2022)	Machine learning for tourists predictions	2022
(Zhuang et al., 2022)	Machine learning in information services	2022
(Hou & Zhang, 2022)	Artificial intelligence in cultural tourism	2022
(Chen & Wang, 2022)	Machine learning in sustainable tourism	2022
(Saydam et al., 2022)	Review on Artificial intelligence in tourism and hospitality research	2022
(Li & Lyu, 2022)	Machine learning in sports tourism	2022
(Zyma et al., 2022)	Machine learning for tourism predictions	2022
(Yun et al., 2022)	Artificial intelligence in information services	2022
(Xie & He, 2022)	Artificial intelligence in marketing the rural tourism	2022
(Li, 2022; Puh & Bagić Babac, 2022)	Machine learning for tourists predictions	2022
(Li, 2022)	Machine learning for tourism predictions	2022
(Fang, 2022)	Artificial intelligence in cultural tourism	2022
(Solakis et al., 2022)	Review on Artificial intelligence in tourism	2022
(Li et al., 2022)	Artificial intelligence in heritage tourism	2022
(Alasmari & Abdelhafez, 2022)	Machine learning in tourists destination predictions	2022
(Du et al., 2022)	Artificial intelligence in snow and ice tourism	2022
(Hong et al., 2022)	Machine learning in sports tourism	2022
(Ho, 2022)	Machine learning in tourists destination recommendation	2022
(Andariesta & Wasesa, 2022)	Machine learning for tourists predictions	2022
(Payntar, 2022)	Machine learning in tourists destination predictions	2022
(Lv et al., 2022)	Review on Artificial intelligence in tourism and hospitality research	2022
(Derdouri & Osaragi, 2021)	Machine learning for tourists classifications	2021
(Vargas-Calderón, et al., 2021)	Machine learning in tourists sentiment analysis	2021
(Li et al., 2021)	Machine learning for tourism predictions	2021
(Wei, 2021)	Machine learning in sustainable tourism	2021
(Penagos-Londoño et al., 2021)	Machine learning in tourists sentiment analysis	2021
(Xie et al., 2021)	Machine learning in cruise tourisms demand predictions	2021
(Mishra et al., 2021)	Machine learning for tourists predictions	2021
(Kirtil & Aşkun, 2021)	Review on Artificial intelligence in tourism research	2021

ChatGPT in Hospitality and Tourism Sector

ChatGPT will assist tourism and hospitality in providing first-rate customer service and establishing a rapport of trust and loyalty with their visitors by offering individualized assistance, quick and accurate information, and customize recommendations. Some potential uses of ChatGPT in tourism and hospitality include, supplying details on a hotel, resort, or other type of lodging, such as room costs, benefits, and availability, helping with reservations and bookings, giving information on the booking confirmation, and responding to inquiries about cancellation rules. Additionally, providing basic information about the tourism and hospitality sectors, such as common travel queries and holiday planning suggestions.

Virtual travel assistant and transparency

ChatGPT integration in the mobile applications and websites will allow travelers to quickly get answers to their questions. Users looking for information on tourist attractions, travel tips, or booking services can get quick responses through ChatGPT. It will improve the user experience and reduce the workload for human customer service agents. ChatGPT might enhance transparency in the hospitality and tourist sectors through comprehensive details regarding costs, accessibility, and services. ChatGPT's enables hotel and tourism organizations to focus staff time on more difficult duties. ChatGPT offer individualized customer care and swiftly reply to multiple customers enquiries thus reducing wait times for customers and streamline customer service processes. Customers can ask extensive questions on the ChatGPT and it can even point them in the direction of the appropriate online page where they can find their own answers.

Data security and analysis

ChatGPT can help to ensure customer data is secure and compliant with industry standards. ChatGPT aids in the collection and storage of customer data, enabling tourism and hospitality organizations with detailed analytics and insights, helping them to identify areas of improvement. This can then be utilized to customize services, offers, promotions, and informed decisions. ChatGPT can offer insightful data on consumer behavior and preferences. Hospitality companies can improve their services and offerings by monitoring chatbot interactions to spot trends and patterns in consumer inquiries. The susceptibility of AI adoption in the hotel and tourism sectors varies depending on the type of AI. Virtual agents, chatbots, and search/booking engines place highly for adoption susceptibility (Huanget al., 2022).

Customer service

ChatGPT is reshaping how businesses in the hospitality and tourist sectors engage with their clients ChatGPT can be used to handle customer service requests like complaints and enquiries. Due to ChatGPT's ability to manage multiple contacts at once, customer support operations may become much more efficient and response times may be slashed.Thev more the ChatGPT handles basic activities, the customer support personnel may concentrate on more complicated customer demands. ChatGPT's analytics dashboard offers businesses priceless customer insights that help them better understand customer behavior and deliver a more specialized level of customer support. By offering round-the-clock assistance, responding to frequently requested queries, and taking care of straightforward requests like booking confirmations and cancellations, ChatGPT may enhance customer service (Ali, 2023).

Enhanced efficiency and cost saving

By automating repetitive operations like booking confirmations and check-ins, ChatGPT can help improve operational efficiency. Wait times may be cut down as a result and customer satisfaction may also increase. By automating operations that would otherwise need staff time, like managing customer enquiries and booking confirmations, ChatGPT can help decrease costs. For major hospitality companies that respond to many customer enquiries, this can result in significant cost savings. Businesses may save time and money while improving customer service by automating repetitive processes.

Personalized recommendations

ChatGPT's goal is to comprehend consumer wants and preferences so that it can make recommendations. ChatGPT's in the tourism sector can provide tourists and guests with more individualized recommendations. By looking at a traveler's check-in and internet search history, machine learning algorithms can be used to analyze his or her preferences and interests. The customized travel plans and experiences that ChatGPT may then offer are likely to appeal to them. This level of personalization is a win-win situation for both sides.

Content creation and language translation

ChatGPT can be used to supply top-notch content for online travel journals, magazines, and social media platforms. This content may contain descriptions of well-known tourist destinations and attractions, travel guidance, and blog entries in an effort to promote tourism and attract new customers. The API may provide descriptions and marketing content for websites and email campaigns, among other things. ChatGPT may be used to support many languages, making it simpler for travel companies to interact with customers from diverse countries and regions. With the help of this multilingual support, travel businesses' customers and geographic reach may both grow.

Discussion

It is crucial to keep in mind that different industry can use technology in a different way. Some of the top travel and hospitality companies in the world, like Airbnb, Marriott, and Hilton, are already utilizing the AI-powered technology. ChatGPT is transforming the hotel and tourist industries with its cutting-edge features. Service providers can give a more personalized and interesting experience by incorporating ChatGPT into tourism and hospitality enterprises. ChatGPT can comprehend a visitor's preferences with natural language processing and offer customized suggestions for things to do, restaurants, and hotels. This will enable visitors to get the most out of their trip and enhance the overall enjoyment. With the support of ChatGPT, tourism and hospitality companies may increase their productivity and transparency.

Although ChatGPT is still in the experimental stage, the time is now to start learning more about it to enhance the services hotel offers, streamline procedures, and enhance the experience for guests. Hoteliers must look for ways in which it might benefit both their guests and their company. They must closely monitor the development of technology like ChatGPT, as well as its potential applications. A negative perception exists that ChatGPT could replace occupations held by professionals. Peter Syme, founder of 1000 Mile Journey believes it will truly disrupt the tour operator business model,

> "You are a tour operator, and you create itineraries. The consumer can now do exactly the same thing as you and do it in real time. And 1,000 people can create 1,000 different experiences tailored to what they like. So, the creation of a travel experience on the ground, which tour operators have dominated, is going to be disrupted by travelers being able to do it themselves." (Sorrels, 2023)

ChatGPT is currently only scrapping data up to 2021, thus the information may not be entirely accurate, and it lacks geolocation. Sometimes ChatGPT provides reasonable-sounding wrong responses. The majority of these are meaningless and provide the readers nothing. ChatGPT generates responses based on the input it receives, which can include personal information (Ali, 2023). It responds well to input wording. ChatGPT can claim not to know the answer if you ask it a question. Algorithms are used by ChatGPT to analyze and reply to client enquiries. These algorithms may not always deliver accurate results because they are not flawless. Inaccurate responses can result in dissatisfied customers and possibly lost revenue.

A chatbot powered by AI named Google Bard was created to mimic human talks using machine learning and natural language processing by Google on 15 May 2023. It was created in reaction to the popularity of OpenAI's ChatGPT and debuted in March 2023 to mixed reviews before being made available to other nations. The Pathways Language Model 2 (PaLM 2), a language model launched in late 2022, is the foundation on which Google Bard is constructed. Transformer, a Google neural network architecture unveiled in 2017, serves as the foundation for both PaLM and the model that came before it, such as Google's Language Model for Dialogue Applications (LaMDA) technology. Bard can be included into websites, messaging services, or applications in addition to Google search to offer users believable, in-depth solutions to their inquiries. Although Bard, ChatGPT-4, and other AI chatbots might offer speedy responses, they might not be accurate. These systems offer solutions influenced by conflicting or out-of-date data and biases in training datasets.

Conclusion

ChatGPT is a tool that can assist tourism and hospitality organizations in streamlining their operations and improving client satisfaction. ChatGPT offers both potential and challenges to the tourism and hospitality sector. ChatGPT enables organizations to deliver services while saving time and money by automating customer interaction, capturing customer data, and handling appointments and payments. By enhancing the customer experience, enhancing operational performance, and generating new revenue streams, ChatGPT has the potential to make a significant impact. The prospects for better customer service, higher efficiency, cost savings, personalization, and data analytics are enormous even though there are obstacles including integration, personalization, accuracy, and security. In future, ChatGPT will be applied in in ever more inventive ways, more accessible, and more enjoyable. ChatGPT will be a vital tool for companies trying to stay ahead of the curve.

References

Abdou, M., Musabanganji, E., & Musahara, H. (2022). Determinants of Tourism Demand Using Machine Learning Techniques. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 11(2), 770-780.

Alasmari, W. A., & Abdelhafez, H. A. (2022). Twitter Sentiment Analysis for Reviewing Tourist Destinations in Saudi Arabia using Apache Spark and Machine Learning Algorithms. *Journal of Computer Science*, 18(3), 215-226.

Ali, F. (2023). Let the devil speak for itself: Should ChatGPT be allowed or banned in hospitality and tourism schools? *Journal of Global Hospitality and Tourism*, 2(1), 1-6.

Alrashidi, S. M., Alanazi, F. N., Albalawi, H. A., Albalawi, O. M., & Awadelkarim, A. M. (2022). Machine Learning-Based Sentiment Analysis for Tweets Saudi Tourism. *Journal of Theoretical and Applied Information Technology*, 100(16), 5096-5109.

Andariesta, D. T., & Wasesa, M. (2022). Machine learning models for predicting international tourist arrivals in Indonesia during the COVID-19 pandemic: a multisource Internet data approach. *Journal of Tourism Futures*. Ahead of print. doi: 10.1108/JTF-10-2021-0239

Aparicio Castillo, S., Basurto Hornillos, N., Arranz Val, P., Antón Maraña, P., & Herrero Cosío, Á. (2022). Machine Learning to Predict Recommendation by Tourists in a Spanish Province. *International Journal of Information Technology and Decision Making*, 21(4), 1297-1320.

Bi, F., & Liu, H. (2022). Machine learning-based cloud IOT platform for intelligent tourism information services. *Eurasip Journal on Wireless Communications and Networking*, 2022(1).

Bi, J. W., Han, T. Y., & Li, H. (2022). International tourism demand forecasting with machine learning models: The power of the number of lagged inputs. *Tourism Economics*, 28(3), 621-645.

Buhalis, D., & Moldavska, I. (2022). Voice assistants in hospitality: using artificial intelligence for customer service. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Technology*, 13(3), 386-403.

Castelli, M., Pinto, D. C., Shuqair, S., Montali, D., & Vanneschi, L. (2022). The Benefits of Automated Machine Learning in Hospitality: A Step-By-Step Guide and AutoML Tool. *Emerging Science Journal*, 6(6), 1237-1254.

Chen, J., & Wang, X. (2022). Analysis on Spatial Distribution Characteristics and Configuration of Tourist Hotels Based on Artificial Intelligence Technology. *Wireless Communications and Mobile Computing*, 2022, Article 8227294.

Čumlievski, N., Brkić Bakarić, M., & Matetić, M. (2022). A Smart Tourism Case Study: Classification of Accommodation Using Machine Learning Models Based on Accommodation Characteristics and Online Guest Reviews. *Electronics*, 11(6).

Derdouri, A., & Osaragi, T. (2021). A machine learning-based approach for classifying tourists and locals using geotagged photos: the case of Tokyo. *Information Technology and Tourism*, 23(4), 575-609.

Ding, L. (2022). Research on Innovation in the Design of Museum Tourist Souvenirs Based on Artificial Intelligence. *International Journal of Intelligent Systems and Applications in Engineering*, 10(2s), 54-58.

Doborjeh, Z., Hemmington, N., Doborjeh, M., & Kasabov, N. (2022). Artificial intelligence: a systematic review of methods and applications in hospitality and tourism. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 34(3), 1154-1176.

Du, H., Sun, W., Jiao, Y., Li, J., & Liu, L. (2022). Countermeasures for the Development of Data Integration of the Internet Ice and Snow Tourism Industry under the Background of Artificial Intelligence. *Applied Bionics and Biomechanics*, 2022, Article 8496766.

Fang, W. (2022). Cultural Tourism Industry Feature Extraction Based on Multiscale Feature Fusion Algorithm and Artificial Intelligence. *Mathematical Problems in Engineering*, 2022, Article 5946166.

Gajdošík, T., & Marciš, M. (2019). Artificial intelligence tools for smart tourism development. Paper presented at the Artificial Intelligence Methods in Intelligent Algorithms: Proceedings of 8th Computer Science On-line Conference 2019, Vol. 2 8.

Gupta, S., Modgil, S., Lee, C. K., Cho, M., & Park, Y. (2022). Artificial intelligence enabled robots for stay experience in the hospitality industry in a smart city. *Industrial Management and Data Systems*, 122(10), 2331-2350.

Ho, P. T. (2022). Smart Tourism Recommendation Method in Southeast Asia under Big Data and Artificial Intelligence Algorithms. *Mobile Information Systems*, 2022.

Hong, C., Shi, J., Xing, Y., & Chang, Z. (2022). Research on the Coupling and Coordinated Development of Sports Tourism and Cultural Industry under the Background of Artificial Intelligence Era. *Wireless Communications and Mobile Computing*, 2022.

Hou, S., & Zhang, S. (2022). Application of Artificial Intelligence-Based Sensor Technology in the Recommendation Model of Cultural Tourism Resources. *Journal of Sensors*, 2022.

Huang, A., Chao, Y., de la Mora Velasco, E., Bilgihan, A., & Wei, W. (2022). When artificial intelligence meets the hospitality and tourism industry: an assessment framework to inform theory and management. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, 5(5), 1080-1100.

Jabeen, F., Al Zaidi, S., & Al Dhaheri, M. H. (2022). Automation and artificial intelligence in hospitality and tourism. *Tourism Review*, 77(4), 1043-1061.

Kashem, M. A., Shamsuddoha, M., Nasir, T., & Chowdhury, A. A. (2023). The role of artificial intelligence and blockchain technologies in sustainable tourism in the Middle East. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 15(2), 178-191.

Kirtil, İ. G., & Aşkun, V. (2021). Artificial intelligence in tourism: A review and bibliometrics research. *Advances in Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 9(1), 205-233.

Knani, M., Echchakoui, S., & Ladhari, R. (2022). Artificial intelligence in tourism and hospitality: Bibliometric analysis and research agenda. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 107.

Kong, Y. (2023). Ctrip to integrate Baidu's ChatGPT-style Bot into tourism services. Retrieved from: https://daoinsights.com/news/ctrip-to-integrate-baidus-chatgpt-style-bot-into-tourism-services/

Leelawat, N., Jariyapongpaiboon, S., Promjun, A., Boonyarak, S., Saengtabtim, K., Laosunthara, A., . . . Tang, J. (2022). Twitter data sentiment analysis of tourism in Thailand during the COVID-19 pandemic using machine learning. *Heliyon*, 8(10).

Li, C., & Lyu, S. (2022). Machine Learning-Based Classification and Evaluation of Regional Ethnic Traditional Sports Tourism Resources. *Mobile Information Systems*, 2022.

Li, D., Du, P., & He, H. (2022). Artificial Intelligence-Based Sustainable Development of Smart Heritage Tourism. *Wireless Communications and Mobile Computing*, 2022.

Li, W. (2022). Prediction of Tourism Demand in Liuzhou Region Based on Machine Learning. *Mobile Information Systems*, 2022.

Li, X., Li, H., Pan, B., & Law, R. (2021). Machine Learning in Internet Search Query Selection for Tourism Forecasting. *Journal of Travel Research*, 60(6), 1213-1231.

Lv, H., Shi, S., & Gursoy, D. (2022). A look back and a leap forward: a review and synthesis of big data and artificial intelligence literature in hospitality and tourism. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 31(2), 145-175.

Ma, R., & Cai, L. (2022). Visual analysis of forest sports and health tourism based on artificial intelligence. *Journal of Electronic Imaging*, 31(6).

Mariani, M., & Wirtz, J. (2023). A critical reflection on analytics and artificial intelligence-based analytics in hospitality and tourism management research. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. Ahead of print.

Mesa-Arango, R., Pineda-Jaramillo, J., Araujo, D. S. A., Bi, J., Basva, M., & Viti, F. (2023). Missions and factors determining the demand for affordable mass space tourism in the United States: A machine learning approach. *Acta Astronautica*, 204, 307-320.

Mishra, R. K., Urolagin, S., Jothi, J. A. A., Nawaz, N., & Ramkissoon, H. (2021). Machine Learning based Forecasting Systems for Worldwide International Tourists Arrival. *International Journal of Advanced Computer Science and Applications*, 12(11), 55-64.

Mor, M., Dalyot, S., & Ram, Y. (2023). Who is a tourist? Classifying international urban tourists using machine learning. *Tourism Management*, 95.

Muniasamy, A., & Alasiry, A. (2020). Deep learning: The impact on future eLearning. International *Journal of Emerging Technologies in Learning* (Online), 15(1), 188.

OpenAI. (2023a). Chat completions Retrieved from: https://platform.openai.com/docs/guides/chat

OpenAI. (2023b). Introducing ChatGPT Retrieved from: https://openai.com/blog/chatgpt?ref=news-tutorials-ai-research

Orea-Giner, A., Muñoz-Mazón, A., Villacé-Molinero, T., & Fuentes-Moraleda, L. (2022). Cultural tourist and user experience with artificial intelligence: a holistic perspective from the Industry 5.0 approach. *Journal of Tourism Futures*. Ahead of print. doi: 10.1108/JTF-04-2022-0115

Payntar, N. D. (2022). Archaeological heritage 'on-the-rise': detecting emerging tourist attractions in Peru using machine learning and geotagged photographs. *Journal of Heritage Tourism*, 17(2), 222-244.

Penagos-Londoño, G. I., Rodriguez-Sanchez, C., Ruiz-Moreno, F., & Torres, E. (2021). A machine learning approach to segmentation of tourists based on perceived destination sustainability and trustworthiness. *Journal of Destination Marketing and Management*, 19, Article 100532.

Puh, K., & Bagić Babac, M. (2023). Predicting sentiment and rating of tourist reviews using machine learning. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, 6(3), 1188-1204.

Puri, V., Mondal, S., Das, S., & Vrana, V. G. (2023). Blockchain Propels Tourism Industry—An Attempt to Explore Topics and Information in Smart Tourism Management through Text Mining and Machine Learning. *Informatics*, 10(1).

Rawal, Y. S., Soni, H., Dani, R., & Bagchi, P. (2022). A Review on Service Delivery in Tourism and Hospitality Industry Through Artificial Intelligence. Paper presented at the Proceedings of Third International Conference on Computing, Communications, and Cyber-Security: IC4S 2021.

Reuter. (2023) Retrieved from: https://www.reuters.com/

Ri, P. (2023). Culture Ministry lays the foundations for a 'K-ChatGPT with fluent Korean abilities'. Retrieved from: https://www.korea.net/NewsFocus/Culture/view?articleId=229201

Saydam, M. B., Arici, H. E., & Koseoglu, M. A. (2022). How does the tourism and hospitality industry use artificial intelligence? A review of empirical studies and future research agenda. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing and Management*, 31(8), 908-936.

Solakis, K., Katsoni, V., Mahmoud, A. B., & Grigoriou, N. (2022). Factors affecting value co-creation through artificial intelligence in tourism: a general literature review. *Journal of Tourism Futures*. Ahead of print. doi: 10.1108/JTF-06-2021-0157

Sorrels, M. (2023). What will chatgpt mean for the travel industry? Retrieved from: https://www.phocuswire.com/what-will-chatgpt-mean-for-the-travel-industry

Sulong, Z., Abdullah, M., & Chowdhury, M. A. F. (2022). Halal tourism demand and firm performance forecasting: new evidence from machine learning. *Current Issues in Tourism*. Ahead of print. doi: 10.1080/13683500.2022.2145458

Sun, S., Wei, Y., Tsui, K.-L., & Wang, S. (2019). Forecasting tourist arrivals with machine learning and internet search index. *Tourism Management*, 70, 1-10.

Tong, L., Yan, W., & Manta, O. (2022). Artificial Intelligence Influences Intelligent Automation in Tourism: A Mediating Role of Internet of Things and Environmental, Social, and Governance Investment. *Frontiers in Environmental Science*, 10.

Topal, I., & Uçar, M. K. (2019). Hybrid artificial intelligence based automatic determination of travel preferences of chinese tourists. *IEEE Access*, 7, 162530-162548.

Tourism Tribe. (2023). Enhance Your Digital Marketing Efforts with Artificial Intelligence (AI) and ChatGPT for Small Tourism Businesses. Retrieved from: https://www.tourismtribe.com/chatgpt-for-small-tourism-businesses/

Vargas-Calderón, V., Moros Ochoa, A., Castro Nieto, G. Y., & Camargo, J. E. (2021). Machine learning for assessing quality of service in the hospitality sector based on customer reviews. *Information Technology and Tourism*, 23(3), 351-379.

Wei, A. (2021). Machine learning-based detection of mountain soil composition and environmental and ecological management of tourist areas. *Arabian Journal of Geosciences*, 14(10).

Wu, D., Song, Z., & Guo, H. (2022). Artificial Intelligence Algorithms in Ice and Snow Tourism Promotion from Digital Technology. *Wireless Communications and Mobile Computing*, 2022.

Xie, D., & He, Y. (2022). Marketing Strategy of Rural Tourism Based on Big Data and Artificial Intelligence. *Mobile Information Systems*, 2022.

Xie, G., Qian, Y., & Wang, S. (2021). Forecasting Chinese cruise tourism demand with big data: An optimized machine learning approach. *Tourism Management*, 82.

Yun, L., Jiao, H., & Lu, K. (2022). Tourist Attraction Recommendation Method Based on Megadata and Artificial Intelligence Algorithm. *Wireless Communications and Mobile Computing*, 2022.

Zhou, L., Gao, J., Li, D., & Shum, H.-Y. (2020). The design and implementation of xiaoice, an empathetic social chatbot. *Computational Linguistics*, 46(1), 53-93.

Zhuang, X., Jiao, H., & Kang, L. (2022). Digital Management and Optimization of Tourism Information Resources Based on Machine Learning. *International Transactions on Electrical Energy Systems*, 2022.

Zyma, O., Guryanova, L., Gavkalova, N., Chernova, N., & Nekrasova, O. (2022). The Application of Machine Learning Methods in Determining Attractive Development Directions for Tourism Businesses. *Intellectual Economics*, 16(1), 151-165.

1.6. Chatbots in the hospitality business: Customer satisfaction and resistance

Maryam Ashkar | Wittenborg University of Applied Sciences, The Netherlands
Vanessa de Oliveira Menezes | Wittenborg University of Applied Sciences
Somayeh Mouri | Wittenborg University of Applied Sciences, The Netherlands

Abstract
This paper aims to discuss, based on a current literature review: (1) how chatbots can be used to increase guest satisfaction, and (2) customer resistance to this technology in hospitality. It is a conceptual-based study where the data was gathered by bibliographical sources and empirical studies. The results found that, despite the fact that chatbots can increase customer satisfaction, providing more efficiency to the service and increasing the whole experience, the acceptance of this new technology is still controversial. According to a number of researchers, guests are still afraid of service impersonality, data safety and eventual technological anxiety caused by gadgets. To avoid this situation, the user should pass through a multi-step process. However, the topic still requires more studies specially applied to different guests, based on age, social status and expectations, and according to the type of business (budget, midscale, upscale hotels).

Keywords: Artificial Intelligence; Chatbot; Hospitality; Customer satisfaction; Customer loyalty; Customer resistance

Introduction

Artificial Intelligence (AI) is a tool capable of improving productivity, reducing cost, increasing efficiency, facilitating operations, and diminishing waste in all industries, including hospitality (Dash & Bakshi, 2019). As a part of computer science, AI has concentrated on the operations performed by intelligent devices or machines to imitate and implement human intelligence and activities. This part of computer science includes planning, problem solving, robots, learning, speech recognition, collecting data, and chatbots. Although the hospitality business is a traditional industry, it utilizes different kinds of AI technologies, such as chatbots, to facilitate tasks, increase proficiency, reduce cost, adapt itself to technology development, and as a result, attract more loyal customers (Ivanov & Webster, 2017). Chatbot, in this sense, is a computer program that utilizes conversational AI to enable direct interaction between humans and systems to simulate real conversation through natural language processing (NLP) (Kinnear & Cuddeford, 2018).

Chatbots play a new role in the hospitality industry since they simulate human dialogues and conversations through varied communication channels, such as text and voice, to meet people's needs and provide better customer service (Roopa, 2020; Cheriyan et al., 2022). For instance, customers, before, during, and after traveling, by use of chatbots, may not only obtain sufficient information about brands, hotels, tourist attractions near the hotel, flight schedules, weather prediction, and traffic but they can also ask questions and receive advice (Parmar et al., 2019). Hotel companies like Marriot International, Hyatt Corporation, and GRT Hotels & Resorts are investing in this technology and applying it to accomplish guests' needs, such as food, room services, updating room amenities, housekeeping services, scheduling alarms, scheduling chores and appointments, cab services booking and message readers. However, despite the fact that chatbots can improve hotels' results, there are still concerns about customer acceptance and preference.

In academia there is a rising number of studies that discuss the use of AI, and specifically chatbots in the hospitality industry (Yu, 2019; Cheriyan et al., 2022; Ivanov & Webster, 2017; Dash & Bakshi, 2019; Parmar et al., 2019; Lin, Chi, & Gursoy, 2020; Pillai & Sivathanu, 2020, amongst others); however, most of them only highlight the possible benefits and only a few discuss customers' acceptance to this new technology. Therefore, this study is relevant since it will create more discussion on this theme. From this brief contextualization and by highlighting the importance of studies related to AI, including chatbots, this paper aims to discuss, based on a current literature review: (1) how chatbots can be used to increase guest satisfaction, and (2) customer resistance to this technology in hospitality. This study is the first step of a research project that will analyze these two constructs in the hospitality business in the Netherlands.

The paper is divided into four sections. This first introduces the topic, contextualizing the theme and presenting the aims of the study. The second and third bring in the theoretical basis of the paper, where it is discussed, based on different sources, how chatbots can be used to increase guest satisfaction and guest resistance to the technology. In section four, the results are discussed, and the conclusions are presented.

Chatbots in Hospitality

Recently, with the development and expansion of AI in business, the role of chatbots in hotels has become more critical to improving customer services in such a way that chatbots are seen as a competitive advantage for hotels, and they strive to employ the best chatbots in their different departments. According to Pérez, Daradoumis and Puig (2020), a chatbot is a tool that merges artificial intelligence (AI) and language processing to interact with another person through a text or voice. Kwangsawad and Jattamart (2022) explain that chatbots improve human-technology interactions.

The first version of a chatbot, 'Eliza', was created in the 1970s to study natural language and communication between human beings and machines (Pérez, Daradoumis & Puig, 2020); however, nowadays it has been used in different industries in order to satisfy customer requests without requiring personal interaction. Although there are different chatbot types, they are generally divided into three basic types. In the first, the users reach the next stage and have limited choices in a conversation which depends on the platform and design of the chatbots. The second type is more advanced, providing users with more user-friendly conversations and input options. However, their intelligence is confined by their design. The third and most intelligent, called application chatbots, require less control by humans while they provide a wider field of inputs for users. In the third type, the users are not limited to asking specific questions, and they have more chances to communicate, asking and writing questions of chatbots (Dash & Bakshi, 2019). One of the most popular chatbots developed by Amazon is 'Alexa'. Alexa is also trained to be utilized in hotel websites and individual rooms and has been taught to answer expected questions from customers. Besides Alexa, 'Siri' is another chatbot employed in the hospitality industry with the potential to process a large amount of information, answering questions, making reservations, handling compliments and complaints, and sharing information on social media (Buhalis et al., 2019).

There is another intelligent and popular chatbot, 'IBM Watson', which can not only create interactions between customers and machines through questions and responses but can also create a conversation with guests to meet their demands and give them sufficient information about their booking, travel, local attractions, and hotel features. 'Connie', the robot created by Watson technology in a partnership with Hilton Hotels, was launched with a significant number of capabilities (Sandeep & Jadhavb, 2020). However, the most advanced artificial intelligence chatbot is 'ChatGPT'. This technology works based on OpenAI GPT-3 languages. It has been designed to create human-like text replies to user input questions. These kinds of chatbots, due to the training received, can establish conversations with users and respond to a wide variety of questions, providing intelligent solutions and coherent and natural conversational texts, with the ability to understand most topics and distinguish the text. The main applications of ChatGPT are in chatbot programs, customer service, language translation systems, and generating presumably responses in different languages. Therefore, its powerful ability to communicate with humans can be used in hotels and other parts of the hospitality industry (Aydin & Karaarslan, 2022).

Campbell (2017) illustrated that Holiday Inn and Hilton were the first major hotel chains to utilize the latest chatbots in their systems and chatbots deliver guests offers instantly and directly before and after their stays. Campbell (2017) also states that chatbots could increase guest loyalty and satisfaction. Asokan (2019) added that this satisfaction is due to being available 24/7, eliminating language barriers and waiting time. Hence, Asokan (2019) also stated that chatbots are one of the leading ways of attracting more guests and loyal customers for hotels and have been able to increase efficiency. In 2022, professors of Pune LA Vasa Campus in India (Cheriyan et al., 2022) found a strong positive influence of AI-driver chatbots on the hospitality industry. They concentrated more on the impacts of chatbots on the satisfaction, experience, and perception of guests in hotels and concluded that AI-driver chatbots had been a massive revolution in the history of the hospitality industry. The results presented by Cheriyan (2022) strongly supported Asokan (2019) by proving the positive influence of chatbots on the experience and satisfaction of guests. They also demonstrated that working with chatbots in the hospitality industry is fascinating for most guests and, according to 76% of respondents, chatbots are user-friendly, flexible, and knowledgeable devices.

According to Ivanov and Webster (2017), the use of chatbots in the hospitality industry does not only improve the hospitality industry in the direction of technology development but can also bring some benefits, such as being available full time and saving customers waiting time. Chatbots can also save guest information, and then in further interactions, provide better solutions for guests based on their earlier dialogues (Cheriyan, 2022). Moreover, chatbots can enhance work efficiency by answering questions at any time without becoming tired or complaining and in the shortest time with no labor issues. Thus, hotels answer people's questions without the need to hire staff, which is a fundamental role of chatbots in addressing the problem of labor shortage in the hospitality industry (Ivanov & Webster, 2017; Cheriyan, 2022). Furthermore, since guests in hotels come from different countries with different languages, chatbots provided with multiple languages can offer improved experiences to hotel guests (Rashid, Ahmed & Ali, 2019).

These features of chatbots in hospitality create a positive experience in the minds of guests and, as a result, more loyal and satisfied customers (Dash & Bakshi, 2019). It is important to point out that with the advancement of technology, the design and programming of chatbots is moving toward becoming more user-friendly and smarter to establish better communication with guests and increase guest satisfaction and loyalty to hotels (Dash & Bakshi, 2019).

Increased guest satisfaction by the use of chatbots

Cheriyan (2022) found in his research that almost 74% of guests prefer to employ chatbots to book their rooms and obtain sufficient information about their journeys and hotels. The guests then recommend these computer programs to others. Furthermore, according to Cheriyan's respondents, chatbots have been designed in a way that seems human and natural; thus, people are encouraged to experience them again, which leads to the satisfaction and loyalty of guests in the hospitality industry (Cherivan, 2022).

Chung and his colleagues have found that chatbots can provide an efficient, convenient way to provide customer service, resulting in higher overall guest satisfaction and loyalty. Chung et al. (2020) investigated the impact of chatbots for customer service on guest satisfaction and loyalty at a hotel and found that using a chatbot for customer service was significantly faster than using human-based customer service and reported high levels of satisfaction with the chatbot's ability to answer their questions. They also noticed that using chatbots in customer service increased overall satisfaction with the hotel, including its booking process, amenities, and services and had a positive impact on guest loyalty, which was evidenced by an increase in bookings following the chatbot's introduction. These findings suggest that chatbots can provide a more efficient way to interact with customers, resulting in higher overall customer satisfaction and loyalty. As such, Chung et al. (2020) have supported chatbots' positive influence on guest experience.

Additionally, chatbots have been utilized in hotel websites to contribute to guests booking their favorite available rooms through the hotel's website rather than other websites like Booking.com, checking visa eligibility, check-in, and check-out. Customers explained that the emotional functions and reactions of chatbots are not like those of humans, and lack of emotion is one of the most critical weaknesses of chatbots. This considerable shortcoming of the new technology has led to lower customer satisfaction (Voronov & Weber, 2016). In this regard, the best answer to how chatbots can be used to increase customer satisfaction is understanding the difference between the emotional interactions of humans and chatbots. Put simply, customers should consider that though chatbots have the potential to provide some services, such as apologizing and congratulating, they have been programmed to provide faster and better service for guests in hotels and not have emotional interactions with customers (Zhang et al., 2022).

Another element is the task complexity of chatbots. It has been proved that there is a negative relation between perceived task complexity and people's trust. Indeed, when working with chatbots proves easier, customers prefer to prioritize them for the next time. Hence, chatbots should be programmed and designed to lower barriers under challenging tasks and make the process easier (Casadei et al., 2022). Changing chatbot design and enhancing its emotional operation is the main critical action to increase customer satisfaction even more. This application can be improved by programming elements of humor and care in the response of chatbots (Yang et al., 2022). According to Liu and Hu (2021), in the advertisement of chatbots, the main emphasis of companies will be on the chatbot's emotional competence rather than functional advantages, such as promulgating warm, welcoming and friendly service for guests in hotels.

Resistance to the use of chatbots

Despite the advantages of chatbots in the hospitality industry and their role in increasing guest loyalty and satisfaction, it is a controversial issue and different ideas and perceptions have been expressed in this regard. In other words, although positive perceptions and satisfaction of guests have been registered from the influence of chatbots in the hospitality industry, some negative perceptions and disadvantages have been reported (Zhang, et al., 2022; Konica, 2019; Voronov & Weber, 2016). The negative perception of chatbots in the hospitality industry is mainly due to misinformation about technology. For example, some people falsely believe that chatbots are not intelligent enough to provide real customer service and, as a result, will not be able to answer common questions or provide reliable advice (Ahmed, Smid & Mihalcea, 2019). This can lead to frustration for guests as their requests may take longer to process.

From a human perspective, customers may also find it off-putting and impersonal to interact with a robot instead of an employee for customer service, hospitality, or even leisure purposes (Cheng & Gohari, 2019). Customers may feel more positive about interacting with another person rather than a robot. Some customers believe that using a chatbot will cost the hotel more money than using a human employee (Chandrasekaran & Shankar, 2018). However, Jenneboer, Herrando and Constantinides (2022) found that by altering them to more be personable, chatbots will be capable of providing better services and attracting more customers. They also proved that changing the language style of chatbots and simulating human-like chatbots would lead to more adoption and increase customer satisfaction.

Costly maintenance and updating are the other controversial points; chatbots require regular maintenance to stay updated with the latest technology (Maxwell, 2019) and free from any bugs during the procedure. This can lead to high costs, which can be difficult for small hospitality businesses to bear, and it is not irrelevant to mention people's concerns about the safety and security of their personal information when interacting with a chatbot as opposed to an actual person (Gweon, 2018).

Thus, chatbots can be a strategic asset to increase guests' satisfaction and companies' efficiency; however, Melián-González, Gutiérrez-Tañob and Bulchand-Gidumal (2021) state that there is no evidence about the factors that explain why consumers are willing to interact with chatbots, and Kwangsawad and Jattamart (2022) also add that not all customers are open to accepting the tool. The authors say that technological anxiety is a barrier toward chatbot usage, while perceived information quality indirectly influences users to use chatbots continually. Besides, they found that experienced chatbot users are concerned with privacy and time constraints. One of the factors for resistance is the lack of knowledge about the system. To exemplify this data, Dash and Bakshi (2020) conducted a survey applied to individuals who are likely to travel and use online hotel services, and it was found that only 6% of the respondents knew about chatbots and had used them. In fact, 60% of the respondents had not even heard of this technology, 4% had heard of them but were not sure what they were, and 30% of the respondents knew about chatbots but had never used them.

Technological anxiety is a barrier toward the incorporation of chatbot usage in hotels. Research indicates that because of the digital divide, there are certain populations who are less likely to engage with digital technologies (Raimondi, 2019). The sense of unease that these digital divides produce can prevent individuals from having a meaningful experience when interacting with chatbots. Furthermore, as chatbot technology advances and becomes more sophisticated, humans may become increasingly apprehensive at the thought of entrusting decision making and customer service operations to a computer-generated system (Hussein 2020). Moreover, an additional factor contributing to technological anxiety associated with chatbot usage in hotels is the privacy and security concerns that surround both technology and hotels (Khan & Khan 2020). Most consumers tend to be suspicious of technology because they cannot assess who, or what, is behind it and this lack of trust leads to feelings of impending danger and a heightened sense of insecurity, thus making it more difficult for users to feel comfortable using chatbot systems. Hotels compound this by having access to large amounts of personal information about their guests, sometimes including credit card numbers and other financial information, making some people feel uncomfortable when interacting with automated systems. Finally, technological anxiety toward the usage of chatbots in hotels can also be attributed to a lack of knowledge. To some people, the process of working with AI-based systems can be confusing and anxiety provoking. This is because they may not understand how the technology works or what information it needs in order to fulfill its task (Chang et al. 2020). Furthermore, they may not know how to use the technologies needed to receive assistance from an automated system. In these cases, it is important for hotels to make sure that their customers understand the features and functions offered by their chatbots to help reduce the unease many guests feel when dealing with technology.

Kwangsawad and Jattamart (2022) mentioned that it is necessary to understand the variables involved in technology adoption or rejection to define user behavior toward and relationships with new technologies. And to increase the acceptability of a new technology, the user should pass through a multi-step process, that includes (1) knowledge about the device and its advantages, (2) persuasion, (3) decision, (4) implementation, and (5) confirmation (Rogers, 2010). Thus, it is a process that requires a certain amount of time.

Conclusion

AI tries to provide better life quality for people worldwide. Additionally, it has been able to draw the attention of all industries, including hospitality, since it is a technology that helps decrease costs and time and increment work efficiency. Chatbot is an AI technology that communicates with people, meeting people's needs by answering their questions and providing services to them. Although chatbots entered the hospitality industry to establish appropriate communication with guests and increase their loyalty and satisfaction, this influence is controversial, and different ideas have been expressed. On the one hand, Campbell (2017), Ivanov (2017), Asokan (2019), Gunawan (2022), Chung (2020), Pune (2022) and Jenneboer (2022) have shown that chatbots can increase guest's satisfaction and loyalty because of their ability to answer questions 24/7, saving people time, being user friendly, flexible, knowledgeable and indefatigable. Moreover, they state that chatbots have excellent functions and improved customer service quality. On the other hand, other researchers indicated that chatbots could reduce guest satisfaction and loyalty because in recovery and emotional processes, such as complaints, explanations, and apologies, they act differently from humans, leading to customer dissatisfaction (Zhang, 2022). In addition, Dash and Bakshi (2019) stated that most people are not familiar with chatbots, and the only group which intends to work with chatbots is the younger generation.

Nonetheless, González, Gutiérrez Taño and Bulchand-Gidumal (2021) argued that guest satisfaction with using chatbots in the hospitality industry depends on the type of questions, the expectation of guests, and how and when customers use chatbots. Finally, Abdel-Hamid Ahmed, Fattah Zohry, Elshabrawy and Elgohary (2022) showed that satisfaction and loyalty of guests in hotels through using chatbots depends on the education, gender, culture, and nationality of guests. Following several methods, such as enhancing the emotional interaction of chatbots, altering chatbots to natural and personable devices for communicating, using the language style of humans for chatbots, declining task complexity, and programming chatbots to be smarter, would contribute to increasing customer satisfaction and loyalty to hotels.

This study does not intend to finish the discussion on the subject, however, rather encourage further research, applying these references to hotel cases. It is worth mentioning that this manuscript is part of a larger project to study chatbots in the hospitality business in the Netherlands.

References

Abdel-Hamid, T. A., Ahmed, M. A. E. A. S., Zohry, M. A. F., Elshabrawy, G. A., & Elgohary, E. M. (2022). The role of digital transformation in improving customer satisfaction: An empirical study on Egyptian hotels. *Electronic Journal of Information Systems in Developing Countries*, 4(4), 1-18.

Aydın, Ö., Karaarslan, E. (2022). OpenAI ChatGPT Generated Literature Review: Digital Twin in Healthcare. In Ö. Aydın (Ed.), *Emerging Computer Technologies 2* (pp. 22-31).

Belanche, D., Casaló Ariño, L., Flavian, C., & Schepers, J. (2020). Robots or frontline employees? Exploring customers' attributions of responsibility and stability after service failure or success. *Journal of Service Management*, 31(2), 267-289.

Campbell, I. (2017). False Gods and Libertarians: Artificial Intelligence and Community in Aḥmad'Abd Al-Salām Al-Baqqāli's The Blue Flood and Heinlein's The Moon Is a Harsh Mistress. *Science Fiction Studies*, 44(1), 43-64.

Casadei, A., Schlögl, S., & Bergmann, M. (2022, November). Chatbots for Robotic Process Automation: Investigating Perceived Trust and User Satisfaction. In 2022 IEEE 3rd International Conference on Human-Machine Systems (ICHMS), 1-6.

Cheriyan, A., Sharma, R. K., Joseph, A., & Kappil, S. R. (2022). Consumer Acceptance towards AI-enabled Chatbots; case of Travel and Tourism Industries. *Journal of Positive School Psychology*, 6(3), 3880-3889.

Chung, M., Ko, E., Joung, H., & Kim, S. J. (2020). Chatbot e-service and customer satisfaction regarding luxury brands. *Journal of Business Research*, 117, 587-595.

Dash, M., & Bakshi, S. (2019). An exploratory study of customer perceptions of usage of chatbots in the hospitality industry. *International Journal on Customer Relations*, 7(2), 27-33.

Dhiman, N., Jamwal, M., Kumar, A. (2023). Enhancing value in customer journey by considering the (ad)option of artificial intelligence tools. *Journal of Business Research*, 167,114142.

Gunawan, D., Putri, F. P., & Meidia, H. (2020). Bershca: bringing chatbot into hotel industry in Indonesia. *TELKOMNIKA* (Telecommunication Computing Electronics and Control), 18(2), 839-845.

Gweon, H., Fan, J., & Kim, B. (2023). Socially intelligent machines that learn from humans and help humans learn. *Philosophical Transactions of the Royal Society A*, 381(2251).

Ivanov, S. H., & Webster, C. (2017). Adoption of robots, artificial intelligence and service automation by travel, tourism and hospitality companies–a cost-benefit analysis. In International Scientific Conference Contemporary Tourism – Traditions and Innovations, Sofia University, 19-21 October 2017.

Jenneboer, L., Herrando, C., & Constantinides, E. (2022). The impact of chatbots on customer loyalty: A systematic literature review. *Journal of theoretical and applied electronic commerce research*, 17(1), 212-229.

Kinnear, N. E., & Cuddeford, V., (2018). The Use of Chatbots in Higher Education: Exploring the Potential Benefits and Drawbacks. *Journal of Educational Technology Development and Exchange* (JETDE), 11(1), 1-14.

Kwangsawad, A., & Jattamart, A. (2022). Overcoming customer innovation resistance to the sustainable adoption of chatbot services: A community-enterprise perspective in Thailand. *Journal of Innovation & Knowledge,* 7(3), 1-13.

Lin, H., Chi, O. H., & Gursoy, D. (2019). Antecedents of customers' acceptance of artificially intelligent robotic device use in hospitality services. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 29 (5), 1-20.

Lukanova, G., & Ilieva, G. (2019). Robots, artificial intelligence, and service automation in hotels. In S. Ivanov & C. Webster (Eds.) *Robots, artificial intelligence, and service automation in travel, tourism and hospitality* (pp. 157-184). Emerald Publishing Limited.

Makasi, T., Nili, A., Desouza, K., & Tate, M. (2020). Chatbot-mediated public service delivery: A public service value-based framework. *First Monday*, 25(12).

Melián-González, S., Gutiérrez-Taño, D., & Bulchand-Gidumal, J. (2021). Predicting the intentions to use chatbots for travel and tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(2), 192-210.

Meuter, M. L., Ostrom, A. L., Bitner, M. J., & Roundtree, R. (2003). The influence of technology anxiety on consumer use and experiences with self-service technologies. *Journal of Business Research*, 56(11), 899-906.

Parmar, S., Meshram, M., Parmar, P., Patel, M., & Desai, P. (2019). Smart Hotel Using Intelligent Chatbot: A Review. *International journal of scientific research in computer science*, 5(2), 823-829.

Pérez, J. Q., Daradoumis, T., & Puig, J. M. M. (2020). Rediscovering the use of chatbots in education: A systematic literature review. *Computer Applications in Engineering Education*, 28(6), 1549-1565.

Pillai, R., & Sivathanu, B. (2020). Adoption of AI-based chatbots for hospitality and tourism. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(10), 3199-3226.

Ratten, V., & Jones, P. (2023). Generative artificial intelligence (ChatGPT): Implications for management educators. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 21(3), 1-7.

Roopa, S. S., (2020). Chatbots in Hospitality Industry: A Review of Literature. *Journal of Critical Reviews*, 7(8), 317-320.

Van den Broeck, E., Zarouali, B., & Poels, K. (2019). Chatbot advertising effectiveness: When does the message get through? *Computers in Human Behavior*, 98, 150-157.

Vassilakopoulou, P., & Hustad, E. (2023). Bridging digital divides: A literature review and research agenda for information systems research. *Information Systems Frontiers*, 25(3), 955-969.

Zhang, X., Kim, D., Huang, S., & Law, R., (2022). Understanding the impact of chatbots on guests' satisfaction and loyalty: The moderating role of context. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 99, 102994.

Yang, S., & Evans, C. (2019, November). Opportunities and challenges in using AI chatbots in higher education. In Proceedings of the 2019 3rd International Conference on Education and E-Learning (pp. 79-83).

TRACK 2 – Sustainable Realities

2.1. Changing realities and new opportunities in sustainable destination management: The Fagradalsfjall volcanic eruption in Iceland

Tracy Michaud | University of Southern Maine, USA; Reykjavik University, Iceland
Stephanie Langridge | Reykjavik University, Iceland

Abstract

The 2021 Fagradalsfjall volcanic eruption in Iceland provides a case study for examining a collaboration between tourism stakeholders where changing realities can occur overnight. With the 2021 eruption of lava in the Geldingadalur Valley, a random place on the landscape became an instant tourist destination. This research highlights the social aspects of sustainability and investigates the issues and opportunities in the development and management of this destination. Stakeholder perceptions of the management process are collected through semi-structured interviews. The results are analysed within a responsible and sustainable tourism framework by a constant comparative method of interview text. According to stakeholders, the management of the Fagradalsfjall site, while positively perceived initially, needs to improve on the issues of authority, responsibility, safety, funding, and access, in order for ongoing sustainable and responsible management of the site to occur. This research has implications for emergent tourist sites in Iceland and beyond.

Keywords: Destination development; Sustainable tourism; Responsible management; Iceland; Volcano

Introduction

There has been significant progress in developing Iceland's nature-tourism sites since the country erupted into global consciousness with the 2010 Eyjafjallajökull eruption. Critical theories on sustainable development in Iceland have emerged in the years since as a reaction to the unanticipated, explosive increase in tourism and the desire to access Iceland's remote regions. In 2018, international tourism grew to 2.3 million tourists and the public conversation on tourism in Iceland stopped being fully optimistic about the positive economic, social and cultural impacts (Helgadóttir et al., 2019; Ólafsdóttir et al., 2018). The conversation shifted from the promotion of mass tourism (Buckley, 1999) to a focus on overtourism (Sæþórsdóttir et al., 2020), described as a tipping point at which tourists have 'overtaken' a destination and where the infrastructure can no longer support the growth (Helgadóttir et al., 2019; Kepnes, 2021; Þórhallsdóttir and Ólafsson, 2017; Ólafsdóttir et al., 2018). In response, even throughout the COVID-19 pandemic, development in tourism's physical infrastructure in Iceland has progressed alongside research regarding how to best develop natural sites and create a sustainable social, economic, and environmental balance within Iceland (Helgadóttir et al., 2019; Ólafsdóttir et al., 2018; Sæþórsdóttir, 2014; Sæþórsdóttir et al., 2020).

Iceland is a country with high levels of volcanic activity that can create brand new tourist attractions overnight. Some argue there is a gap in Icelandic policy regarding the management of these specific types of nature sites from their conception. Volcanic destinations occur quickly and sometimes with high risk to the safety of inhabitants and visitors. Therefore, they have different stakeholders initially (civil protection and emergency response organizations) in the management process compared to other tourist attractions. Researchers in Iceland have worked toward building action plans focused on the natural environment (Ólafsdóttir et al., 2018; Sæþórsdóttir, 2014), social sustainability (Helgadóttir et al., 2019; Knox-Hayes et al., 2020), willingness to pay for tourism (Cook et al., 2018a, b; Einarsdóttir et al., 2019; Malinauskaite et al., 2020; Reynisdóttir et al., 2008; Sæþórsdóttir, 2014); and carrying capacity (Yeoman et al., 2019). However, with notable exceptions less work has been done on the concept of stakeholder engagement in the tourist site development process (Bird & Gísladóttir, 2018, 2020; Bird et al. 2010). It is argued that this is necessary in volcanic destinations, allowing a better understanding of the social dimension of responsible tourism management at potentially hazardous or environmentally vulnerable locations (Sæþórsdóttir et al., 2020).

This work aims to contribute to the discussion on social sustainability in tourism and natural site management (Knox-Hayes et al., 2021). While scientists are important during natural activities, including other stakeholder voices can strengthen the success of sustainability initiatives (Kristjánsdóttir et al., 2017). Research into the relation of various stakeholders is lacking overall even though stakeholder consultation facilitates a "process that will ultimately reduce the potential for conflicts, reduce power imbalances and is more politically legitimate" (Hardy & Pearson, 2018, p. 248). There have been several recent national-level tourism legislation and revenue generation strategies in Iceland where a lack of stakeholder consensus likely contributed to their dismissal or failure (Haraldsson, 2016; Morgunblaðið, 2021; Ólafsson, 2014) For these reasons, the research in this paper investigates various perceptions of stakeholders on the initial measures taken to manage and transition the Fagradalsfjall volcanic eruption into a tourist destination. It identifies key concerns and considerations from these stakeholders.

Fagradalsfjall Volcanic Area

The Reykjanes peninsula in South Iceland is part of the Mid-Atlantic Ridge that rises above the North Atlantic Ocean and cuts southwest to northeast across the island of Iceland. It is the boundary of the North American and Eurasian tectonic plates. Regular volcanic activity and glaciers have shaped the landscape over millennia. The mountain range Fagradalsfjall is located within the Gelingadalir valley in the Reykjanes Geopark, one of two geoparks in Iceland. The location of the Fagradalsfjall volcanic eruption in 2021 was uniquely accessible to the public given its relatively close proximity to the airport and capital city compared to previous eruptions. Lava first erupted below the mountain range Fagradalsfjall on 19 March 2021 and ceased to flow as of 18 September 2021. The eruption was briefly active for two weeks in August 2022 in the nearby Meradalir Valley (after the conclusion of this research).

During the initial eruption the Icelandic civil defence Almannavarnir and Icelandic Association for Search and Rescue Landsbjörg (ICE-SAR) took immediate control. From 21 March to 15 September 2021, over 285,000 visitors were recorded as having visited the site (Ferðaþjónustunnar, 2021). A working group with key stakeholders was established to oversee site development of the Fagradalsfjall volcanic area throughout the summer of 2021. The first stage of the process concluded on 30 August 2021 (Bernharðsdóttir, 2021; Tyrie, 2021a). This research collected data on the perceptions of the initial process of transforming this emergent Icelandic tourist site into a sustainable and responsibly managed volcanic tourist destination.

Literature review

The World Tourism Organization (WTO) and United Nations Environment Program's (UNEP) definition of sustainable tourism promotes making optimal use of environmental resources;

respecting social resources; and ensuring viable, long-term economic operations that provide socio-economic benefits fairly (UNEP & WTO 2005). Goodwin (2016), in his definition of responsible tourism, asserts that companies and managers who claim to be operating sustainably and responsibly are liable to be called to account on three specific metrics; their willingness or ability to respond to issues when they arise; their level of assumed obligation, accountability, liability; and their empowerment given to them by stakeholders. This threefold approach to sustainability and responsibility is relevant to the Fagradalsfjall eruption site development. Understanding the perceptions of multiple stakeholders within these metrics of responsible tourism (response, accountability, empowerment) and sustainable management sectors (environment, social, economic) is the basis of this research.

Kristjánsdóttir et al.'s (2017) research indicates that the social dimension is the least integrated dimension of responsible and sustainable tourism management. They find that engaging multiple stakeholder groups can have a positive impact on the planning and decision-making processes. Ólafsdóttir et al. (2018) demonstrates that continual stakeholder consultation is essential to adequately measure and consider impacts of site development. Knox-Hayes et al. (2021) shows that in Iceland this is especially important as the "regulative, normative, cultural, and cognitive institutional structures are in constant interaction with value systems and sustainability conceptions" (p.1). This is seen with the Icelandic civil rights almannaréttur or the 'right to roam' of citizens on private lands embedded in Icelandic culture and policy. Sæþórsdóttir et al. (2020) advocates for consulting stakeholders in developing normative standards for various aspects of development as well. This research attempts to understand "sustainability" within the Icelandic context (Knox-Hayes et al., 2021; McMinn, 1997) and provide data that might improve the chance of tourism development plans for Fagradalsfjall to eventually gaining legitimacy among the population (Kristjánsdóttir et al., 2017).

Research design and methodology

This research collected qualitative data on stakeholder perceptions regarding the development of a sustainable and responsibly managed natural destination at Fagradalsfjall in Iceland. Sixteen stakeholders were interviewed in June and July 2021. The research was conducted using a phenomenological approach in grounded theory (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). An interview protocol was developed to assess perceptions of the process of managing the site and developing the destination. The questions focused on what the different stakeholder groups would like to see for management at the Fagradalsfjall site, who was/is responsible for each item, their perceptions of the current organizational power structures at the volcano, and their perceived role in all of the above.

The stakeholders in this research are 1) municipal actors and representatives; 2) landowners; 3) civil protection and search and rescue; 4) commercial companies and operators; 5) and the Federal Ministry of Tourism and Ministry of Environment and Natural Resources. Scientific voices around volcanology were infused within all categories and not separated out in this research. A snowball sampling method identified 16 interviewees within these groups. Confidential interviews with stakeholders were conducted across four weeks in summer 2021. The interviews averaged 60 minutes. Questioning followed the interview protocol with a semi-structured approach that allowed for clarification.

The data collected from the interview transcripts was analyzed by two researchers using an inductive coding method (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015) to discover first-order keywords. It produced 71 unique inductive codes across 292 quotes. Five central themes were evident across the interviews, with 18 secondary deductive codes, which were then applied across the material. Working from first-order codes to analytical categories, second-order core concepts were analyzed to further develop essential issues having utility in the broader sustainable development conversation. Several perceived challenges and priorities from the stakeholders emerged through the coding of interview data. These were first analyzed using a constant comparative method that compared segments of data across different stakeholder groups numerous times to determine similarities and differences (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015) and then within a framework using the principles of responsible (response, accountability, empowerment) and sustainable (environment, social, economic) tourism (Goodwin, 2016; WTO, 2005).

Results and discussion

Response to issues

Environmental sustainability
The first of Goodwin's (2016) responsible tourism metrics to be assessed was the response to issues for environmental sustainability. Stakeholders generally perceived the need for further action to protect the environment and safety of visitors. Stakeholders perceived the Icelandic government as the main authority and source of funding and hence the entity that should respond to issues. Stakeholders identified that safety was a higher priority than environmental preservation in the earlier period of the eruption. It was recognized that the site was still very hazardous months on and required ongoing monitoring due to towering lava walls at the edge of the lava field, and people walking on the black lava crust. Stakeholders perceived a lack of response to the dangers of the environment, and questioned whether it was responsible to allow tourists to make their own decisions on where and when to visit. There was interest in maintaining the natural experience though to ensure there was no unnecessary impact on the environment. All stakeholder groups identified the need for a better system to limit crowding and environmental impact at the site. As a way to respond to these environmental issues, most suggested charging fees or limiting certain types of tourists to the site through limiting the construction of roads.

Social sustainability
For social sustainability, stakeholders perceptions of the responses to issues were tied to the need for respectful engagement of the individuals setting expectations and restrictions "…rather than trench warfare between stakeholder groups over control mechanisms, there should be more consultation and cooperation". However there was conflicting perceptions of how social guidelines should be interpreted. Some thought that Civil Defence refrained from unnecessarily restricting access to the site initially because they respected almannaréttur, the cultural and legal entitlement of the right to roam, and assumed this social value limited administrative action and control mechanisms. Some stakeholders were more concerned with safety than the right of free access to land, and were happy at the times the civil defence intervened for safety and security. "We can't forget the safety you know...I think that almannaréttur has to be in second place in areas like this".

Economic sustainability
In response to issues of economic sustainability, stakeholders perceived the government responded and allocated financial resources well to the site at first. While acknowledging almannaréttur, the practicality of an income stream going forward from services to protect nature, most felt was necessary. Many stakeholders perceived charging fees as acceptable, an achievable and sustainable response to the funding needs of an emergent tourist site. "We always think here in Iceland that people will not do this if we charge it… but the same Icelanders are going abroad and to the US and they pay to go into the national parks... Everybody thinks that's just a fine [but] Iceland has never tried that". Without a clear response from the government about an ongoing funding mechanism though, it is hard to make management decisions.

Assumed responsibility

Environmental sustainability
The concept of someone, some group, or organization assuming responsibility includes the accepted authority having obligation and liability over certain issues like the environment. Some entity assuming this responsibility is an important metric of responsible tourism management (Goodwin, 2016). In the interviews, it was accepted by all stakeholders that UST had assumed responsibility of monitoring the natural site as of August 2021 alongside a reduced ICE-SAR volunteer squad, and was responsible for enforcing policies to protect the environment, like no off-road driving, in the future. Landowners were also thought to have assumed responsibility for environmental sustainability as well, but it was not as well defined.

Social sustainability
The majority of stakeholders assumed responsibility themselves to ensure social sustainability, particularly the safety of people, at the eruption site. There was confusion however on everyone's roles such as the extent to which safety personnel can be held responsible or can assume responsibility for the actions of tourists. The landowners perceived themselves as responsible for constructing infrastructure and for controlling commercial access to the site for people. Municipal actors and civil defence asserted themselves as responsible for marketing, setting expectations, and safe travelling of visitors. This work can't be done in a vacuum though as government stakeholders spoke about their difficulty in enforcing closures as they interpret the landscape as open and the civil rights almannaréttur meaning that people are free and legally able to access nature when they choose.

Economic sustainability
Stakeholders agreed that assumed responsibility for desired services such as infrastructure, safety, education and information required funding. Landowners accepted some responsibility of the income stream to go toward development through the creation of a parking lot, and for continuing to improve access with roads. UST and ICE- SAR are both funded by the government with the revenue generated through the tax system. Overall though, stakeholders felt that the following aspects of the economic sustainability still required someone to take more responsibility on the following topics: A mechanism to keep commercial actors accountable and to provide an income stream for further community development within the Reykjanes Geopark; finding a sustainable balance for restricting access to natural sites through fees; determining a social tolerance for willingness to pay to access privately-owned natural sites; and hiring specialized staff to manage communications to the public as well as between stakeholders.

Stakeholder empowerment

Finally, the third metric of responsible tourism Goodwin (2016) discusses is stakeholder empowerment which contributes to an ability to effectively respond and take responsibility. In this research stakeholders are categorized as empowered when they perceive themselves as having the right tools and/or support to manage the situation and at least one other stakeholder group expressed a desire for them to manage the project. Uncertainty about the extent to which stakeholders would be liable or accountable for actions or hold others accountable for their actions can lead to disempowerment and reduce their capacity to act.

Environment sustainability
The municipal stakeholders did feel empowered to develop the Geopark for increased tourism, but the overall environmental sustainability of the site might be in jeopardy as

there did not appear to be strong stakeholder empowerment in other stakeholder groups. Landowners indicated that they are uncertain of the liability that comes with being able to charge for services and for ownership of the land. Company stakeholders felt they did not have enough information about hours and services at the site so they can provide their clients with good service.

Social sustainability
All stakeholders expressed that while they felt some empowerment around social sustainability, they would feel more supported and empowered to develop areas under their control if there was an agreed upon roadmap or plan for development. In perceiving an overall lack of management from the government for the future of the site, one company stakeholder suggested that the municipality and Geopark could fill the leadership gap. Municipal stakeholders would also like to see a transfer of power from the federal government to the municipal level once the threat of the natural hazard reduced.

Economic sustainability
Stakeholders seemed to perceive that currently there was limited sustainable economic empowerment. Most of the stakeholders argued that valuable services should be provided in exchange for fees and called for guidance from the government around how to establish sustainable infrastructure and income streams at sites like this. Stakeholder's suggested that transparency and accountability for charging fees is necessary for economic empowerment to occur.

Implications and future research

This research builds upon prior research that documents the success of multi-disciplinary approaches to site consultation and infrastructure development in Iceland (Kristjánsdóttir et al., 2017; Ólafsdóttir et al., 2018). It also provides a real-time account of the active and simultaneous transition of a natural hazard into a managed tourist attraction within the framework of sustainable and responsible tourism development (Goodwin, 2016). The perceptions of management at first were positive but there were issues around economic empowerment in particular that still need to be addressed. The results create a basis for further research into stakeholder perceptions of the challenges in managing emergent destinations that should involve quantitative data collection through survey with a broader group of stakeholders to assist in forming successful policies and strategies.

Conclusion

Continuing to engage stakeholder groups over how best to develop naturally emerging tourist attractions on privately- owned land is essential to developing sustainable and responsible management practice. Stakeholders indicate that the management process so far has been relatively responsible and sustainable but with notable issues. According to stakeholders, transitioning Fagradalsfjall into a sustainable and responsibly managed attraction there needs to be: measures and infrastructure that takes responsibility for tourists rather than letting them make their own decisions, including responsible marketing and communication; development to reflect the needs of a diverse range of markets without compromising the experience of the general visitor population; a restriction of visitors on site to limit the impact on the environment; more enforceability of policy of those in positions of authority; a system and structure in place surrounding fees paid to access natural attractions; accountability measures to incentivize responsible behavior; and continued cooperation and communication between stakeholders involved in or affected by the development.

References

Bernharðsdóttir, B. E. (2021, May 5). Kostnaður ríkisins við uppbyggingu kringum Fagradalsfjall um 40 milljónir. Vísir. https://www.visir.is/g/20212105516d/kostnadur-rikisins-vid-uppbyggingu-kringum- fagradalsfjall-um-40-milljonir

Bird, D., Gísladóttir, G. (2018). Responding to volcanic eruptions in Iceland: from the small to the catastrophic. *Palgrave Communications* 4(1), 151. https://www.nature.com/articles/s41599-018-0205-6

Bird, D., Gísladóttir, G. (2020). Enhancing Tourists' Safety in Volcanic Areas: An Investigation of Risk Communication Initiatives in Iceland. *International Journal of Disaster Risk Reduction*, 50, 101896.

Bird. D., Gisladotti, G., Dominey-Howes D. (2010). Volcanic risk and tourism in southern Iceland: Implications for hazard, risk and emergency response education and training. *Journal of Volcanology and Geothermal Research*, 189(1-2), 33-48.

Buckley, R. (1999). Correspondence: An Ecological Perspective on Carrying Capacity. *Annals of tourism research*, 26(3), 705-708.

Cook, D., Davíðsdóttir, B., & Kristófersson, D. M. (2018a). Willingness to pay for the preservation of geothermal areas in Iceland – The contingent valuation studies of Eldvörp and Hverahlíð. *Renewable Energy*, 116, 97-108.

Cook, D., Eiríksdóttir, K., Davíðsdóttir, B., & Kristófersson, D. M. (2018b). The contingent valuation study of Heiðmörk, Iceland – Willingness to pay for its preservation. *Journal of Environmental Management*, 209, 126-138.

Einarsdóttir, S. R., Cook, D., & Davíðsdóttir, B. (2019). The contingent valuation study of the wind farm Búrfellslundur - Willingness to pay for preservation. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 209, 795-802.

Ferðaþjónustunnar (2021). Gosslóð. Mælaborð ferðaþjónustunnar. Retrieved August 10, 2021, from https://www.maelabordferdathjonustunnar.is/is/gosslod-geldingadalir?fbclid=IwAR3gTpb8dmKl7hrlOrExQJ8kT-X4tg7NpnUEpp2lVUP1h8n292LTe6wGAHk

Goodwin, H. (2016). *Responsible tourism: Using tourism for sustainable development* (2nd ed.). Goodfellow Publishers Limited: Oxford, UK.

Haraldsson, E. (2016). Frumvarp í Pattstöðu. Hvað varð til þess að frumvarp um náttúrupassa hlaut ekki brautargengi? [Bachelor's thesis]. http://hdl.handle.net/1946/25962

Hardy, A., & Pearson, L. J. (2018). Examining stakeholder group specificity: An innovative sustainable tourism approach. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 8, 247-258.

Morgunblaðið (2021). Hálendisþjóðgarði formlega vísað til ríkisstjórnar. Accessed June 12. https://www.mbl.is/frettir/innlent/2021/06/12/halendisthjodgardi_formlega_visad_fra/

Helgadóttir, G., Einarsdóttir, A. V., Burns, G. L., Gunnarsdóttir, G. Þ., & Matthíasdóttir, J. M. (2019). Social sustainability of tourism in Iceland: A qualitative inquiry. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 19(4-5), 404-421.

Kepnes, M. (2021, May 30). Overtourism: How you can help solve this global travel problem. Nomadic Matt's Travel Site. https://www.nomadicmatt.com/travel-blogs/overtourism-solutions/

Knox-Hayes, J., Chandra, S., & Chun, J. (2021). The role of values in shaping sustainable development perspectives and outcomes: A case study of Iceland. *Sustainable Development*. 29(2), 363–377.

Kristjánsdóttir, K. R., Ólafsdóttir, R., & Ragnarsdóttir, K. V. (2017). Reviewing integrated sustainability indicators for tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 26(4), 583-599.

Malinauskaite, L., Cook, D., Davíðsdóttir, B., Ögmundardóttir, H., & Roman, J. (2020). Willingness to pay for expansion of the whale sanctuary in Faxaflói Bay, Iceland: A contingent valuation study. *Ocean & Coastal Management*, 183, 105026.

Merriam, S. B., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. John Wiley & Sons. https://heimkaup.vitalsource.com/books/9781119003601

Ólafsdóttir, R., Sæþórsdóttir, A. D., Noordhuizen, J., & Nijkrake, W. (2018). Sustainable leisure landscapes in Icelandic rural communities: A multidisciplinary approach. *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, 8(4), 54.

Ólafsson, S. O. (2014). Íslensk náttúra í fyrsta sætið - Til að höggva á gjaldtökuhnútinn leggja SAF til náttúrugjald sem innheimt er af gistinóttum. Morgunblaðið. Retrieved August 2, 2021, from https://www.mbl.is/media/93/8393.pdf

Sæþórsdóttir, A. D. (2014). Preserving wilderness at an emerging tourist destination. *Journal of Management and Sustainability*, 4(3).

Sæþórsdóttir, A. D., Hall, C. M., & Wendt, M. (2020). Overtourism in Iceland: Fantasy or reality? *Sustainability*, 12(18), 7375.
Tyrie, O. (2021b). No indication that the eruption will stop any time soon. The Reykjavík Grapevine. (Accessed 10 May 2021). https://grapevine.is/news/2021/05/10/no-indication-that-the-eruption-will- stop-any-time-soon/
United Nations Environment Programme and World Tourism Organization. (2005). *Making tourism more sustainable: A guide for policy makers*. World Tourism Organization Publications. https://wedocs.unep.org/handle/20.500.11822/8741;jsessionid=D86AF6FA19D5F1CB5CC743 B30FE2 5206
Yeoman, A. R., Reigner, N., & Árnason, O. (2019). Þolmarkagreining fyrir Silfru: Köfun og yfirborðsköfun í Þingvallaþjóðgarði (1). Efla. https://www.mbl.is/media/36/11136.pdf
Þórhallsdóttir, G., & Ólafsson, R. (2017). A method to analyze seasonality in the distribution of tourists in Iceland. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 19, 17-24.

2.2. Evaluating the crisis resistance progress from supply-demand perspectives

Zhaoyu Chen | Macao Institute for Tourism Studies, Macau S.A.R.

Abstract

Current studies on impacts of COVID-19 pandemic to tourism industry mainly cover the supply perspective by offering the insights on the measures in coping with the pandemic. Tourists and locals as key consumers to the tourism industry, their opinions are not fully examined in one study, especially when locals are the key source of market to a destination during the crisis. While, crisis management has to be examined in a continuous monitoring process, with most studies on pandemic focus on during-crisis phase. Using a qualitative approach, this study comprehensively reviews the crisis resistance progress through consolidating both supply and demand perspectives in three stages (pre-, during- and post-crisis). The findings can provide consolidated insights for both tourism suppliers and customers to understand how these relevant stakeholders are affected by, respond to and recover on crisis during the different stages of the pandemic.

Keywords: Crisis resistance; Crisis phase; Supply-demand; Covid-19; Macao

Introduction

Tourism, a close socio-economic connected industry, one of the top leading areas which offers job opportunities and livelihood support that seriously suffered from the COVID-19 pandemic, especially the severe economic impacts to those countries and cities which heavily rely on (McCartney, 2021). An increasing number of tourism and hospitality studies have highlighted the COVID-19 impacts to individual business (Potts, 2020) or group properties (Pavlatos, Kostakis, & Digkas, 2021). Such impacts include but not limited to low business rates (Jones & Comfort, 2020), job loss (Statista Research Department, 2022), depressive staff psychological states (Chela-Alvarez et al., 2022), public event cancellation (UNESCO, 2020) and closure of public institutions like museum (Agostino, Arnaboldi, & Lampis, 2020). Many studies have explored the possible strategies on business recovery using the practices cross nations accordingly (Chanyasak et al., 2021; Seetharaman, 2020). There is a dramatic change for both businesses and consumers from both supply and demand perspective (Donthu & Gustafsson, 2020).

From supply perspectives, the strategies focus on recovering the customer confidence by highlighting the improved quality of service (Nilashi et al., 2021), physical health precaution measurements like hygiene condition inspection (Pavlatos et al., 2021), digital marketing and communication (Barbe & Pennington-Gray, 2018; Wang, Hong, Li, & Gao, 2020) and manpower rearrangement (Loi, Lei, & Lourenço, 2021). Most studies of COVID-19 in tourism industry focus on hotel industry and its sustainability (Alonso et al., 2020; Jones & Comfort, 2020; Pavlatos et al., 2021), probably because hotel industry is a service dominant industry where the social interactions happened heavily and being influenced seriously because of the sudden event. Studies focus on exploring the business model adaptation to hotel business (Seetharaman, 2020). In reality, other tourism related areas including the retails and cultural agencies where tourists involve are also affected

(Pantano et al., 2020; UNESCO, 2020). There is lack of a study which comprehensively consolidating the crisis management strategies by considering all these different tourism related industries in one.

From demand perspectives, people get adapted to the behavior patterns like wearing a mask and maintain social distance, being positively response to the norm (Donthu & Gustafsson, 2020). Customers wonder the possibility to return to normal or travelling without compromising their experience (Y. Hao, Bai, & Sun, 2021), or alternative ways of experiencing as before like staycation (Lin et al., 2021). Customers' consumption pattern is significantly shaped (Yan, Shen, & Hu, 2022), so as their attitudes. Especially for tourists, their risk perception also determines the future demand critically (Sigala, 2020). However, to what extent customer attitudes and behaviors are revealed in tourism context is under researched. Even though some views on demand perspective are covered, studied focus on investigating the view of tourists, but not the locals, for instance, exploring the impacts on tourists' emotional responses on the price due to the COVID-19 (Zhang, Hou, & Li, 2020). A few studies have explored the local consumers' purchase patterns (Valaskova, Durana, & Adamko, 2021), however, such discussions are not covered in the service domains in tourism context. Studies on locals' consumption is only discovered in the raising pattern of staycation on exploring their wellbeing (Yan et al., 2022). In fact, locals have strong purchasing power, probably the main source of market due to the pandemic (Lin et al., 2021), but their crisis responses are missing from the view of customers in tourism research.

Using the case of Macao, this study aims to consolidate both supply and demand perspectives on the evaluation of the pandemic in all stages of crisis management (including pre-crisis, crisis and post-crisis). In details, the study seeks to answer: 1) what are the suppliers' efforts in coping with the COVID-19 in all stages of crisis management; 2) what are the customers' (including both tourists and locals) preferences and changes cross the crisis phases? and 3) how do the supply-demand perspectives shape the future trends in providing and consuming the tourism resources after the pandemic?

Stages of Crisis Management

A crisis is an unexpected circumstance that disrupts business operations and brings unexpected threats to various parties involving in both supply and demand perspectives (Coombs, 2007). Tracking the trend of the COVID-19 pandemic, there is a growing interest in proposing the crisis management model in various industries (Alonso et al., 2020; Alves et al., 2020; F. Hao, Xiao, & Chon, 2020). It is commonly agreed that there are three main phases of crisis management including pre-crisis which focuses on the risk assessment and crisis resistance planning; crisis phase which manage to mitigate the impacts; and post-crisis in summarizing the experience learnt from the crisis (Coombs & Laufer, 2018).

Majority of the current studies related to COVID-19 focus on the (during-) crisis phases (Pavlatos et al., 2021). Numerous studies have covered the crisis resistant strategies (Burhan et al., 2021; Le & Phi, 2021), it is advocated that crisis resistant strategy has to continue adjusting while the pandemic exists (Lai & Wong, 2020). That means, while the crisis is ongoing, the continuous monitoring on the situations and strategic responses have to be up to date. However, there is lack of studies capturing the changes crossing the crisis periods (Lai & Wong, 2020). It is timely to review the details and changes of preferences from both suppliers and customers cross the crisis stages.

Supply-demand Perspectives

Studies tend to explore the current stage in anti-COVID-19 pandemic (Pavlatos et al., 2021), especially the views of business owners and managers' perceptions and behave during the crisis (Garrido-Moreno, García-Morales, & Martín-Rojas, 2021; Giousmpasoglou, Marinakou,

& Zopiatis, 2021; Yacoub & ElHajjar, 2020), or even compare the top management's different opinions on the consequences to the industry cross countries (Shapoval et al., 2021). They tend to explore on how the pandemic affects the hotel managerial changes on the operational strategies while maintaining hotel customers' experience (Bonfanti, Vigolo, & Yfantidou, 2021). Others have also identified the factors affecting business recovery, including government support, cordial relationships with stakeholders, self-determination of entrepreneurs and formal planning (Burhan et al., 2021). It is encouraged that other stakeholders' view should be supplemented to better understand the strategic measures in recovering hotel industry (Le & Phi, 2021); that is, business activities (Chanyasak et al., 2021), employees' psychological states and customer engagement (Jung, Jung, & Yoon, 2021; Sigala, 2020) are also critical concerns. What's more, crisis management on COVID-19 is more effective and essential to the service-oriented sectors where there are public engagement in the service domains. Therefore, not only the tourism and hospitality service domains, but also some cultural domains where the public visited also concern the most on the crisis management. However, there is lack of research on exploring multiple tourism industry sectors on their crisis responses in one and the view of demand is limited in the context of Macao.

The view of customers, that is the demand perspective, on their willingness and consumption preference is relatively under exploited. Kock et al. (2020) attempted to understand the impact of the pandemic on tourists' psyche, but such view is only limited to the "during" crisis phase. It is hard to track the evaluation on the tourist' psychological states along the crisis phases. Also, tourists' view is only one angle of the demanders. Locals' view is not yet covered. There is lack of a comprehensive view by consolidating the customers cross industries. The comparison of customers' perceptions on the impacts of the pandemic is also needed (Bonfanti et al., 2021). It is confirmed that service providers has to continuous adjusting its products and serviced based on the customers' feedbacks (Sun et al., 2021). Therefore, it is essential to compare the views of customers into the service design by considering the different industries' practice.

Methodology

In order to explore both supply and demand perspectives on their crisis management, a wide range of suppliers are invited including the staffs working at both operational and managerial levels in various tourism related industries like hotels, retails and visitor attractions that cover a comprehensive view on the crisis planning and encountered challenges and predictions. The demand perspective covers both locals and tourists' views as customers to the above-mentioned tourism sectors as their views also significantly shape the way how the supplier adjusts their development plan. In addition, the continuous stages of crisis are examined as to see how the crisis management and its strategies are adjusted over time. There are totally 58 interviewees within which 27 interviewees from the supply perspectives and 12 local customers and 19 tourists from the demand perspective.

Since the research is planned to explore in-depth the impact of the COVID-19 pandemic on each individual business and customers, the semi-structured interviews are most appropriate in social sciences as to provoke extended opinion sharing and provide exploratory information (Magaldi & Berler, 2020). The interview questions are organized in a chronological sequence covering the pre-, during- and post-crisis situations when informants are asked to reflect on their experiences and opinions. NVivo 12 is used for analyzing the transcripts and (sub-)theme development through coding methods (e.g., open coding, axial coding and selective coding) (Williams & Moser, 2019).

Findings and Discussion

Supply Perspective

Pre-crisis Stage

Almost all informants reflected that there is no crisis management plan in responses to infectious diseases, at least, the staff at the operational level had no ideas on the notice about such plan. Majority of the crisis management plan is related to measures on common emergencies, such as, the staff settlement on bad weathers (e.g., typhoon), the strategies on pacifying the customers or dealing with customers' cancellation or complaint (e.g., food poisoning). In other special emergency situation, the company applies a top-down approach and inform the staff on the contingency plan case by case.

For other tourism sectors like retail and cultural institutions, there is also no crisis management plan, even the crisis management experience is less compared to the hospitality field, because hospitality industry is considered more human-oriented with diverse situations of customer encounters.

During-crisis Stage

Since the pandemic has lasted for more than two years, the business managers have deeply realized the importance of crisis management and resistant measures (focus on hygiene concerns) when the tourism industry suffered with a dramatic decline in business. The business learnt a systematic mechanism in dealing with the crisis related to infectious diseases and the standard operating procedures as to cope with the unstable fluctuated situation on COVID-19.

As a positive reactive way to the crisis, the business realized the importance in training the capable staff to deal with the crisis as needed, and certain incentives are given to motivate the outstanding performance. Adversely, as a passive reaction to the crisis, the business managers have to cut the manpower or force the staff to take unpaid leave, recruit part-time staff, etc. As a consequence, the employees have to suffer with intense working pace and tasks and under psychological stress of losing insights on the career future.

For retail business, there is a serious impact on the supplier chain in providing the goods for sell as they rarely have crisis management plans. Some business owners cannot proceed the purchase by travelling to the place of supply. They have to maintain their supply indirect chain with increased cost, which seriously affect their business earns. As a consequence, the retailing business has to seek for alternative ways to promote the sales. Quite a lot of the purchasing is realized online. The target market has to change to locals. Similar recovery strategies are applied in museums as majority of the events and international collaboration are suspended and have to switch to the online exhibitions and courses.

Post-crisis Stage

Suppliers predicted the business situation after the pandemic as customers probably shop for revenge so as to compensate their loss during the crisis that travel with restrictions. Employees are ready to serve the customers when the global market is re-opened. Majority of the suppliers have stated their creative plans in recovering the business through promotion schemes (e.g., membership, discount, coupon). With the experience learnt, many suppliers agreed on employee's capability building in terms of their feasibility in task rotation, responsive manner, working under pressure and the improved service standard. In the long term, the staff management is critical in coping with the crisis. In addition, crisis management is proved as important in the business organization. With the aim of reducing the risk of infection from outbreaks, technology is applied in reducing the human interactions, such as, artificial intelligent in hotels and restaurants in reducing the tedious steps on check-in, taking order or food delivery, contactless check-out, etc. The application of automated service is highlighted as a way to improve the service quality, even though it is confirmed that the necessity of involving human touch in service scene.

Demand perspectives

Pre-crisis Stage

There is no specific distinction among locals and tourists who are experiencing the different tourism sectors. Before the pandemic, majority of the hotel guests focus on the availability and quality of the facilities they are going to experience when they choose a hotel, followed by location and hygiene concerns, price and hotel service. Even the hygiene concerns are mentioned, the focus is on how such cleaning of the rooms affect the guests' comfortable staying in the hotel. Museum goers tend to focus on the themes of exhibitions. Locals spend on daily necessity at most.

During-crisis Stage

The hotel guests have an obvious change on their considering factors in choosing a hotel by focusing more on the service. As confirmed from the suppliers' perspective, an increased service quality is provided, guests tend to feel and appreciate the detailed service they received.

The discount product packages are a strong incentive to tourists and locals in purchasing local hotel room and its associated service and product and compensating their needs for travelling, especially when staycation is emerging travel pattern among local customers (Yan, Shen, & Hu, 2022). In particular, when Macao government launched the electronic consumption benefit scheme which comprises of a start-up fund and an immediate discount grant (Macao News, 2023). Locals are motivated to spend more money in the daily consumption. Hygiene concern is still a critical component when customers choose a hotel, however, the focus is not simply about the cleaning of the basic facility for comfortable staying before the crisis. It is extended to the focus on the healthy concerns and the distance control. Retail customers reported a trend of online shopping as the key concern of the pandemic. Museum goers instead are happier with the current less crowd visitation to the exhibition, which left them more space for enjoyment. It is worth mentioning that customers or visitors didn't change their preferences that much, even though there is a switch on the concerns of the above.

Post-crisis Stage

Majority of the customers are optimistic to the situation after the pandemic. Especially when the customers have been stuck in one place. The willingness to travel around is urging. However, the severity of the disease has a profound impact on people's behaviors and cautions in dealing with any potential threats that may threaten the health condition. With the past experience being carefully served during the crisis, customers tend to highlight the importance of service standard in sustaining their level of satisfaction. As retail industry is highly related to tourism and hospitality, customers also have an increased demand to shop. However, for museum area, with the assistance from the digital technology, online exhibitions become familiar to visitors. The museum goers are also expected to see more high-tech applications to make the exhibitions more interesting and engaging.

Conclusion and Implications

This study has concluded that both service providers of different tourism sectors and customers/locals have gone through an evolving process of changing perceptions and experience with the crisis of the COVID-19. It also reflects how service providers as the suppliers has adjusted its strategies in coping with the pandemic and improving its service standard. This study contributes to the research on crisis management by considering both the supply and demand perspectives and emphasized the importance of looking at the different stages of crisis management in a continuous manner as to understand the process on how both suppliers and customers adapt their production and consumption patterns during unprecedented crisis conditions.

Tourism suppliers lack of experience dealing with infectious diseases and almost no crisis management plan before the crisis, which is more reactive to follow the government or management instructions. However, during the long period of anti-epidemic measures and continuous efforts in recovering the business, suppliers keep a cautious control on the daily sanitation and hygiene management and take this opportunity to optimize the internal management (including the staff training). A better service quality is the key to remain the loyal customers. It is also exactly what the customers feel about the enhancement of the service quality which also influences the ways how they consume after the crisis. As such, it demonstrates the success of the service providers in adjusting its marketing strategies in the right direction. With the assistance of the technology, a more accessible and improved service is available for the customers. It is also what the future service suppliers consider when new product is launched to attract more potential customers.

Starting from the outbreak of the pandemic, quite a lot of research have covered the impact, behavior and experience of tourism demand, supply and decision makers (Sigala (2020), even they cover the insights on the prediction of the situation after the pandemic (Hao et al., 2020). However, the actual performance of the situation in the post-crisis stage is still unclear. It is suggested that the future research can consider exploring both customers' actual purchasing behaviors and the efforts from the service suppliers in recovering its business in the post-crisis stages. Comparative studies are also suggested to continue investigating the role of suppliers from different service sectors and the customers on the above topics while identifying the difference between the prediction and actual reflections. The result can form a reliable reference for future crisis management in continuous stages.

References

Agostino, D., Arnaboldi, M., & Lampis, A. (2020). Italian state museums during the COVID-19 crisis: from onsite closure to online openness. *Museum Management and Curatorship,* 35(4), 362-372.

Alonso, A. D., Kok, S. K., Bressan, A., O'Shea, M., Sakellarios, N., Koresis, A., . . . Santoni, L. J. (2020). COVID-19, aftermath, impacts, and hospitality firms: An international perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 91. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102654

Alves, J. C., Lok, T. C., Luo, Y., & Hao, W. (2020). Crisis challenges of small firms in Macao during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Frontiers of Business Research in China*, 14(26). doi:10.1186/s11782-020-00094-2

Barbe, D., & Pennington-Gray, L. (2018). Using situational crisis communication theory to understand Orlando Hotels' twitter response to three crises in the summer of 2016. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Insights*, 1(3), 258–275.

Bonfanti, A., Vigolo, V., & Yfantidou, G. (2021). The impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on customer experience design: The hotel managers' perspective. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.102871

Burhan, M., Salam, M. T., Hamdan, O. A., & Tariq, H. (2021). Crisis management in the hospitality sector SMEs in Pakistan during COVID-19. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 98. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.103037

Chanyasak, T., Koseoglu, M. A., King, B., & Aladag, O. F. (2021). Business model adaptation as a strategic response to crises: navigating the COVID-19 pandemic. *International Journal of Tourism Cities*. doi:10.1108/IJTC-02-2021-0026

Chela-Alvarez, X., Leiva, A., Gallardo-Alfaro, L., Bulilete, O., Vidal-Thomas, M., & Llobera, J. (2022). Anxiety, Depression, and Concern About Employment Status of Hotel Housekeepers in the Balearic Islands During the COVID-19 Pandemic: A Longitudinal Study. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 13. doi:10.3389/fpsyg.2022.842335

Coombs, W. T. (2007). Protecting organization reputations during a crisis: The development and application of Situational Crisis Communication Theory. *Corporate Reputation Review*, 10(3), 163-176.
Coombs, W. T., & Laufer, D. (2018). Global Crisis Management – Current Research and Future Directions. *Journal of International Management*, 24(3), 199-203.
Donthu, N., & Gustafsson, A. (2020). Effects of COVID-19 on business and research. *Journal of Business Research*, 117, 284–289.
Garrido-Moreno, A., García-Morales, V. J., & Martín-Rojas, R. (2021). Going beyond the curve: Strategic measures to recover hotel activity in times of COVID-19. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 96. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2021.102928
Giousmpasoglou, C., Marinakou, E., & Zopiatis, A. (2021). Hospitality managers in turbulent times: the COVID-19 crisis. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33(4), 1297-1318.
Hao, F., Xiao, Q., & Chon, K. (2020). COVID-19 and China's Hotel Industry: Impacts, a Disaster Management Framework, and Post-Pandemic Agenda. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 90. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102636
Hao, Y., Bai, H., & Sun, S. (2021). How does COVID-19 affect tourism in terms of people's willingness to travel? Empirical evidence from China. *Tourism Review*, 76(4), 892-909.
Jones, P., & Comfort, D. (2020). The COVID-19 crisis and sustainability in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(10), 3037-3050.
Jung, H. S., Jung, Y. S., & Yoon, H. H. (2021). COVID-19: The effects of job insecurity on the job engagement and turnover intent of deluxe hotel employees and the moderating role of generational characteristics. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 92. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102703
Kock, F., Nørfelt, A., Josiassen, A., Assaf, A. G., & Tsionas, M. G. (2020). Understanding the COVID-19 tourist psyche: The Evolutionary Tourism Paradigm. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 85, 103053.
Lai, I. K. W., & Wong, J. W. C. (2020). Comparing crisis management practices in the hotel industry between initial and pandemic stages of COVID-19. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(10), 3135-3156.
Le, D., & Phi, G. (2021). Strategic responses of the hotel sector to COVID-19: Toward a refined pandemic crisis management framework. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102808
Lin, Z., Wong, I. K. A., Kou, I. T. E., & Zhen, X. (2021). Inducing wellbeing through staycation programs in the midst of the COVID-19 crisis. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 40. doi:10.1016/j.tmp.2021.100907
Loi, K. I., Lei, W. S., & Lourenço, F. (2021). Understanding the reactions of government and gaming concessionaires on COVID-19 through the neo-institutional theory: The case of Macao. *International Journal of Hospitality Management,* 94. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102755
Macao News. (2023). No electronic consumption benefit scheme for Macao this year. Retrieved from https://macaonews.org/economy/no-electronic-consumption-benefit-scheme-for-macao-this-year/
Magaldi, D., & Berler, M. (2020). Semi-structured Interviews. In V. Zeigler-Hill & T. K. Shackelford (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of Personality and Individual Differences* (pp. 4825–4830). Cham: Springer.
McCartney, G. (2021). The impact of the coronavirus outbreak on Macao. From tourism lockdown to tourism recovery. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(19), 2683-2692.
Nilashi, M., Abumalloh, R. A., Alghamdi, A., Minaei-Bidgoli, B., Alsulami, A. A., Thanoon, M., . . . Samad, S. (2021). What is the impact of service quality on customers' satisfaction during COVID-19 outbreak? New findings from online reviews analysis. *Telematics and Informatics*, 64. doi:10.1016/j.tele.2021.101693
Pantano, E., Pizzi, G., Scarpi, D., & Dennis, C. (2020). Competing during a pandemic? Retailers' ups and downs during the COVID-19 outbreak. *Journal of Business Research*, 116, 209-213.
Pavlatos, O., Kostakis, H., & Digkas, D. (2021). Crisis management in the Greek hotel industry in response to COVID-19 pandemic. *Anatolia*, 32(1), 80-92.
Potts, T. (2020). The J. Paul Getty Museum during the coronavirus crisis. *Museum Management and Curatorship*, 35(3), 217-220.
Seetharaman, P. (2020). Business models shifts: Impact of Covid-19. *International Journal of Information Management*, 54. doi:10.1016/j.ijinfomgt.2020.102173

Shapoval, V., H¨agglund, P., Pizam, A., Abraham, V., Carlb¨ack, M., Nygren, T., & Smith, R. M. (2021). The COVID-19 pandemic effects on the hospitality industry using social systems theory: A multi-country comparison. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94. doi:10.1016/j.ijhm.2020.102813
Sigala, M. (2020). Tourism and COVID-19: Impacts and implications for advancing and resetting industry and research. *Journal of Business Research*, 117, 312-321.
Statista Research Department. (2022). Unemployment worldwide - Statistics & Facts. Retrieved from https://www.statista.com/topics/9225/unemployment-worldwide/
Sun, S., Jiang, F., Feng, G., Wang, S., & Zhang, C. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 on hotel customer satisfaction: evidence from Beijing and Shanghai in China. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 34(1), 382-406.
UNESCO. (2020). Museums around the World in the Face of COVID-19. Retrieved from https://cimam.org/documents/102/Museums_around_the_world_in_the_face_of_COVID-19_-_UNESCO_Biblioteca_Digital.pdf
Valaskova, K., Durana, P., & Adamko, P. (2021). Changes in Consumers' Purchase Patterns as a Consequence of the COVID-19 Pandemic. *Mathematics*, 9(15), 1788.
Wang, Y., Hong, A., Li, X., & Gao, J. (2020). Marketing innovations during a global crisis: A study of China firms' response to COVID-19. *Journal of Business Research*, 116, 214-220.
Williams, M., & Moser, T. (2019). The art of coding and thematic exploration in qualitative research. *International Management Review*, 15(1), 45-55.
Yacoub, L., & ElHajjar, S. (2020). How do hotels in developing countries manage the impact of COVID-19? The case of Lebanese hotels. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33(3), 929-948.
Yan, Q., Shen, H., & Hu, Y. (2022). "A home away from hem": Exploring and assessing hotel staycation as the new normal in the Covid-19 era. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 34(4), 1607-1628.
Zhang, K., Hou, Y., & Li, G. (2020). Threat of infectious disease during an outbreak: Influence on tourists' emotional responses to disadvantaged price inequality. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 84, 102993.

2.3. Small tourism: Local, localism, neolocal, and a view toward regeneration

Kathleen Scherf | Thompson Rivers University, Canada

Abstract

Adventures in Small Tourism presents academic studies and personal stories about small tourism. Small tourism, especially creative tourism, not only reduces the actual and potential negative impact of guests on local culture but actively seeks to strengthen and revive local communities by weaving together the experiences of guest and host. Participatory, respectful, and celebratory methods and manners of tourism, rooted in community and cultural networks, has the potential to strengthen cultural bonds, support economic development, and increase sustainability. Focusing on the provision of small-scale creative tourism experiences, Adventures in Small Tourism explores possibilities for local empowerment through community-based tourism. With stories and studies from Italy, Portugal, Colombia, Japan, Australia, and beyond, this collection tells stories of visitors and residents coming together to co-create place in walks and workshops, gastronomy and art, festivals, markets, and more. This is a book that dares to ask what the future can be.

Keywords: Small tourism; Regenerative tourism; Local tourism; Sustainable tourism; Creative tourism

The context for small

Small tourism is hardly a new phenomenon. Retreats, safaris, voluntourism, and adventure are all activities that demand very focussed experiences, visitor numbers, and restricted location. Recently, small tourism as a specific genre of tourism has been profiled as a reaction and alternative to over-tourism. Over-tourism is poignantly demonstrated in international cities like Amsterdam and Barcelona, whose various tourism councils have developed plans to decentralize the physical impact of visitors in their central core, where the overwhelming numbers of visitors have had a hand in barriocide, or the death of neighbourhoods, to which residents often react negatively.

Over-tourism wreaks havoc on both physical and cultural sustainability, as my 2021 edited volume, *Creative Tourism in Smaller Places* discussed. The sustainability of physical infrastructures is often threatened by mass tourism, reducing the ability of locals to live comfortably in their neighbourhoods. Local tenants can sometimes no longer afford to live in their community, as landlords may prefer to use their buildings to provide relatively expensive short-term accommodation for tourists, thus both increasing costs and decreasing housing stock. Small tourism can offer what over-tourism apparently does not: a manageable and sustainable development tool for any local infrastructure and its tangible cultural assets.

Preserving the endogenous culture's intangible assets is also a sustainable development goal and tourism has been affected by the desire to support and sustain local cultures. Large tourism practices encourage the "tourist gaze" described by John Urry in the 1990s and vividly expressed in popular culture by the American "Rick Steeves' Europe" television programs, in which tourists are guided to basically consume—or gaze upon—a popular destination's tangible cultural assets. But small tourism, specifically creative tourism, not only reduces negative guest impact on local culture, but actually seeks to strengthen and revive cultural practices by weaving together the experiences of guest and host. As the experience economy seeped into the tourism industry at the turn of this century, visitors began to seek memorable and transformative experiences when travelling, experiences in which they did not merely gaze and graze the tangible, but rather in which they could engage with the intangible cultural assets of place.

In the 2021 book I mentioned previously, we asked "in what ways are creativity and place-based tourism co-engaged to aid sustainable cultural development in smaller communities? (3). We defined "creative tourism" as

> an experiential subset of cultural tourism that demonstrates four characteristics: 1) it involves the transfer of culture-based, place-specific endogenous knowledge to the visitor; 2) it includes the experiential participation of the visitor in activities that embody such knowledge; 3) it operates in a collaborative paradigm in some manner; and 4) it demonstrates a longer view beyond the actual tourist experience toward the host community's cultural sustainability. (p. 4-5)

At that time, I focussed on small communities that offered creative tourism experiences. As scholars such as Greg Richards and Nancy Duxbury have observed, creative tourism was growing in popularity before COVID-19. Now, two years later, we are facing a new reality. In addition to its roles in supporting tangible and intangible sustainable development, the importance of small tourism has become heightened in the wake of COVID-19 and the havoc the pandemic has wreaked on the tourism industry. While it is completely unlikely that mass tourism will ever disappear, it does seem that, taken together, the pandemic, the consumer drift toward more personalized tourism, and the unsustainability of mass tourism, have created a perfect storm for the advance of small tourism enterprises. While small tourism experiences have of course been extant in various forms, I am suggesting in my new volume, Adventures in Small Tourism: Studies and Stories (University of Calgary Press, 2023), that the profile of small has been heightened, and as such provides opportunities that are good for communities and good for visitors.

How small is small?

In this volume, we focus the provision of small-scale creative tourism experiences which are thematically rooted in the specific location which hosts them. We understand these providers to be micro-enterprises that offer locally-based experiences highlighting tangible and intangible cultural assets to either small groups of people or to individuals, in specific limited destinations, such as urban neighbourhoods, or in rural contexts, or at peripheral locations. They concentrate on local cultural assets, both tangible and intangible. As defined by the European Commission, micro-enterprises are independent businesses (to be clear, we also consider non-for-profit organizations) that employ fewer than 10 people, and whose annual balance sheet does not exceed EUR 2 million, or somewhere around $2,800,000 CAD. Every tourism provider represented in the book can be defined as a micro-enterprise. Further, micro-tourism enterprises generally share a philosophy, which Jonathan Yachnin described in 2020:

> Tourism micro-firms typically design and deliver experiences that are based on local nature and culture and which involve other local actors. Through their operations, tourism micro-firms help to protect, maintain and communicate the essence of the place. Thus, tourism micro-firms have a meaningful contribution to the economic, social and environmental wellbeing of their localities. Their role is particularly significant in rural areas, where tourism is often seen as a development strategy, and micro-firms hold the potential to generate activity.

Our consideration of the number of guests served, as opposed to the size of the providers, is a little more difficult to categorize so succinctly as small. In terms of numbers, the book examines cases that serve from one to about 25 participants. A couple of chapters do not actually discuss numbers of tourists, but rather address what we might term "niche" markets, groups that are sometimes difficult to identify, or that are not a marketing target, such as gay travellers in rural British Columbia. In this volume, we consider a niche group of the travelling public as "small."

Finally, we come to the most contested element of small tourism: what counts as a small destination? The concept of a "micro-destination" is attractive, but Hernández-Martín et al (2014), clearly distinguish a micro-destination as a place that services tourists, quite apart from residents. The authors in this volume very much see small destinations as facilitating the connections between resident, visitor, and place. They view small tourism as community-based, or as local tourism. In their book *Reinventing the Local in Tourism: Producing, Consuming and Negotiating Place*, Russo and Richards (2016) set out characteristics of local tourism, which they correlate with the "creative turn" in tourism. Local tourism can mean that any place might be a destination, not only its flagship infrastructure cultural attractions. A community itself may determine what is noteworthy to share with visitors, based on its everyday culture and, most importantly, grounded in local points of connection between visitors and residents that occur in spaces, activities, and in social constructions. Local becomes more of an idea than of a geographically-bounded area. As Freya Higgins-Desbiolles and Bobbi Chew Bigby suggest (2022), a "local turn" in tourism studies allows us to "reconceptualize the local," and empower the community to define, express, and offer itself to guests. The local, after all, is more than a host community or a destination. They explain:

> In our articulation of the local community as the linchpin of the local turn, we mean more than just a certain group of people associated with a place. Instead, we are more broadly inclusive of the local community, the local ecology (living air, land and waterscapes and more-than-human beings) and all generations pertaining to that place (including future ones). Using this broader articulation of the local opens up potential for enlivening forms of tourism. (p. 2)

Not just a rural town, not just an urban neighbourhood, and not just a small city can be a point of connection in small tourism. It can be a corner, a monument, a cemetery, a shop, or the knowledge of how to create a traditional craft, food, or how to carry out work that is endemic to the life of those who live locally. It can be a small arts festival, or a community center. It can be a farmers' market. It can be any small thing that expresses the sense of place for locals and that, when that cultural asset intersects with the community's desire to engage in tourism, results in creative tourism experiences that are sustainable, that are rooted in local nature and culture, and that strengthen, not deplete, the community's sense of place and its local culture. So, in our study, a small tourism destination is a point at which locals, through micro-enterprises, have decided to share their place with a small number of visitors at one time. Almost inevitably, the tourism experiences we examine exhibit all the features of creative tourism, with a view toward how the practice of small providers offering small numbers of guests a community-based experience can contribute to sustainable development in the current reality.

Observations

In the context of what I have just shared, I would like to share some of the themes that emerged from our research. The ten chapters form five sets, first an academic study, and then a practitioner's story. The idea, of course, is to link research and practice, and have them inform each other.

Small tourism: Supporting diversity outside the mainstream

Our first study, "The Development of Inclusive Small Rural Destinations for Gay Tourists in Canada," is joined by its companion story, "Rajzefiber: A Community Hub for Small Tourism in the Small City of Maribor, Slovenia." The first explores perceptions of tourism in small rural communities in the interior of British Columbia, Canada, both from visitor and from destination marketing organizations' perspectives. More than 8,000 kilometers to the east, the story takes readers through the concept, establishment, and activities of a micro-tourism enterprise in Slovenia. Both chapters are set in areas known for winter and summer outdoor tourism activities as well as for adventure tourism. As both sets of authors point out, the tourism marketing agencies for both the districts in question slant heavily toward such activities. So, they are of little assistance in promoting small tourism enterprises to niche groups like gay men or urban visitors who might be attracted to small towns outside Llubljana.

In both cases, the need for DMOs and other tourist promotion organizations to assist with marketing and promotion to niche tourists outside the mainstream of what is generally promoted is required. Both chapters also emphasize that social inclusion is desirable effect of small tourism, the first chapter in terms of feeling at home in a destination community, and the second in terms of local authenticity of tourism product. The need for social inclusion of both residents and visitors is highlighted. Including residents and visitors in shared enterprises is a challenge, although it always sounds very good in the scholarship of creative tourism in smaller places. In Maribor, the authors share how much effort they put into establishing community-led tourism planning, of establishing credibility with residents, and in forming partnerships with other community organizations. While micro-tourism enterprises and tourists who engage with them clearly make a choice alternative to mainstream tourism, in order to be sustainable and to contribute to their small communities, such enterprises need support to consistently attract the niche groups to which they cater.

Small tourism: Altruism, education, and restoring culture of place

The broader understanding of "local" articulated by Higgins-Desbiolles and Bigby discussed above allows us to think of a place as including its history and its landscape. This definition of local is particularly relevant to the two chapters that comprise our second set of study and story. In the study "Sustaining Castello Sonnino: Small Tourism in a Tuscan Village," we are introduced to Castello Sonnino, an ancient wine estate in a small Tuscan village, a place where the restoration of old traditions between the village, the land, and the residents is linked to educational tourism through the Sonnino family's micro-tourism enterprise, the Sonnino International Education Centre (SIEC). The theme of expressing a local sense of place through cultural and ecological restoration and education reverberates in "Revealing the Restorers: Small Tourism in Restored Lands in the Noongar Traditional Area of the Fitz-Stirling in South-Western Australia," a story about the people who have been restoring land and its relationship to Indigenous cultures disturbed over three decades of government-sponsored agricultural development. These restorers are also micro-enterprise providers of educational tourism. In maintaining and restoring both mezzadria (the linkage of land, resident, community—a living landscape) in Italy and the boodja (the combined entity of land and Noongar culture) in Australia, both sets of providers, who have taken on their endeavours as family units, work on the local scale, integrating practices of sustainable economy, ecology, culture, and society. They bring in guests to educate them about the integration of the local landscape and culture, in hopes that highlighting their preservation efforts will benefit the local community and contribute to the sustainability of its traditional way of life, while at the same time providing a transformative travel experience. Small creative tourism optimizes experiential potential for tourists, so the size of visitor groups is kept small, and the pace is slow, which in turn reduces the negative impacts often caused by larger tourism.

Small tourism: Sustaining local culture and social inclusion in urban neighbourhoods

Neighbourhoods in cities are often understood to be destinations for tourists: the red light district in Amsterdam, Gastown in Vancouver, or El Gotico in Barcelona. However, neighbourhoods in which residents actually live are not only geographical units of cities, but they also contain elements of the local as described by Higgins-Desbiolles and Bigby. Indeed, tourists seeking immersion in local culture will look for the smaller nooks and crannies of cities, in hopes of engaging in authentic experiences on a human—or small—scale. The DMO for Copenhagen, in fact, bases its entire campaign on this idea through the concept of "localhood." Both chapters in this set explore small tourism in neighbourhoods of larger urban centers. The study examines how a neighbourhood cultural association is actually an actor in local tourism in "The Role of Cultural Associations in the Promotion of Small Tourism and Social Inclusion in the Neighbourhood of Bonfim, Oporto: the Case of Casa Bô." In their story of creating local tourism experiences in "Small Tourism in a Big City: The Story of 5Bogota," the authors show how their experience as a tourism micro-enterprise reflects many of the themes the study identifies, most notably how locals have taken control of the tourism experiences their own neighbourhood offers. In exploring the creation of tourism in these small locales in Oporto and Bogota, we see strands of the neolocalism investigated by Ingram, Slocum, and Cavaliere in 2020. Slocum explains:

> Neolocalism involves the crafting of the tourism product that reflects the culture, history, and value system inherent in a destination. Neolocalism is defined as 'the reaction of individuals and groups to consciously establish, rebuild, and cultivate local ties, local identities, and local economies' (Shortridge 1996:10). (p. 208)

In this deliberate decision to circumvent the traditional tropes of tourism, and in the political decision to take the sharing and consumption of their own locale into their own hands, residents of neighbourhoods create authenticity by offering their own experiences of their localhoods, their ways of life, as a tourism product—and a cultural regenerator.
Small tourism in these examples not only offers visitors an authentic local experience, but also provides one strategy for creating a more informed, active, and socially-inclusive community. In urban centres, such neighbourhood engagement can also help disperse tourists away from the over-touristed central areas, as these two chapters demonstrate. Our next set of chapters takes us out of urban neighbourhoods, and into peripheral areas.

Small tourism: Networking and arts festivals in the periphery

Large and well-known arts festivals create their own cultures, to which participants flock annually, such as the Burning Man music festival in the Black Rock Desert of Nevada. The cultures of such huge festivals are formed from self-generated practices, guided by the philosophies of their leaders, and can be mobile. So, the cultural assets which they produce and re-produce are not endogenous; they may be "local" to the festival, but are not particularly tied to place. Burning Man's "10 Principles," on which its activities are based, does not mention any real geographical location; instead, they construct "Black Rock City" every August. But when festivals are tied to location, especially to geographically peripheral ones, are intentionally connected to community cultural assets, and are developed as a result of community-led planning, small arts festivals in small places can be powerful engines to express sense of place, to create cultural capacity, to facilitate social inclusion, and to encourage visitor-resident co-creation. This is particularly true in peripheral places, which lie off the tourist path, and which do not benefit from the urban neighbourhoods of "creatives" so widely popularized by Richard Florida.

This is the topic of the study in our fourth set of chapters, the study "Cultural Festivals in Small Villages: Creativity and the Case of the Devil's Nest Festival in Hungary," which details the importance of creative clusters and community networking in producing this annual festival; networking in small communities is a feature of small creative tourism experiences, and it is that networking that binds not only residents to visitors, but arguably more importantly, residents to each other and to their place. The chapter is a call to action for small festivals in small places, which they argue support local creative clusters through visitor-resident engagement, resulting not only in financial benefits to the community but also in cultural sustainability. These ideas reverberate in the story "Artistic Microadventures in Small Places," a memoir about the author's experiences as a visual artist participating in three Canadian small arts festivals in the relatively remote communities of North Bay, Ontario, St. John's, Newfoundland, and Dawson City, Yukon. These "micro-adventures," on sites like one located a half-mile offshore from North Bay on the ice of frozen Lake Nipissing, demonstrate the potential of community-based small tourism in the close-knit places that not only celebrate, but also rely on their local traditions, such as life on the ice in the frozen north. Small arts festivals, conceived and organized by locals, and the involvement of networked community volunteers, can be a deliberate strategy in which small tourism is deployed to promote cultural sustainability.

Small tourism: Community resilience and agency

COVID-19 has highlighted the need for resilience in the tourism industry. In this section's study, "The Power of Small: Creative In-migrant Microentrepreneurs in Peripheral Japanese Islands During COVID-19" the authors share their case study, in which they show that community-based tourism activities in small places have a huge impact on quality of life, revitalization and resilience, and sustainability of local populations. Tourism is often seen as the last chance for challenged places. This study shows that the power of small is its flexibility; developing micro-tourism enterprises can be attractive for entrepreneurs who are not motivated purely by profit, but by contribution to community. Such integrated clusters of creative actors offering small tourism experiences contribute to the development, resilience, agency, cultural and social capacity, and sustainability of small places.

The emphasis on sustainable local development through community-based tourism is a one trend of ten offered in "Small Tourism and EcoTourism: Emerging Micro-Trends," our volume's final chapter; most trends show a burgeoning interest in and practice of community-based micro-enterprises in tourism futures. Small communities with informed residents can be innovative in developing small tourism enterprises that reap all the benefits of creative tourism, including cultural resilience and participant agency.

Can small tourism help define the path to regenerative tourism?

Small tourism in small places with small numbers of visitors is not the catholicon for the problems generated by mass-tourism or the obliteration caused by the pandemic. Nor will mass tourism likely disappear. But as a number of the authors, I've showcased in this book—as well as others—have pointed out, this crisis provides a useful opportunity to re-think tourism, and perhaps a great chance for community-led and community-based micro-tourism to establish a beachhead as waves of tourists begin to crest again. This re-thinking includes a call for a more informed local community that engages actively and intelligently in creating tourism experiences. Local, community-led tourism practice is thus a topic of great interest. Similarly, tourism journals are publishing articles about the rise in local community participation that create resident agency, taking a hand in their place's tourism. Recent scholarship calls not only for informed residents, but also informed visitors who make tourism choices that benefit the destination community led by Dianne Dredge in her work on regenerative tourism. Other scholars talk about solidarity tourism; the tourism industry in Ukraine, they suggest, could rebuild their offerings with an emphasis on helping locals. This too sounds like one of the desirable tenets of small creative tourism enterprises. Perhaps small tourism has the ability to contribute to regenerative tourism.

References

Baidin, Ivan. (2021, 3 May). Forbes. Retrieved from https://www.forbes.com/sites/forbesbusinesscouncil/2021/05/03/three-post-pandemic-travel-trends-to-watch-this-year/?sh=37a5fa0a6a2e Accessed 17 March 2022.

Carr, A. (2020). COVID-19, Indigenous Peoples and Tourism: A View from New Zealand. *Tourism Geographies,* 22(3), 491-502.

Christensen, T., & Laegreid, P. (2005). Trust in Government: The Relative Importance of Service Satisfaction, Political Factors, and Demography. *Public Performance and Management Review*, 28(4), 487–511.

Derrett, R. (2020). Community Festivals Reveal Tangible and Intangible Bounty. In L. J. Ingram, S. L. Slocum, & C. T. Cavaliere (Eds.), *Neolocalism and Tourism: Understanding a Global Movement* (pp. 100-122). Oxford, UK: Goodfellow Publishers.

Dolnicar, S., & McCabe, S. (2022). Solidarity Tourism: How Can Tourism Help the Ukraine and Other War-Torn Countries? *Annals of Tourism Research*, 94.

Dredge, D. (2022). Regenerative Tourism: Transforming Mindsets, Systems and Practices, *Journal of Tourism Futures*, ahead-of-print. https://doi.org/10.1108/JTF-01-2022-0015.

Duxbury, N., S. Albino, and C. Carvalho (Eds.) (2021). *Creative Tourism: Activating Cultural Resources and Engaging Creative Travellers* (pp. 263-270). London: CABI.

European Commission. 2016. Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/regional_policy/sources/conferences/stateaid/sme/smedefinitionguide_en.pdf. Accessed 27 March 2022.

Fleming, R. C. (2010). Creative Economic Development, Sustainability, and Exclusion in Rural Areas. *Geographical Review*, 99(1), 61–80.

Guanhua, P., Prince, S., & Strzelecka, M. (2020). Neolocalism and Social Sustainability: The Case of Öland's Harvest Festival, Sweden. In L. J. Ingram, S. L. Slocum, & C. T. Cavaliere (Eds.), *Neolocalism and Tourism: Understanding a Global Movement* (pp. 164-184). Oxford, UK: Goodfellow Publishers.

Hernández-Martín, R., Simancas-Cruz, M-J., González-Yanes, J. Al., Rodríguez-Rodríguez, Y., García-Cruz, J. I., & González-Mora, Y. M. (2016). Identifying Micro-destinations and Providing Statistical Information: A Pilot Study in the Canary Islands. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 19(8), 771-790.

Higgins-Desbiolles, F., & Bobbi Chew B. (2022). A Local Turn in Tourism Studies. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 92.

Ingram, L., Slocum, S., & Cavaliere, C. (Eds.) (2020). *Neolocalism and Tourism: Understanding a Global Movement*. Oxford, UK: Goodfellows Publishers.

Jóhannesson, Gunnar Thór, and Katrin Anna Lund. (2018). Creative Connections? Tourists, Entrepreneurs and Destination Dynamics. *Scandinavian Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 18(1), 60–74.

Joo, D., Woosnam, K. M., Strzelecka, M., & Boley, B. B. (2020). Knowledge, Empowerment, and Action: Testing the Empowerment Theory in a Tourism Context. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(1), 69–85.

Lobrano, A. (2021, July 21). Making discovery, not distance, travel's point. *New York Times*. Retrieved from: https://www.nytimes.com/2021/07/21/travel/small-travel-france.html?smtyp=cur&smid=tw-nytimestravel

McCormick, A.D., & Meng Qu. (2021). Community Resourcefulness Under Pandemic Pressure: A Japanese Island's Creative Network. *Geographical Sciences*, 76(2), 74-86.

Meng, Q., Mccormick, A. D., & Funck, C. (2022). Community Resourcefulness and Partnerships in Rural Tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 30(10), 2371-2390.

Mitchell, C. J. A. (2013). Creative Destruction or Creative Enhancement? Understanding the Transformation of Rural Spaces. *Journal of Rural Studies*, 32, 375–387.

Moayerian, N., McGehee, N. G., & Stephenson, M. O. (2022). Community Cultural Development: Exploring the Connections Between Collective Art Making, Capacity Building and Sustainable Community-based Tourism, *Annals of Tourism Research,* 93.
Rua, S. V. (2020). Perceptions of tourism: A Study of Residents' Attitudes Towards Tourism in the City of Girona. *Journal of Tourism Analysis*, 27(2), 165–184.
Sharfuddin, S. (2020). The World after Covid-19. *The Round Table*, 109(3), 247-257.
Scherf, K. (Ed.) (2021). *Creative Tourism in Smaller Communities: Place, Culture, and Local Representation*. Calgary: University of Calgary Press.
Sheldon, P. J. (2021). The Coming-of-age of Tourism: Embracing New Economic Models. *Journal of Tourism Futures*. Ahead of Print. doi:10.1108/JTF-03-2021-0057.
Shortridge, J. R. (1996). Keeping Tabs on Kansas: Reflections on Regionally-Based Field Study. *Journal of Cultural Geography*, 16(1), 5-16.
Slocum, S. L. (2020). Governance and Neolocalism: Guiding the Creative Process. In L. J. Ingram, S. L. Slocum, & C. T. Cavaliere (Eds.), *Neolocalism and Tourism: Understanding a Global Movement* (pp. 208-226). Oxford, UK: Goodfellow Publishers.
Stylidis, D., & Dominguez Quintero, A. M. (2022). Understanding the Effect of Place Image and Knowledge of Tourism on Residents' Attitudes Towards Tourism and Their Word-of-mouth Intentions: Evidence from Seville, Spain. *Tourism Planning and Development*. Ahead of print: https://doi.org/10.1080/21568316.2022.2049859
United Nations World Tourism Organization (2022, 18 Jan). Retrieved from https://www.unwto.org/news/tourism-grows-4-in-2021-but-remains-far-below-pre-pandemic-levels.
Walia, S. K. (2021). *The Routledge Handbook of Community Based Tourism Management: Concepts, Issues & Implications*. London: Routledge.
Weng, S., & Peng, H. (2014). Tourism Development, Rights Consciousness and the Empowerment of Chinese Historical Village Communities. *Tourism Geographies*, 16(5), 772–784.
Yachnin, J. M. (2020). Alters and Functions: Exploring the Ego-networks of Tourism Micro-firms. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 46(3), 319-332.
Yachin, J. M., & Ioannides, D. (2020). 'Making Do' in Rural Tourism: The Resourcing Behaviour of Tourism Micro-firms. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 28(7), 1003–1021.

2.4. Sustainability education for hotel personnel in Switzerland

Peter Varga | École Hotelière Lausanne, Switzerland
Julneth Rogenhofer | École Hotelière Lausanne, Switzerland

Abstract
Sustainability is omnipresent in today's business discussions. One crucial aspect of hotels' sustainable efforts is the degree to which hospitality stakeholders are engaged in it. Still, engagement is second to awareness, which is a key factor among hotel personnel. An increasing number of studies have focused on clients' behaviour, management practices, and sustainable marketing, among others. Yet, relatively little interest has been given to practical training for hotel operational personnel in the field of sustainability. This applied research paper intends to explore this area in the Swiss hospitality context. Results show that most of the surveyed hotels do not train operational personnel about SDGs, even though hotels consider it important to achieve tangible results in the field of sustainability.

Keywords: Sustainability training; Hospitality; Housekeeping personnel; SDG awareness

Introduction

The first international conference in Stockholm in 1972 initiated worldwide discussions on the role of humans, how they consider the environment, and what kind of economic development should be followed that is sustainable for humanity. Since the Brundtland Report's release in 1987 and the introduction of John Elkington's Triple Bottom Line (TBL) framework in 1994, many business and academic articles have been written about sustainable development, and numerous national, international, and local decisions have been made. The decade and a half of the Millennium Development Goals (between 2000-2015) and the appearance of the Sustainable Development Goals, SDGs, (between 2015-2030) have provided tangible guidelines for states, organizations and even for private stakeholders to become more sustainable.

The SDGs seem to be particularly popular these days because they clearly illustrate the efforts society should make. Furthermore, the SDGs also address a forward-looking agenda regarding the environmental impact of business and our capacity for adaptation and resilience in the face of difficulties like climate change, pollution, waste, responsible consumption, and energy, among others. Combined with the SDGs, companies often use the TBL framework to organize their sustainable efforts even if the TBL has already been questioned by its author 25 years after its creation (Elkington, 2018). Elkington considers that companies focus mainly on the economic pillar and, alas, forget the other two. The growth-oriented hospitality industry is somehow inconsistent with some of the SDG's targets, which suggests that the current economic model needs to be reconsidered and economic transformation is required if sustainability is expected to be permanent.
The Covid period has generated a worldwide loss of one billion international travellers (UNWTO, 2021). Although tourism numbers slowly approached 1 billion in 2022, hotels often face a delicate situation and focus on economic survival before environmental efforts. As the Sustainable Hospitality Alliance (n.d.) suggests, one endeavour to become more

sustainable is through regular sustainability training for hotel personnel - if the hotel wants to make meaningful results in the field. Joglekar and Verma also indicated in their study of US hotels that operational employees should actively get involved in environmental sustainability initiatives if hotels wish to achieve significant results (2012). Pellegrini et al. (2018) showed that when sustainability is appreciated and promoted by the company, personnel is generally more prone to adopt sustainability. Hence employees will be more engaged in practicing sustainable behaviour. Social and environmental initiatives can also enhance workers' commitment and happiness and, in this way, lower staff turnover (Stobierski, 2021).

Kim et al. (2018) also showed that when Korean employees perceive a good quality of working life, because they are positively involved in the company's CSR policy, their overall quality of life is better. Consequently, they feel more engaged and involved in the company's sustainability efforts. This precedent has been clearly illustrated by Abuelhassan and Elsayed (2020), who found that in the Egyptian hotel sector, companies that built environmental awareness among employees through green training have an overall positive impact on environmental hotel performance. On the other hand, Delubac (2022) found that although 70% of French employees would like to be more involved in sustainability-related decisions, 39% of them were not aware of CSR-related subjects at the company, impeding meaningful adaptation of sustainability-related practices.

International hotel chains also strive to connect their sustainable practices and achievements with the SDGs in their Sustainability/CSR report; however, as Jones et al. state (2016), the hospitality sector lags behind other sectors in producing significant sustainable results for the moment. Although more and more hotels are beginning to create environmental reports to demonstrate their commitments, many of these efforts and promises lack transparency and accountability (Jones et al., 2016).

Implementing SDG-focused training sessions for the operational staff could be a practical and affordable way to increase sustainable participation and meaningful results for hotel operations. It is already the case in other sectors, such as banking for instance, where SDG-focused training already took place (Credit Swiss, 2015). In such workshops, the training aimed at "raising awareness of the SDGs, discuss the role and responsibility of the banking sector, identify priorities for action, and discuss organization and partnerships to achieve the SDGs." (p.4.) In the hospitality sector, it seems that such training is not widespread. Therefore, hotel employees rarely have the chance to attend workshops on subjects such as the SDGs and the foundations of sustainability. Consequently, the hotel's operational staff may feel disconnected concerning the environmental goals of the hotel because they are generally unaware of the reasons behind such sustainable measures.

Yet, some hotel chains are more transparent than others by publicly stating their transition to, for example, stakeholder management (Scandic Hotels, 2019). Others make similar claims about reducing waste and saving energy (Marriott, 2022), but there is little information available regarding how hotels educate their staff about the SDGs. The present research looks into the current state of sustainability training in Swiss hotels. Hence, the following research questions and one objective were developed:

- RQ1: What is the current state of awareness/knowledge of hospitality employees in the operation department concerning SDGs?
- RQ2: What are the urgent matters related to sustainability in daily operations?

Research objective:

The project plans to create a training programme for employees in the operations department that will not only build awareness of SDGs but also seek solutions for urgent and tangible challenges in hotels.

Methodology

An online survey was developed to understand the current state of sustainability training in medium size Swiss hotels (≤ 50 employees). Specifically, the survey focused on SDG-related training for hotel operations staff (mainly housekeeping). The survey was sent via email to medium size hotels from which the operational manager or person in charge of the operational team was requested to answer. The answers were anonymous, and information on the sociodemographic characteristics of respondents was not collected. The survey's main goal was to determine if and how medium size hotels were conducting workshops on sustainability, with a connection to SDGs, to their operational team. Housekeeping was particularly preferred given its obligatory existence in hotels and the fact that sustainability practices are deeply linked to activities from this department.

In the first phase, the questionnaire was sent to 138 hotels in the Vaud and Valais cantons, two Swiss cantons where French is spoken, receiving 26 responses (19% response rate). In a second step, the survey was sent to other hotels in Switzerland that met the criteria for medium-sized hotels, regardless of canton or language. A total of 976 hotels were contacted, and surveys were sent in English, French and German accordingly. Only 40 hotels agreed to participate in the survey (4% response rate). In conclusion, out of 1,114 hotels contacted, the project received 64 consents to respond to the survey (N=64), which stands for a 5.9% response rate (Table 1).

Table 1. Descriptive statistics

Description	Number	%
User Language		
German	39	56%
English	3	4%
French	28	40%
Total	70	100%
Consent		
I consent, begin the survey	64	91%
I do not consent, I do not wish to participate	6	9%
Total	70	100%
Training offered		
Yes	13	19%
No	44	63%
Total	57	81%
Missing values	13	19%

Results

First Stage:

Combining this research with a literature review of ongoing training courses and further educational workshops for operational staff (mainly housekeeping) in hotels in Switzerland, the authors found that only 25% of the contacted hotels had sustainability-focused training. In general, these training modules are conducted by the hotel's HR department or other employees in the same hotel. This indicates that most Swiss hotels do not contact consulting firms or outside experts to conduct such workshops.

Second Stage:

In order to measure whether medium-sized hotels (50 employees or less) train their operational staff on sustainability issues in line with the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) proposed by the United Nations (UN), a questionnaire in Qualtrics was developed. Questions were interested in the following; how the sustainability training was delivered (theoretical, practical, both), how much time was spent on the training, who supervised the training (HR, manager, or external) and whether it led to certifications for attendees (Appendix 1-8). The training focused on key issues related to SDGs 3, 4, 12, and 13. Those who did not provide sustainability training were asked about the type of training, duration, and topics they would like to offer at the hotel. In this case, the goal was to understand how the training should be developed.

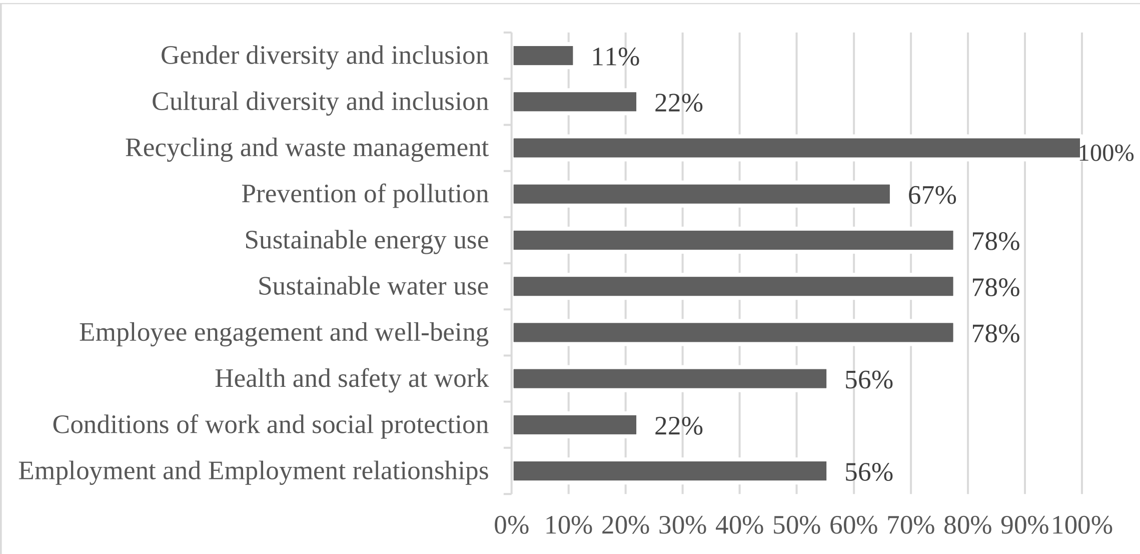


Figure 1. Number of times a topic was selected by managers offering sustainability training

Results were split between hotels that offer training and those that do not. Of those who said they would provide training (n=13), 12 out of 13 said they would provide training to cleaning and kitchen teams, and 9 out of 13 would provide training to maintenance teams. The most frequently chosen topics within the training were recycling and waste management, sustainable water use, sustainable energy use, and employee engagement and well-being from all the topics provided (Figure 1). 44% of the hotels reported that they completed the training in 1 to 3 hours (Table 2), and 56% reported that they completed a combination of theoretical and practical training (Table 2). Additionally, as Table 2 shows, in most cases, someone within the company is responsible for delivering the training (33% for HR and 44% for team managers), and only one of those hotels that offer training provide a workshop certificate (Table 2).

Table 2. Training offered

Description	Number	%
Duration of the training		
Less than one hour	3	33%
1-3 hours	4	44%
3-6 hours	1	11%
More than six hours	1	11%
Total	9	100%
Training Method		
Only theoretical	3	33%
Theoretical and practical	5	56%
Only practical	1	11%
Total	9	100%
Person delivering the training		
HR	3	33%
Team manager	4	44%
Other	2	22%
Total	9	100%
Certification		
Yes	1	11%
No	8	89%
Total	9	100%

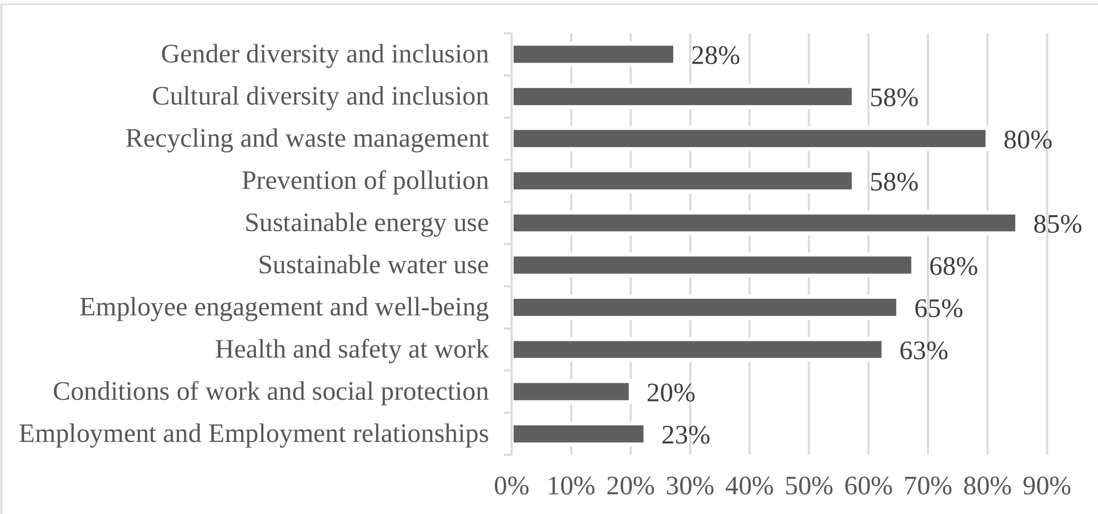


Figure 2. Number of times a topic was selected by managers not offering sustainability training

For hotels that do not offer training, 40 hotels indicated what they would expect from a sustainability training program. Similar to the topics mentioned by hotels that do indeed offering training, sustainable energy use was selected at a rate of 85%, followed by recycling and waste management (80%), and sustainable water use (68%). Other topics, such as employee engagement and benefits (65%) and workplace health and safety (63%), were also mentioned by the hotels (Figure 2). In hotels where such training is not offered, responding managers believe that the ideal training lasts 1-3 hours (50%) and is both theoretical and practical (83%) (Table 3).

Table 3. Training not offered

Description	Number	%
Duration of the training		
Less than one hour	9	23%
1-3 hours	20	50%
3-6 hours	8	20%
More than six hours	3	8%
Total	40	100%
Training Method		
Only theoretical	3	8%
Theoretical and practical	33	83%
Only practical	4	10%
Total	40	100%

The results show that hotels are interested in sustainability training for their employees, but only a quarter of the hotels surveyed offer such training for their operational personnel. The main themes that hotels want to develop during training are shown in Graphic 6. According to the results, a current research project has developed a 1h30min workshop for hotel staff, including topics identified in the research. Topics included: SDG 3 'Good health and well-being' for all, SDG 4 'Quality education', SDG 9 'Industry, innovation and infrastructure', SDG 12 'Responsible consumption and production', and SDG 13 'Climate protection'.

Third stage

The workshop was piloted on an independent hotel in Yverdon-les-Bains on December 9, 2022 and on February 10, 2023 at a Swiss hospitality school. Although a hospitality school is not a hotel, the operation department works in the context of hospitality, especially on the student campus. Both workshops were delivered to housekeeping personnel only. The main aim of this workshop was to raise awareness of SDGs and encourage proactive behaviors in the field. Additionally, the session also sought to identify challenges and opportunities based on the SDG framework. The workshop agenda was the following (workshop delivered in French): Introduction; When and why did we start talking about sustainability?; United Nations Sustainable Development Goals; Specific goals and challenges in hospitality; Possible tangible solutions; Reflections and Questions.

Sustainability Training Benefits

The authors believe the following outcomes should be the focus of a brief SDG workshop for hotel operations staff. First, the workshop can identify the gap between theory and practice so that hotel staff can be more proactive in future sustainability initiatives. Second, the workshop can increase staff members' commitment to sustainability. Third, hotels can track particular KPIs, such as operational and housekeeping costs. Finally, SDG training can be included in the CSR/sustainability report of the company.

Implications and conclusion

As confirmed by the survey, the workshop, which sought to build bridges between theory and practice, was well-received by the participants. The workshop found that participants had very limited awareness of the SDGs, which is why the theoretical and applied topics were highly appreciated. Since the participating housekeeping personnel never had any formal education concerning SDGs and sustainability, the workshop provided a platform to exchange ideas among themselves as well as with their managers. This session justified the staff's deep interest in sustainability and desire to improve their daily tasks towards more sustainable practices. The workshop also provided the impression that the attending housekeeping personnel, despite the fact that currently they are not included in sustainability-related decisions, would like to be more involved and engaged in the field. Since such educational platforms are still rare in the hospitality industry, this pilot project will be a medium- and possibly long-term project if hotel companies are interested in such training. The outcome of the training needs to be evaluated at a later stage of the project. Regular workshops will probably need to be organized if tangible results are expected in the future.

Limitations

The main limitation of this pilot project is the hotels' response rate, which impedes this study from being considered valid for the Swiss market. Second, due to the recent workshops, tangible outcomes are to be detected at the hotels in the medium and longer term. Nevertheless, the authors believe that future studies will be interested in hotel staff training in the hospitality industry. Third, although SDGs can be considered as a good framework, hotels may have difficulties to apply and measure them concretely. The authors believe that hospitality should be more supported by clear guidelines that provide practical steps towards sustainable operations, which would also facilitate specific trainings.

References

Abuelhassan Elshazly Abuelhassan, & Yousery Nabil M. K. Elsayed. (2020). The Impact of Employee Green Training on Hotel Environmental Performance in the Egyptian Hotels. *International Journal on Recent Trends in Business and Tourism*, 4(1), 24–33.- Lack of study in hotels.

Delubac, A. (2022). What CSR training will your employees need? Retrieved from https://greenly.earth/en-us/blog/company-guide/what-csr-training-will-your-employees-need on 29/09/2022

Elkington, J. (2018). 25 Years Ago I Coined the Phrase "Triple Bottom Line." Here's Why It's Time to Rethink It. *Harvard Business Review*. Retrieved from https://hbr.org/2018/06/25-years-ago-i-coined-the-phrase-triple-bottom-line-heres-why-im-giving-up-on-itJones, P.,

Hillier, D., & Comfort, D. (2016). Sustainability in the hospitality industry: Some personal reflections on corporate challenges and research agendas. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management,* 28(1), 36-67.

Joglekar, N., & Verma, R. (2012). Pushing the frontier of sustainable service operations management: Evidence from US hospitality industry. *Journal of Service Management*, 23(3), 377–399.

Kim, H. L., Woo, E., Uysal, M., & Kwon, N. (2018). The effects of corporate social responsibility (CSR) on employee well-being in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 30(3), 1584–1600.

Pellegrini, C., Rizzi, F., & Frey, M. (2018). The role of sustainable human resource practices in influencing employee behavior for corporate sustainability. *Business Strategy and the Environment*, 27(8), 1221–1232.

Sustainable Hospitality Alliance (n.d.) Our trainings. Retrieved from https://sustainablehospitalityalliance.org/training/

Stobierski, T. (2021). Types of Corporate Social Responsibility to be Aware of. 08/04/2021. Retrieved from https://online.hbs.edu/blog/post/types-of-corporate-social-responsibility

UNWTO (2021, January 28): Worst Year in Tourism History with 1 Billion Fewer International Arrivals, https://www.unwto.org/news/2020-worst-year-in-tourism-history-with-1-billion-fewer-international-arrivals

Appendix

Questionnaire

	Question	Choices
	Starting question	
1	At the moment, do you offer any training programme for operational employees (only kitchen, maintenance, or/and housekeeping staff) concerning sustainability?	Yes, No
	If training is offered	
2	Please specify to which department(s) the training is provided (more than one option is allowed)	Housekeeping Maintenance Kitchen Staff
3	Please specify the topic(s) discussed in the training which could be connected with the SDGs (more than one option is allowed)	Employment and employment relationships Conditions of work and social protection Health and safety at work Employee engagement and well-being Sustainable water use Sustainable energy use Prevention of pollution (e.g., use of non-chemical products while cleaning) Recycling and waste management Cultural diversity and inclusion Gender diversity and inclusion
4	What is the duration of the training?	Less than one hour 1-3 hours 3-6 hours more than six hours
5	What is the training method?	Only theoretical Theoretical and practical Only practical
6	Who is in charge of delivering the training(s)?	Someone internally in the company An external company/person
7	Who specifically?	HR CSR/Sustainability team Person in charge of the team Other:_______________
8	Does this training lead to a certification?	Yes, No

If a training is not offered

9	In case your hotel does not provide a training on sustainability: Please specify the topic(s) that you would like to include in the training delivered by Dr. Peter Varga (EHL) (more than one option is allowed)	Work environment Employment and employment relationships Conditions of work and social protection Health and safety at work Employee engagement and well-being Sustainability Sustainable water use Sustainable energy use Prevention of pollution (e.g., use of non-chemical products while cleaning) Recycling and waste management Ethical responsibility Cultural diversity and inclusion Gender diversity and inclusion
10	What do you think should be the duration of the training	Less than one hour 1-3 hours 3-6 hours more than six hours
11	What do you think should be the most appropriate training method for your hotel?	Only theoretical Theoretical and practical Only practical

2.5. Unboxing event sustainability operations: Habituating commitment, branding governance and planning for legacy

Palle Norgaard | Business Academy Aarhus, School of Applied Sciences, Denmark
Magnus Hultberg | Business Academy Aarhus, School of Applied Sciences, Denmark

Abstract
This paper aims to contribute to understanding 'the work behind', and the design of, sustainability operations at events. Our object of study is the ongoing global event, The Ocean Race 2023, and the relation to its local Stopover Events. By analysing empirical data from both own interviews and sustainability related documents from The Ocean Race-organisation, we identify key parts of best practice within the event industry. By drawing on this data and relevant theory, we argue for the urgency of such operations and propose three scalable core disciplines: habituating commitment, branding governance, and planning for legacy.

Keywords: Event design; Sustainable development; Branded governance; Event legacy; Ethics.

Introduction

This paper intends to outline what actual action-oriented sustainability work is in the event industry. How do you move from a strategy that aims to 'do the right thing' to actually 'doing the work'? This translation-work, from strategy to praxis, brings our attention to the sustainability operator, who we see as a key character in doing the work of sustainable development in the event industry The diversity in work-tasks in implementing a 'green transition' is oftentimes either described holistically and on a strategic level or is mirrored in long lists of very practical tasks. To succeed in governing such a complex project, as executing on sustainability operations in events, demands a skilled operator. Building on findings from the empirical studies we carve out three core disciplines - Habituating Commitment, Branding Governance and Planning for Legacy - that, in our perspective, are essential for getting 'the job done'. Our object of study is the global event The Ocean Race 2023 (TOR), ongoing at paper deadline. An elite sailing competition across the planet by wind power, stopping in seven cities along a six-month route, each stop with its own event celebrations. Data was collected at the Alicante- and the Aarhus Stopovers on this global mega-event.

The assumption is that specialised 'sustainability workers' are becoming more central to event-organisations -work and -Studies (Carey, 2015; Derom, 2015; Jones, 2018; Masterman, 2022). The work is about building sustainability, (grounded on people, planet, profit-based values), into planned events from the beginning. The toolboxes are Circular economy (MacArthur, 2023), Cradle to cradle (McDonough Braungart, 2002), Design for disassembly (Hatcher, 2011), Sustainable Development Goals (un.org) and the Doughnut Economy (Raworth, 2012) etc. They are paradigmatic paths laid out to follow by the event industry. 'Followed' meaning well-planned, communicated iteratively and governed and maintained during and after the event in conceptual- or community-driven legacies, no matter the size of the event.

Understanding urgency

In a world in urgent need for action-oriented sustainability work, the theory of earth-system science, outlined in the Planetary Boundaries- model (Rockström, 2009) sets the frame for urgent holistic thinking in terms of future production and consumption. The interrelated areas of this model cover nine must-win battles in a planetary system in danger of collapsing. The disastrous consequences of human production- and consumption are clear (e.g., IPPC 2023) and are summed up in new terminology, describing a paradigmatic shift in the way we understand the planetary consequences of human behaviour, such as 'the great acceleration', the 'Anthropocene epoch' (CSIRO, 2012), 'irreversible' dangers when passing interrelated 'tipping points' (Richardson, 2019) causing exponential negative effects. Concepts pinpointing that climate politics are moving too slow. Triple bottom line-based business innovation is an important driver for change to make a realistic green transition possible. The event industry is no exception, it must act. In this paper we study *practice*, by looking into sustainability communication in event documents such as guidelines and action plans and by conducting interviews with event managers, sustainability program managers, -operators and partner-organisations.

Methodologically, we approach this by studying empirical insights – primary and secondary - and deduct potential scalabilities in both practicalities and in the deep design of the event. Which actions does it take to minimise footprints in praxis (waste sorting, power sources, certified food etc.) and how do you plan strategic directions for long term legacies (in actions plans, sustainability guidelines, commitment papers etc.).

Studying the sustainability 'translation work' unfolding in the global-local event TOR2023/Host City, Aarhus, we aim to first, understand potentials and barriers in adapting a global sustainability strategy to local practice and to local strategic public/private level. Second, we aim to outline best practice in assignments of the 'translation work' of local 'sustainability operators'. Sustainability strategy without the 'housekeeping', keeping the basic sustainability of the production in order would turn in to 'greenwashing'. This is a collective effort and will only work through skilled communication, ground-floor-commitment, aligned partnerships, and planning and project skills of the operators as demonstrated in our findings.

We base the study on empirical insight of all public sustainability-related TOR-documents (see TOR 3, Collected public portfolio) and through interviews. Ultimately, we propose a set of necessary focal points for any sustainability operations which comes down to first understanding the urgency of this work and second implementing the core disciplines of, habituating commitment, branding governance and planning for legacy.

Empirical insights

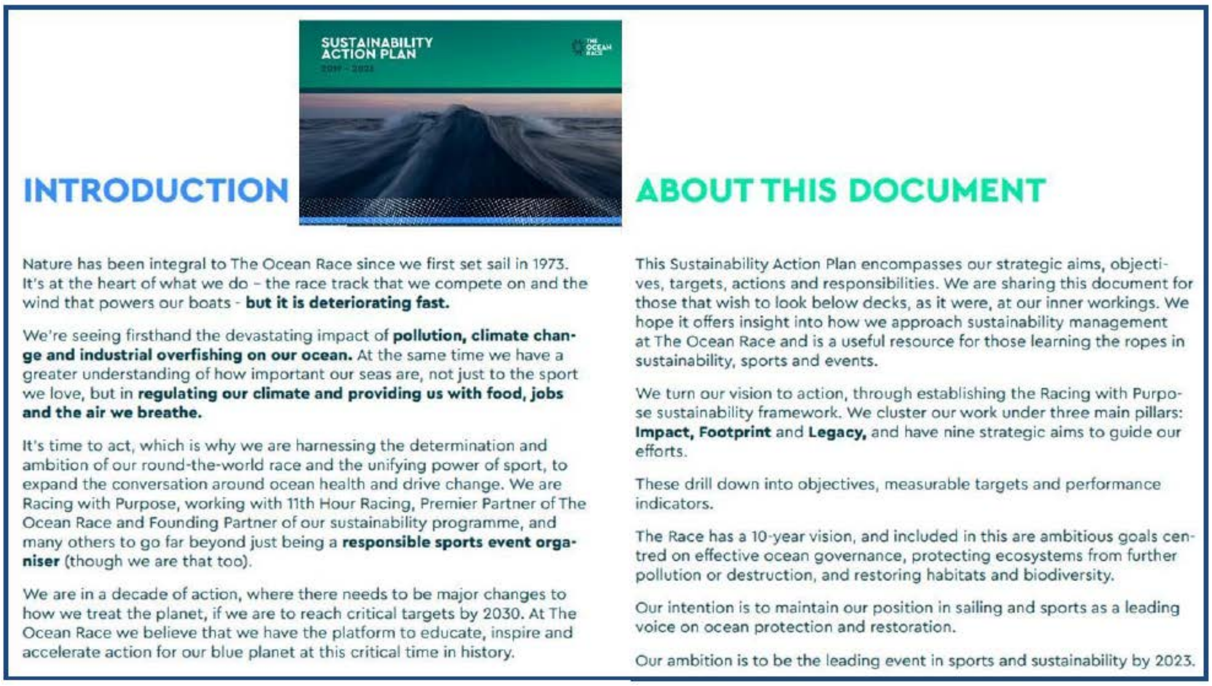
Sustainability is a central issue and tied to 'the right thing to do' (duty) in TOR-web-communication:

> "Hosting a sailing race which runs for six months, with nine global stopovers, hundreds of staff, and millions of visitors to our race villages, obviously comes with its own footprint. We have a duty to operate sustainably, and we strive to be a leader in sports, events, and sustainability - testing new ways to produce our Race with the maximum positive impact possible" (TOR1).

Besides the operational impacts by TOR, the Footprint-pillar, the Action Plan-framework (TOR3) describes two other pillars, Impact and Legacy. They contain the engagement of people and the outreach of efforts like these:

> "[…] advocating for Ocean's Rights to be recognised through our Summits and Policy work, our One Blue Voice campaign and through Relay4Nature. We're also recruiting a whole new generation of ocean champions through our Learning Programme and adding vital data on ocean health through our Science Programme" (TOR1).

To illustrate both challenges in the translation-work of the local sustainability operator as well as the branding potentials for partners, campaigning on sustainability and its dimension as legacy planning, we turn to our empirical insights. First, the Action Plan lays down, at global event level, the normative performance levels and reporting tasks (Figure1) and second, through our interviews with involved Sustainability Operator at local level and with a Sustainability Program Manager of an (unnamed) Race Partner:



SUSTAINABILITY ACTION PLAN

INTRODUCTION

Nature has been integral to The Ocean Race since we first set sail in 1973. It's at the heart of what we do – the race track that we compete on and the wind that powers our boats - **but it is deteriorating fast.**

We're seeing firsthand the devastating impact of **pollution, climate change and industrial overfishing on our ocean.** At the same time we have a greater understanding of how important our seas are, not just to the sport we love, but in **regulating our climate and providing us with food, jobs and the air we breathe.**

It's time to act, which is why we are harnessing the determination and ambition of our round-the-world race and the unifying power of sport, to expand the conversation around ocean health and drive change. We are Racing with Purpose, working with 11th Hour Racing, Premier Partner of The Ocean Race and Founding Partner of our sustainability programme, and many others to go far beyond just being a **responsible sports event organiser** (though we are that too).

We are in a decade of action, where there needs to be major changes to how we treat the planet, if we are to reach critical targets by 2030. At The Ocean Race we believe that we have the platform to educate, inspire and accelerate action for our blue planet at this critical time in history.

ABOUT THIS DOCUMENT

This Sustainability Action Plan encompasses our strategic aims, objectives, targets, actions and responsibilities. We are sharing this document for those that wish to look below decks, as it were, at our inner workings. We hope it offers insight into how we approach sustainability management at The Ocean Race and is a useful resource for those learning the ropes in sustainability, sports and events.

We turn our vision to action, through establishing the Racing with Purpose sustainability framework. We cluster our work under three main pillars: **Impact, Footprint** and **Legacy,** and have nine strategic aims to guide our efforts.

These drill down into objectives, measurable targets and performance indicators.

The Race has a 10-year vision, and included in this are ambitious goals centred on effective ocean governance, protecting ecosystems from further pollution or destruction, and restoring habitats and biodiversity.

Our intention is to maintain our position in sailing and sports as a leading voice on ocean protection and restoration.

Our ambition is to be the leading event in sports and sustainability by 2023.

Figure 1. The Ocean Race 2023: Sustainability Action Plan

The study of this document shows that TOR works holistically with sustainability. Four points are to be made from this: First, the event is understood as a defined area for green transition, and they believe in the possibility of a wider impact: "we believe that we have the platform to educate, inspire and accelerate action". Second, TOR considers transparency a key issue of their sustainability work: "We are sharing this document for those that wish [...] it offers insights into how we approach sustainability management" and, third, they plan for legacy, detailed in this document, but mentioned above as "A 10-year vision…". Last and fourth, is the normative framework that the Action Plan also is, the framework of the three main pillars Impact, Footprint and Legacy, the nine strategic aims "to guide our efforts." These drill down into objectives, measurable targets and performance indicators…" These are the rules of the game to which host cities are committed by their 'agreement papers', thus this becoming the object of the 'translation work' of the sustainability operator.

As an empirical perspective to the effect of the work behind this document several interviews were made, among others with a returning Sustainability Manager at a TOR 2023 Team Partner. He comments on the ongoing changes in the approach to sustainability work:

> "…coming back to the event, what's really cool to see in TOR this time is, that we moved from […] sort of anecdotal corporate social responsibility with save the albatross or save the turtle, to systemic sustainability taking into account operations and the external opportunities to engage social commitment on the communities, and sustainability is now actually become a very important pillar of the event". (Interview DF, GreenX)

He then comments on the campaigning advantages of the systemic approach to sustainability, i.e., the sustainable sourcing, the branding of the program Racing with Purpose and the planning for legacy in lobbying for creating juridical Ocean Rights, making sustainability a core mission of the event.

> […] TOR is every 3 or 4 years […] it is quite hard to bridge from one event to another but now what we are seeing is actually that sustainability has created the bridge from the last TOR to this one four years later (ibid.).

The point here is that the value of sustainability besides reduction in carbon footprint is that it adds value in creating consistency between campaigns. Third, engaging people consistently in reducing their carbon footprint builds the possibility to see one's own function as part of a larger value chain and consistently aim to improve this year by year.

> "The key thing is […] really through sustainable sourcing. […] Sustainability requires measurement, requires reductions, The fact that […] you engage people to ask the question; what are you doing and what help do you need to do better? […] Through the work we have done […], whether it is contributing or investing in reductions in our sector, means that the footprint will be smaller in four years' time […] and I kind of consider that as in setting, in other words, contributing to reductions within our sector […]. So, before we go off planting trees in Oregon or blue carbon in Costa Rica, we should be looking at investing in reductions in our own value chain […] I mean that is really, really important. In setting1, is the last word I would say" (ibid.).

Committed sustainability work then is about changing organisational culture and internalising the work through engagement and branding of the program which adds value and connects engagement to legacy work. But how to translate this from 'the right thing to do' to actually 'doing the work' at the local level? We interviewed a local sustainability operator at the Aarhus stopover about his work in the Racing with Purpose program:

> "We need to master the basic practical sustainability 'housekeeping' and the impact- and legacy-parts as well. If the practitioners on the floor do not follow the documents, then you are not going to make what the ambition of the plan is" (Interview RHJ, GreenX). The job of the sustainability operator becomes executing the plan, implementing the values through being hard on knowledge to communicate 'the why' to local event crew and to govern structures for plastic, waste, power etc. "My job is governing the platform created by TOR but looking into local context, as in how far you can push local partners and what are local and national aims on sustainability [to understand] in what way we can push legacy-wize" […]. But you cannot do the job yourself, you cannot cover all 'housekeeping'. You must get the management processes and governing structures in place. It's all about people. You use this document [Sustainability Action Plan] and you talk with local crew and define your must-win-battles. [...] The systems need to be there, for people to follow them. (Interview RHJ, TOR Aarhus, GreenX).

This brings us back to the global event-documents. The TOR team of the global Sustainability Program Manager distributed and shared the sustainability program in various documents and public campaigns. They write:

> "We are using our global platform to inspire all those that we can reach to take action to help the ocean. This includes the sailing community, wider sports industry, businesses, host cities, governments, children, fans […]"(TOR 2).

Transparency is connected to the never-ending journey of sustainable development. This gives us access to several key documents, which also indicate the scale of the workload (See Bibliography: TOR3). This means on a local scale, that the local event host will have their hands full with the demands and requirements of these documents which must be managed according to agreements in internal Host City agreements. They must engage local professional sustainability expertise for handling such responsibilities, skilled operators that must be able to turn them into local practices and translate values and excellence boards into internalised virtues and must-win-battles for self-driving staff, hence:

> "The guide does not attempt to be a learning device for each of the issues. It is expected the Delivery Partner's Sustainability Coordinator, and prior to that, the Host City [...] along with TOR, will guide the decision-making and planning, drawing on their sustainability expertise [and…] it is encouraged that the Sustainability Plan also include the approach to advocacy and outreach around sustainability focuses of the Race and the City, and how this would be delivered in terms of programming, content and communications. The Sustainability Plan should be completed no later than six months prior to the Event Period" (TOR3, GreenX).

The global expectations to local planning and governance brings us to what we see as a core discipline, the branded governance.

Commitment and branded governance

True sustainable development requires a long-run effort, while events are temporary. Therefore, we argue, the traditional economic idea of governance in relation to the agency problem (Buchholtz et al., 2009; Thomsen, 2008) is not enough. The sustainability-efforts must be branded to create long-term commitment and "consistency between campaigns". Therefore, we turn to branded governance as we borrow (and develop) from consumer trend studies. Here the argument is that marketing a company's brand through its sustainability initiatives shows that the company takes responsibility and therefore, apparently, stays present (is the assumption) in the minds of the consumers (Dauggaard, 2023; dentsu, 2023). This relates to neologisms as 'a ticket to play' or 'keeping a licence to operate' (e.g., Høgh & Nygaard, 2021), which points to a shift intended to describe that sustainability must have a pivotal role in strategy and business models.

Branded governance in our perspective, is therefore firstly about the actual governing of the sustainability strategy or program and secondly, about communicating internally and externally to build engagement and commitment on all levels. When doing this in both writing, speaking and acting as in TOR, our case in question, then this branded program and all the efforts of the sustainability operators is about "socialising the idea of sustainability to all stakeholders"(interview MJ, GreenX) and the program Racing with Purpose on all levels.

Aristotle can help us illuminate this, since his virtue ethical approach shows us a way to consistently commit to a given role in a given practice which, we argue, is central to the whole idea behind unfolding governance. In brief, Aristotle (2004) says that a good person is one who performs his or her function well. Any practice has a telos or an overall aim which determines the purpose of that practice, and the virtues in turn designate what you should do to excel in it and be the best person qua practician you can be. For Aristotle ethics is a practical discipline and hence the virtues are by definition excellences in a given practice and should be made part and parcel of one's character and thus, through practice become habituated. Hence, to commit is, to fully accept and take upon you the responsibilities and requirements that any role demands of you. Moreover, you must accept that more often than not the responsibilities and requirements will deepen as you actively turn the commitment into practice. Thus, it is an ever-continuing process, so habituating commitment through habituating the pertinent virtues is essential.

From an organisational perspective the same counts. If you want to truly commit to e.g., sustainability you must habituate your commitment. To be truly sustainable is never one-dimensional and therefore commitment to it isn't either. Tightly connected to this then, is the role of the sustainability operator who is responsible for translating global strategy into local practice. This role includes a wide range of tasks that he or she must excel at in order to engage all stakeholders in order to habituate commitment through branded governance and to temporally stretch commitment, plan for legacy.

Planning for legacy

The many tasks of the sustainability operator, our point is, is essentially connected to legacy planning. It is this connection we intend to describe (or 'unbox') here. Long term positive effects of events are a central object of study within Event Studies (Faulkner, Chalip, Ritchie in Getz & Page, 2020). From mega events to neighbourhood festivals, long term effects are discussed and put into discourse as 'events being catalysts', as 'leveraging events' and maybe in particular as 'event legacy'. Dungan pointed to a distinction between direct/indirect legacies in the 1996 Olympic Games, that generated large "construction of sporting facilities and urban parks which led to […] new education facilities" (Getz & Page 2020). Furthermore, Faulkner explained the concept of 'leveraging events' as the use of events to exploit broader business benefits, the enhancement of tourist spending and building new relationships (ibid.). Chalip pointed to 'social leveraging of events' i.e., when events collaborate in social- and educational causes (ibid.). An important point here is that the legacy of events is also part of the catalyst role, it is planned. This perspective, as the concepts above, help us to understand the planning for legacy.

To illustrate this, we point to the local TOR Stopover event-organisation in Aarhus that choose to integrate sustainability as themed placemaking and as co-created educational programmes, unrolling them with educational institutions, aiming for lasting impact in their programs. Doing so, 'planning for legacy' is aligned with 'branded governance' i.e., the Racing with purpose program of TOR 2023. The deep-design lies in the commitment-work and the branded governance, socialising the sustainability program and in the planned event legacy, all aiming for reducing basic event production footprint, longer outreach in impact, and with longer duration when planning for legacy.

Preliminary conclusions

Actually 'doing the work' of 'the right thing', necessitates a skilled operator to make ends meet between practicalities and the deep design of a sustainability program that aim and plan for legacy. To succeed, in minimising the negative impacts of event production and -consumption, demands commitment and ongoing engagement from a collective crew. Such engagement derives only from understanding urgency, from socialising the decided sustainability program, from the iterative commitment work in branded governance and from the, at best, virtue-based habituated practices, "It's all about people" (op. cit.). Only transparent sustainability journeys, as the one of The Ocean Race 2023 has allowed us to study this.

References

Aristotle (2004). *The Nichomachean Ethics*. London: Penguin.

Buchholtz, A. K. et al. (2009). Corporate governance and corporate social responsibility in Crane, Andrew et al. (Eds.) *The Oxford Handbook of Corporate Social Responsibility*, Oxford University Press.

Carey, K. Meaghan et al. (2015). The Local and Regional Government' Perspectives. In Parent, Milena M. & Cappelet, J.-L. (Eds.) *Routledge Handbook of Sports Event Management*. New York: Routledge.

CSIRO (2012). Welcome to the Anthropocene at https://www.anthropocene.info/about.php

MacArthur, E. (2010). Ellen MacArthur Foundation at https://ellenmacarthurfoundation.org/about-us/ellens-story

https://ellenmacarthurfoundation.org/topics/circular-economy-introduction/overview#:~:text=The%20circular%20economy%20tackles%20climate,the%20consumption%20of%20finite%20resources.

Daugaard, J. et al. (2023). 8 Forbruger- og marketingtrends for 2023" Tid og Tendenser, (An extract from Trend Study Pulse23 at www.dentsu.com), No. 01.2023, 68-77.

dentsu, at https://www.dentsu.com/dk/dk/pulse-2023-branded-governance [Accessed 31.03.2023]

Derom, I. et al. (2015). The Community's Perspective. In Parent, Milena M. & Cappelet, J.-L. (Eds.) *Routledge Handbook of Sports Event Management*. New York: Routledge.

GreenX project at: https://www.eaaa.dk/forskning-og-innovation/projekter/aktuelle-forskningsprojekter/green-x/

Hatcher, G.D. et al. (2011). Design for remanufacture: A literature review and future research needs. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 19(17–18), 2004-2014.

Hoegh, S.M. & S.E.Nygaard (2021). Bæredygtig Business – Fra Bundlinjen og en bedre verden. Turbine. Aarhus.

IPPC (2023). AR6 Synthesis Report: Climate Change 2023 at https://www.ipcc.ch/report/sixth-assessment-report-cycle/ [Accessed 29-03-2023].

Jones, M. (2018). *Sustainable Event Management - A Practical Guide*, London: Earthscan/Routledge.

Masterman, G. (2022). *Strategic Sports Event Management*, London: Routledge.

McDonough, W. & Braungart, M. (2002). *Cradle to Cradle: Remaking the Way We Make Things*. New York: North Point Press.

Page, S., & Getz, D. (2019). *Event Studies - Theory, Research and Policy for Planned Events*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Raworth, K. (2012/2017). *Doughnut Economics: Seven Ways to Think Like a 21st-Century Economist*. New York: Random House.

Richardson, K. et al. (2019). Climate tipping points — too risky to bet against -The growing threat of abrupt and irreversible climate changes must compel political and economic action on emissions. *Nature* 27 Nov.

Rockström, J. (2009). Planetary Boundaries: Exploring the Safe Operating Space for Humanity. In Ecology & Society and as a special section and feature article published in Nature. https://www.stockholmresilience.org/research/planetary-boundaries.html [Accessed 30.03.2023].

Thomsen, S. (2008). An introduction to corporate governance – mechanisms and systems. DJØF Publishing Copenhagen.

TOR 1: The Ocean Race 1: weblink: https://www.theoceanrace.com/en/racing-with-purpose/sustainable-sports-and-innovation#rwp-1 [Accessed 13.03.2023].

TOR 2: The Ocean Race 2: weblink: https://www.theoceanrace.com/en/racing-with-purpose/about [Accessed 13.03.2023].

TOR 3: (GreenX Collected Public Portfolio): The Action Plan 2021-2023.

UN.ORG (2015). Sustainable Development Goals at https://sdgs.un.org/goals

World Economic Forum: https://www.weforum.org/agenda/2022/03/carbon-insetting-vs-offsetting-an-explainer/

2.6. Laying the foundations for the development of a composite indicator of destination interfirm coordination

Sonia Messori | Free University of Bolzano, Italy
Serena Volo | Free University of Bolzano, Italy

Abstract
While coordination has been extensively investigated in the economic literature, it has yet to garner the same level of attention in tourism and hospitality research. Therefore, this study proposes a conceptual framework for investigating destination interfirm coordination in a holistic manner, bridging the existing fragmented knowledge on the subject. Accordingly, this study draws from both tourism management and tourism economics literature to cover all stages of the coordination process and its underlying mechanisms. Its six constituent dimensions relate to proximity, associationism, competitive advantage, comparative advantage, co-production, and contextual factors. This thorough understanding of coordination may serve as a foundation for further research on the topic. From a practical perspective, it may help individual businesses identify their strengths and weaknesses, thus supporting them in increasing their performance and competitiveness. Finally, by operationalizing the concept of coordination, this contribution seeks to support decision-making processes at the business, network, and destination levels.

Keywords: Tourism destination; Coordination; Conceptual Framework

Introduction

Tourism destinations comprise a multitude of independent firms that collectively offer a bundle of complementary and substitute goods and services. From the perspective of tourists, these offerings are perceived as an integrated product (Zach & Hill, 2017). This perception plays a pivotal role in the tourism and hospitality industry, fostering collaborative dynamics and strategies among the interconnected tourism firms involved in the creation of the tourism product. In this context, the concentration of complementary firms within a destination can be likened to a diagonal cluster (Michael, 2003), wherein each firm's activities add value to the products of the others, leading to the achievement of individual and collective goals (Novelli et al., 2006; Stienmetz & Fesenmaier, 2018). Consequently, coordination among these interdependent firms becomes crucial for overcoming the limitations of tourism supply and meeting tourism demand, ultimately increasing the destination's competitiveness. A recent review of Messori and Volo (forthcoming) systematizes the literature on collaborative relational dynamics amongst tourism firms to facilitate an operationalization of the construct that considers both the tourism management and economic perspectives. Indeed, coordination has recently gained research attention in tourism and hospitality research (Zhang et al., 2009), although, to date, studies are still scarce. In particular, a tool to measure the degree of destination interfirm coordination is still lacking.

It is widely acknowledged that certain socio-economic phenomena require the consideration of multiple aspects or dimensions for a comprehensive understanding, as they cannot be adequately measured by a single descriptive indicator alone (Hoskins et al., 2009; Schwab, 2019; UNDP, 2014). Hence, researchers have developed composite indicators (CIs), to aggregate a set of individual indicators into a cohesive framework, providing a more holistic understanding of these subjects (Mazziotta & Pareto, 2017). However, unlike other fields of social research, tourism and hospitality studies rarely employ CIs to examine socio-economic phenomena (Menodola & Volo, 2017). Given that the use of CIs in tourism studies is still in its early stages of development, this study proposes a conceptual framework that constitutes the starting point of a fifteen-step procedure for the subsequent development of a destination interfirm coordination CI. The conceptual framework's goal is to clearly describe the phenomenon to be measured and its constituent parts, setting the ground for the identification of the individual indicators and relative weights. The CI will be functional for measuring coordination as a multidimensional phenomenon and for practitioners and policymakers' interpretation of the complex information it encompasses. Concurrently, the CI will enable a detailed analysis of each of its constituent dimensions and an assessment of their influence on overall coordination. The research questions guiding this study are "what procedure should be used to measure the multifaced concept of tourism firms' coordination?" and "what are the dimensions constituting the subject that is being measured?" To the best of the authors' knowledge this is the first attempt in the tourism and hospitality literature to first identify the dimensions underlying tourism firms' coordination in order to, second, combine them into a single measure.

The degree of coordination exhibited by tourism firms within a destination could be used as a means of evaluating the coordination levels of the destination as a whole. The latter represents a dimension of destination governance that holds the potential to become relevant in the near future, given the challenges that are increasingly pressuring the tourism industry and the interconnected necessity of the emergence of alternative organizational structures to preserve and increase the destination's competitiveness. Moreover, from a political and ethical perspective, tourism firms' coordination is likely to foster transformative relational encounters – or what Marujo et al. (2020) term "relational goods"- with beneficial outcomes not only for the parties involved in such dynamics but also with positive externalities for many other destination stakeholders excluded from the coordination process -such as residents, wildlife and natural habitats, non-tourism businesses- and a critical engagement crucial to sustainable tourism development (Boluk et al., 2017; Bramwell, 2010; Liburd, 2018).

Literature Review

Coordination in tourism

The theoretical economic underpinning of coordination strategies may be traced back to Williamson (1981), who theorized that any transaction incurs monitoring, controlling, and management costs, which can be reduced by coordination. As a result, firms' interdependencies can be managed through vertical or horizontal coordination mechanisms, depending on whether the interdependencies are across or within supply chain levels respectively (Barratt, 2004). Thus, through joint planning and execution of supply chain operations, individual firms can enjoy higher success than when operating separately (Simatupang & Sridharan, 2002).

This also applies to the tourism industry, which is considered coordination-intensive since its fragmented production system comprising highly heterogeneous firms has to supply tourists with a seamless experience despite the heterogeneity of the tourism product, the predominance of small and medium-sized enterprises, ownership specificity, the local character of tourism, and increasing international competition (Bregoli, 2013; Farsari, 2018; Maggioni et al., 2014). Hence, the competitiveness of a tourism destination relies on the ability of its firms to coordinate their complementary assets and pursue the common goal of successfully offering an integrated product (Ness et al., 2021; Perles-Ribes et al., 2017; Song, 2012; Zhang et al., 2009; Zhang et al., 2010; Zhao & Hou, 2022). Partnerships are therefore necessary to manage firms' different competencies and meet tourism demand. Multiple forms of partnerships exist within a destination, depending on whether coordination is limited to only some components of the tourism product or extended to all through the creation of an all-inclusive package (Andergassen et al., 2017).

Moreover, the tourism and hospitality literature has been investigating whether a destination's -and consequently its firms'- success depends on the destination's governance form. This debate originated by Flagestad and Hope's (2001, p. 8) distinction between "community model" and "corporate model" of destination organization. In the former "specialized individual independent business units operate in a decentralized way and where no unit has any dominant administrative power or dominant ownership within the destination", whereas in the latter "destination management is often represented or dominated by a business corporation" and is extended to include the recent paradigm of destination tourism organizations (DMO). This dichotomy resulted into a fertile ground for further investigations on the topic aiming not only to perform a categorization but rather to understand whether a successful tourist activity has to be tied to a well-established organizational structure or can emerge from the relationships between stakeholders (Beritelli et al., 2007). Starting from Beritelli's (2011) assertation that most of the existing research on coordination within a tourism destination has investigated the role played by local institutions, the present study focuses on coordination dynamics and strategies originating from tourism firms rather than from a centralized node. As previously mentioned, tourism firms are characterized, among others, by interdependence and resource exchange. Zooming on their formal and informal relationships may be an interesting lens through which study the complementarity of the tourism product and the dynamics originating from it.

To facilitate the reading of this paper, the term "coordination" has been exclusively adopted to encompass the various relational dynamics and strategies employed by tourism firms. It is important to note that within the tourism and hospitality literature, different terms such as cooperation, collaboration, co-opetition, and coordination have been used to describe these dynamics, resulting in a fragmented and inconsistent body of knowledge (Messori and Volo, forthcoming). However, since all these different "convey a sense of cooperation, the involvement of more than one entity, and to some degree common objectives" (Plummer et al., 2008, p. 504), this paper has chosen to utilize the umbrella concept of "coordination", drawing from the economic literature.

Method

Most studies that build a CI follow a structured approach based on the guidelines produced for this purpose by the OECD and the JRC (2008). This study adopts the extension proposed by Mendola and Volo (2017), tailored to the context of tourism research. The steps outlined by Mendola and Volo are as follows:

1. explicit definition of the construct;
2. choice of a theoretical framework;
3. identification of the dimensions;
4. identification of the sub-dimensions;
5. selection of variables;
6. number of the individual indicators;
7. univariate analysis of the individual indicators;
8. multivariate analysis of the individual indicators;
9. imputation of missing data;
10. transformations for normalization;
11. weighting
12. aggregation function;

13. robustness check and sensitivity analysis;
14. validity test;
15. backward decomposition.

As stated in the introduction, this study will proceed through steps 1 to 2, accurately defining the construct to be measured and establishing a theoretical framework to support the subsequent development of the CI. The dimensions of this study are derived from Messori and Volo's (forthcoming) systematic literature review on relational dynamics among tourism firms. In their systematic review of the existing tourism management and tourism economics literature on the topic the authors present several dimensions, some of which are herein used to create a framework and some useful propositions. This allows us to identify the various sub-groups constituting destination interfirm coordination and develop their linkages.

Results

The results of this study can be organized into a theoretical framework of six dimensions and six fundamental propositions, each corresponding to a sub-group of dimensions of the framework offering the basis for a holistic conceptualization of destination interfirm coordination and the subsequent construction of a CI.

Proximity: The spark to coordination is often before one's eyes

Within a tourism destination, the co-location of co-producing firms (Haugland et al., 2011) plays a key role in fostering coordination dynamics and strategies between tourism firms (Czernek, 2013; Czernek-Marszalek, 2021; Yang, 2018). This holds not only for the greatest but also for minor attractions, as attractions close to one another are more likely to meet tourist demand under time constraints (Czernek, 2013; Yang, 2018). Furthermore, firms' geographic proximity enables them to benefit from agglomeration economies and, among others, get access to skilled labor, lower transaction costs, share the costs of specialized labor, infrastructures, and marketing, and foster the exchange of information, knowledge, technology, and learning processes (Camison et al., 2016). However, to coordinate and integrate resources and activities, firms' ease of contact is necessary (Aarstad et al., 2015; Camison et al., 2016). Hence, an active engagement in coordination is also dependent upon the social connection of the parties involved, which is in turn influenced by the frequency of stakeholder participation in events, workshops, and workgroups (Pechlaner & Volgger, 2012; Waligo et al., 2013).

In this context, trust (Beritelli, 2011; Camison et al., 2016; Czernek, 2013; Czernek-Marszalek, 2020; Czernek-Marszalek, 2021; Fyall et al., 2012; Jensen, 2009; Maggioni et al., 2014; van der Zee et al., 2017; Yang, 2018), and cultural and business congruence (Czernek-Marszalek, 2021; Pechlaner & Volgger, 2012) play a key role. In contrast, distrust (Czernek, 2017; Fyall et al., 2012), tensions (van der Zee et al., 2017), or attitudes such as envy, egoism, rivalry, and parochialism can easily inhibit coordination (Pechlaner & Volgger, 2012). Moreover, coordination may be hindered by the costs associated with traveling to a meeting place or negotiating and closing contracts (Czernek, 2013; Czernek, 2017; Czernek-Marszalek, 2021). However, not only spatial distance but also the sociocultural and psychological distance between the individual actors hinders coordination (Pechlaner & Volgger, 2012).

Associationism: The process matters

According to Andergassen et al. (2017), coordination is most profitable when it is driven by the private sector rather than enforced top-down by policymakers. Coordination can take place according to informal interactions (Beritelli, 2011; Maggioni et al., 2014) or formal agreements (Jensen, 2009), typically consisting of memberships in local, national, and international associations (Webb et al., 2021). According to Della Corte et al. (2021), formal agreements tend to accompany the early phases of the establishment of a partnership between tourism firms since they tend to be more cautious, fearing opportunistic behavior by their counterparts. Later, as the relationship matures, an atmosphere of trust develops, leading firms to opt for informal arrangements to cut administrative costs and accelerate decision-making processes.

Comparative advantage: or the power of attraction of resources

Firm complementarity is another key driver of destination interfirm coordination (Haugland et al., 2011). Because one firm rarely holds all the resources – defined by Crouch and Ritchie (1999) as a destination's comparative advantage- required to successfully supply a tourism product, coordination with a firm offering complementary goods or services enables it to do so (Della Corte et al., 2021; Wilke et al., 2019). However, some resources, such as tacit knowledge, are more difficult to access, especially if one of the involved parties is a family firm (Perles-Ribes et al., 2017).

Competitive advantage: no man is an island

Tourism competitiveness is not exclusively reliant on a destination's resources. All those supporting and qualifying factors, such as infrastructures, accessibility, enterprises, and safety, are necessary to use "a destination's resources efficiently and effectively over the long term" (Crouch & Ritchie, 1999, p. 143). Hence, in the context of coordination, learning, and gaining advice on doing business (Czernek-Marszalek, 2020) is an example of a relevant source of competitive advantage. The same applies to the successful management of the seasonality of tourist demand and employment (Czernek, 2017; Kuokkanen & Bouchon, 2021). If coordination might help firms improve their low-season performance, the large staff turnover deriving from the seasonality of employment implies, on the one hand, greater dissemination of knowledge, but, on the other hand, it also poses a barrier to knowledge diffusion and absorption because coordination agreements might terminate when employees or owners change jobs.

Co-production: evaluating the costs and benefits of coordination

Coordination benefits several parties. First, consumers are presented with a wider variety of goods and services (Andergassen et al., 2013). Then the destination witnesses higher employment rates (Pavlovich, 2014) and a better atmosphere because of improved social relations (Czakon & Czernek-Marszalek, 2021). Finally, the firms involved in coordination see their profits increase owing to a higher rate of product and process innovation as well as the functional benefits of bundling and network economies (Czakon & Czernek- Marszalek, 2021; Elvekrok et al., 2022; Maggioni et al., 2014; Zach et al. 2021). However, firms also must bear the additional costs associated with investing in coordination, meeting with partners, and monitoring their reputations (Czernek-Marszalek, 2021; Fyall et al., 2012). Therefore, before engaging in coordination, firms are found to perform a cost-benefit evaluation (Czernek-Marszalek, 2021; Pechlaner & Volgger, 2012).

Contextual factors: context matters

It seems intuitive that coordination depends on the political and economic setup. Hence, local, regional, national, and European policies aiming to allocate funds or other forms of support to coordinating firms provide a strong incentive and support for destination interfirm coordination (Czernek, 2013; Czernek-Marszalek, 2021). Changes in institutional factors, in tourism demand, environmental turbulence, increased competition, globalization, and technological progress (Czernek, 2013; Fong et al., 2018; Waligo et al.,

2013) are also considered relevant coordination antecedents, because firms are more likely to form close ties, and consequently coordinate, when they perceive uncertainty (Aarstad et al., 2015). Firms that actively expanded their networks were found to be more resilient and capable of adapting to changing circumstances, seizing opportunities, and mitigating risks (Pforr et al., 2014; van der Zee et al., 2017).

Conclusions

The recognition of coordination as a crucial factor in economic literature has led to an increasing number of studies exploring this concept in the field of tourism and hospitality research. However, despite this growing interest, to date, an instrument to measure the degree of coordination of tourism firms still needs to be developed. To address this gap, the present study builds upon the systematic assessment of the tourism and hospitality coordination literature conducted by Messori and Volo (forthcoming) and proposes a multidimensional conceptual framework to study coordination and support the construction of a CI. The conceptual framework has been organized into six propositions pertaining to proximity, associationism, competitive advantage, comparative advantage, co-production, and contextual factors. The construction of the composite indicator is the next step. This instrument can bring managers' attention to the importance of coordination with other tourism firms and encourage policymakers to consider implementing policies to promote coordination within tourism destinations. The main limitation in this work stems from data quality and availability, a problem typical of composite indicators due to the difficulty of collecting reliable measurements on many elementary indicators. Hence, data quality and availability will define and refine the next steps in constructing the CI.

References

Aarstad, J., Ness, H., & Haugland, S. A. (2015). Innovation, uncertainty, and inter-firm shortcut ties in a tourism destination context. *Tourism Management*, 48, 354-361.

Andergassen, R., Candela, G., & Figini, P. (2013). An economic model for tourism destinations: Product sophistication and price coordination. *Tourism Management*, 37, 86-89.

Andergassen, R., Candela, G., & Figini, P. (2017). The management of tourism destinations. *Tourism Economics*, 23(1), 49-65.

Barratt, M. (2004). Understanding the meaning of collaboration in the supply chain. *Supply Chain Management*, 9(1), 30-42.

Beritelli, P. (2011). Cooperation among prominent actors in a tourist destination. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(2), 607-629.

Beritelli, P., Bieger, T., & Laesser, C. (2007). Destination governance: Using corporate governance theories as a foundation for effective destination management. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46, 96-107.

Bramwell, B. (2010). Participative planning and governance for sustainable tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 35(3), 239-249.

Bregoli, I. (2013). Effects of DMO Coordination on Destination Brand Identity: A Mixed-Method Study on the City of Edinburgh. *Journal of Travel Research*, 52(2), 212-224.

Boluk, K., Cavaliere, C. T., & Higgins-Desbiolles, F. (2017). Critical thinking to realize sustainability in tourism systems: Reflecting on the 2030 sustainable development goals. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(9), 1201-1204.

Camisón, C., Puig-Denia, A., Forés, B., Fabra, M. E., Muñoz, A., & Muñoz Martínez, C. (2015). The Importance of Internal Resources and Capabilities and Destination Resources to Explain Firm Competitive Position in the Spanish Tourism Industry. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(4), 341-356.

Crouch, G., & Ritchie, J. (1999). Tourism, Competitiveness, and Societal Prosperity. *Journal of Business Research*, 44(3), 137-152.

Czakon, W., & Czernek-Marszałek, K. (2021). Competitor Perceptions in Tourism Coopetition. *Journal of Travel Research*, 60(2), 312-335.
Czernek, K. (2013). Determinants of cooperation in a tourist region. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 40, 83- 104.
Czernek, K. (2017). Tourism features as determinants of knowledge transfer in the process of tourist cooperation. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 20(2), 204-220.
Czernek-Marszałek, K. (2020). The overembeddedness impact on tourism cooperation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 81, Article 102852.
Czernek-Marszałek, K. (2021). The sources and components of social embeddedness as determinants of business cooperation in a tourist destination. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 19, Article 100534.
Della Corte, V., Aria, M., del Gaudio, G., Barney, J. B., Cobanoglu, C., & Sepe, F. (2021). The relevance of relational capabilities in collaborative decisions. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33(12), 4391-4417.
Elvekrok, I., Veflen, N., Scholderer, J., & Sørensen, B. T. (2022). Effects of network relations on destination development and business results. *Tourism Management*, 88, Article 104402.
Farsari, I. (2018). A structural approach to social representations of destination collaboration in Idre, Sweden. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 71, 1-12.
Flagestad, A., & Hope, C. A. (2001). Strategic success in winter sports destinations: a sustainable value creation perspective. *Tourism Management*, 25(5), 445-461.
Fong, V. H. I., Wong, I. A., & Hong, J. F. L. (2018). Developing institutional logics in the tourism industry through coopetition. *Tourism Management*, 66, 244-262.
Fyall, A., Garrod, B., & Wang, Y. (2012). Destination collaboration: A critical review of theoretical approaches to a multi-dimensional phenomenon. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 1(1-2), 10-26.
Haugland, S.A., Ness, H., Gronseth, B.O., & Aarstad, J. (2011). Development of tourism destinations: An Integrated Multilevel Perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 38(1), 268-290.
Hoskins, B.L., & Mascherini, M. (2009). Measuring Active Citizenship through the Development of a Composite Indicator. *Social Indicators Research*, 90, 459-488.
Jensen, O. (2009). The activation of local service suppliers by incoming tour operators in a “developing” destination - the case of Madagascar. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 12(2), 133-163.
Kuokkanen, H., & Bouchon, F. (2020). When team play matters: Building revenue management in tourism destinations. *Tourism Economics*, 27(2), 379-397.
Liburd, J. (2018). Understanding collaboration and sustainable tourism development. In J. Liburd and D. Edwards (Eds.), *Collaboration for sustainable tourism development* (pp. 8–34). Goodfellow Publishers.
Maggioni, I., Marcoz, E. M., & Mauri, C. (2014). Segmenting networking orientation in the hospitality industry: An empirical research on service bundling. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 42, 192-201.
Marujo, H. A., Neto, L. M., & Casais, M. (2020). Enhancing collective happiness in the city: Felicitas publica and the availability of relational goods. *Journal of Urban Regeneration and Renewal*, 13(3), 308– 319.
Mazziotta, M., & Pareto, A. (2017). Synthesis of Indicators: The Composite Indicators Approach. In Maggino, F. (Ed.) Complexity in Society: From Indicators Construction to their Synthesis. *Social Indicators Research Series*, 70. Springer, Cham.
Mendola, D., & Volo, S. (2017). Building composite indicators in tourism studies: Measurements and applications in tourism destination competitiveness. *Tourism Management*, 59, 541-553.
Messori, S., & Volo, S. Tourism Firms’ Coordination Unravelled: A Systematic Literature Review (forthcoming).
Michael, E. J. (2003). Tourism micro-clusters. *Tourism Economics*, 9(2), 133-145.
Ness, H., Haugland, S. A., & Aarstad, J. (2019). Interfirm resource integration in destination contexts. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(1), 66-81.
Novelli, M., Schmitz, B., & Spencer, T. (2006). Networks, clusters and innovation in tourism: A UK experience. *Tourism Management*, 27 (6), 1141-1152.
OECD-JRC (2008). Handbook on Constructing Composite Indicators: Methodology and user guide. Paris: OECD.
Pavlovich, K. (2014). A rhizomic approach to tourism destination evolution and transformation. *Tourism Management*, 41, 1-8.

Pechlaner, H., & Volgger, M. (2012). How to promote cooperation in the hospitality industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 24(6), 925-945.

Perles-Ribes, J. F., Rodríguez-Sánchez, I., & Ramón-Rodríguez, A. B. (2015). Is a cluster a necessary condition for success? The case of Benidorm. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 20(15), 1575-1603.

Plummer, R., Kulczycki, C., & Stacey, C. (2006). How are we Working Together? A Framework to Assess Collaborative Arrangements in Nature-based Tourism. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 9(6), 499-515.

Pforr, C., Pechlaner, H., Volgger, M., & Thompson, G. (2014). Overcoming the Limits to Change and Adapting to Future Challenges: Governing the Transformation of Destination Networks in Western Australia. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(6), 760-777.

Schwab, K. (2019). *The Global Competitiveness Report*. World Economic Forum.

Simatupang, T.M., & Sridharan, R. (2002). The Collaborative Supply Chain. *The International Journal of Logistics Management*, 13(1), 15-30.

Song, H. (2012). *Tourism Supply Chain Management*. Routledge.

Stienmetz, J. L., & Fesenmaier, D.R. (2018). Destination value systems: Modeling visitor flow structure and economic impact. *Journal of Travel Research*, 58(8), 1249-1261.

UNDP, United Nations Development Programme (2014). *Human development report 2014*. United Nations.

van der Zee, E., Gerrets, A. M., & Vanneste, D. (2017). Complexity in the governance of tourism networks: Balancing between external pressure and internal expectations. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 6(4), 296-308.

Waligo, V. M., Clarke, J., & Hawkins, R. (2013). Implementing sustainable tourism: A multi-stakeholder involvement management framework. *Tourism Management*, 36, 342-353.

Webb, T., Beldona, S., Schwartz, Z., & Bianco, S. (2021). Growing the pie: an examination of coopetition benefits in the US lodging industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33(12), 4355-4372.

Williamson, O. E. (1981). The Economics of Organization: The Transaction Cost Approach. *American Journal of Sociology*, 87(3), 548-577.

Wilke, E. P., Costa, B. K., Freire, O. B. D. L., & Ferreira, M. P. (2019). Interorganizational cooperation in tourist destination: Building performance in the hotel industry. *Tourism Management*, 72, 340-351.

Yang, Y. (2018). Understanding tourist attraction cooperation: An application of network analysis to the case of Shanghai, China. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 8, 396-411.

Zach, F.J, & Hill, T.L. (2017). Network, knowledge and relationship impacts on innovation in tourism destinations. *Tourism Management*, 62, 196-207.

Zach, F. J., Schnitzer, M., & Falk, M. (2021). Product diversification and isomorphism: The case of ski resorts and “me-too” innovation. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 90, Article 103267.

Zhang, X., Song, H., & Huang, G. Q. (2009). Tourism supply chain management: A new research agenda. *Tourism Management*, 30(3), 345-358.

Zhang, X., Song, H., Huang, G. Q., & Chen, W. (2010). Game-Theoretic Approach to Tourism Supply Chain Coordination Under Demand Uncertainty for Package Holidays. *Tourism Analysis*, 15(3), 287-298.

TRACK 3 – Educational Realities

3.1. Hope through 'HOTS': Providing international support to a Ukraine university using the Hotel Operations Tactics and Strategy (HOTS) simulation platform

Ian Elsmore | Sheffield Hallam University, UK
David Graham | Sheffield Hallam University, UK
Oleg Shevchenko | Kyiv National University of Technologies and Design , Ukraine

Abstract

Gamification is an established method of delivering applied real world learning. This paper will discuss and report a collaboration between Sheffield Hallam University staff and their counterparts at the Kyiv National University of Technologies and Design in the Ukraine to deliver a learning experience through Zoom using the Hotel Operations Tactics and Strategy (HOTS) simulation platform. This was a new learning experience for the Ukrainian students who enjoyed working in teams to make strategic decisions and appreciate the complexities of managerial decision making. In doing so they had the opportunity to work internationally with students and staff in the UK in real time.

Keywords: Gamification; Ukraine; Applied-learning; Decision-making; Cooperation

Introduction

On the 24th of February 2022 Russian Forces began a full-scale invasion of the Ukraine (New York Times, 2023) plunging the country into a devastating conflict that caused the loss of life on both sides and untold damage to Ukraine's infrastructure. Tens of thousands of people have been killed and injured, forcing millions of Ukrainians from their homes, and the country has sustained tens of billions of dollars' worth of damage. Faced with this situation UK Universities reached out to offer support and solidarity to their compatriots in the Ukraine. Sheffield Hallam University (SHU) were matched by Universities UK with Kyiv National University of Technologies and Design (KNUTD) an applied university with a similar suite of courses.

One area where this support became possible was through collaboration between staff from SHU's Tourism and Hospitality team and KNUTD. Although not an obvious priority for a country in conflict, tourism and hospitality has a role in post war reconstruction (Hall, 2002; Kimbo, 2006; Reka, 2017) and knowledge of the industry could also provide students increased opportunity for international mobility. Providing effective remote international collaboration is always challenging and alongside the normal issues of language and time zones, were the added difficulties of potential power outages and the hazard of life-threatening air strikes. This paper discusses how an inter-university learning opportunity was delivered within this challenging context and evaluates the reality of the learning experience of the Ukraine students.

Gamification as a learning tool

Learning cannot occur without experiences. You can only learn to ride a bicycle by getting on it and learning to balance. Imagine only having a theoretical lesson of `how to ride a bike` before going onto the main road for the first time (Graham, et al., 2022). It is clear this is a high-risk approach that for the majority would not work and that it is better to develop the necessary applied skills through experiential learning in a risk-free environment. As Dewy (1963) discussed "all genuine education comes about through experiences." (p. 25). Experiential learning, places life experiences as a core necessity in the learning process and with it, the premise that "knowledge is created through the transformation of experiences" (Kolb, 2015, p. 25). Online business simulations are one way of providing experiential learning in higher education (Lohmann, et al., 2019). Through simulations, students can experience the processes of managerial decision-making without the associated risks (McGrath et al., 2020). SHU students studying International Hospitality Business Management in their undergraduate degree, undertake a module that revolves around the Hotel Operations Tactics and Strategy (HOTS) business management simulation package. This is a Windows-based platform, devised for academic and training purposes, where the user makes decisions on the management and strategy of a virtual hotel which are processed in real time and provide a real-life feel to the process (Douglas et al., 2008; Martin & McEvoy, 2003). As with an authentic hotel, HOTS demands that multiple aspects of operations are considered and decisions have to made regarding menus, staffing, facilities and marketing, albeit in a slightly limited way. Furthermore, it considers external factors such as market size and competition (Brann & Kulick, 2002). Previous studies into business gamification have demonstrated how simulations perform well as an effective learning vehicle, delivering a challenging learning environment and a dynamic learning experience for its participants (Martin & McEvoy, 2011).

The simulation gamifies the process by creating competition between the participants. Decisions made by the 'operator of one hotel' influence and in turn are influenced by decisions made by the other 'hoteliers'. Martin and McEvoy (2003) suggest that HOTS as an alternative teaching tool can provide a fulfilling and practical learning experience. One that is effective in supporting students in developing problem-solving, decision making and general hotel management skills (Pratt & Hahn, 2016; Ampountolas, Shaw & James, 2019; Graham et al., 2022). By providing a dynamic training and development experience that simulates the management of a service business, it allows students to develop and apply their knowledge of business strategy, marketing and sales, finance, operations, and personnel. As the simulation can be run to represent up to five years of training it enables an understanding of the holistic nature of operating in a real-world environment and the need to make both proactive and reactive business decisions (Papaioannou, 2022).

Ukraine Case Study

While the simulation is hotel based and a knowledge of the Tourism and Hospitality industry is beneficial, it is not necessary, allowing students of other subjects to experience business decision making in a safe environment. When using the simulation students are better placed when they have an underpinning knowledge of financial report interpretation to enable decision making to be made effectively. Indeed, many of the students participating from KNUTD had limited Tourism and Hospitality knowledge and were studying subject areas. The simulation was run from the UK and delivered via the Zoom communications platform (SupportZoom.US, 2022). Six, two-hour sessions were scheduled with the first session providing an explanation and demonstration by SHU staff with KNUTD staff translating some of the key points into Ukrainian. The following week the KNUTD students were divided into teams with some on campus in Kyiv, while others joined online from other locations throughout Ukraine. For this and the remaining sessions, Zoom breakout rooms were used for some of the time allowing students to meet in smaller groups, to allow collaboration and discussion away from the main session (SupportZoom.US, 2003). During weeks two and three, the students could log into HOTS outside of the formal sessions to implement decisions. In these weeks six cycles were made occurring on three days at set times of 12.00pm and 6.00pm GMT. With time for delivery limited to 12 hours over the six weeks, there was only the opportunity to simulate two years of operation. However, this was enough to provide the students the opportunity to make decisions based on pricing, staffing, finances, customer satisfaction ratings, and even hotel food menus and start to understand the teach the core learning regarding report analysis and interpretation.

In the first weeks it became obvious to both the UK and Ukrainian staff that language was a major issue and although many of the Ukraine students had an excellent command of English (Fazakerley, 2022), they were not confident communicating with the British lecturers which slowed proceedings. For the sessions in the final two weeks SHU students with experience of the simulation volunteered to help the Ukrainian students. Joining the online sessions the SHU students shared with the Ukrainian students which of the key metrics they had found useful and the type of decisions they had made when previously playing. This practical peer to peer accelerated the understanding of the Ukraine students and they appeared more comfortable interacting and seeking advice from their fellow students than the lecturing team.

Post Delivery Evaluation

A post-delivery evaluation was deemed to be necessary to understand the impact of the work undertake and the value in supporting the Ukrainian students through the delivery of using an online gaming simulation and the remote delivery from Sheffield. The aim of this evaluation was to assess from a student perspective:

- If the use of HOTS had been successful
- What factors they had found challenging.
- Aspects of the experience they had enjoyed.

To achieve this a quantitative electronic questionnaire using Google forms was deployed. This was sent to the 72 Ukraine students who had participated in the simulation via email. The questionnaire comprised 20 questions, 5 of which were open questions and was developed from the standard module evaluation questionnaire used at SHU. The first question asked students to identify which sessions they had attended, and others used attitude scales to indicate agreement with focused statements (Veal, 2011). In total 44 responses were received representing a response rate of 61%. Considering that this was non-credit bearing activity, over 50% of the students who replied had attended three or more of the scheduled sessions. Interestingly, for those that had attended only one session, it was not always session one, but a later session. Suggesting students from peer-to-peer discussion valued the engagement with the simulation and the international element of the opportunity.

Findings

Of the fifteen closed questions asked, three prominent findings are discussed here.

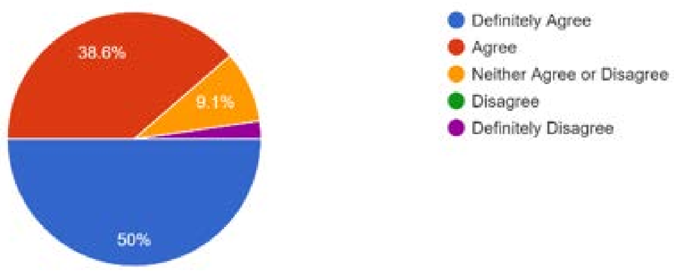


Figure 1. My understanding of making financial decisions for hotels has increased because of HOTS

This understanding was initially gained through negative financial outcome in the game. This demonstrating the advantages of using a simulation to provide a risk-free learning experience. Poor decision making meant that three groups had to extend their overdraft within the first year, to enable them to continue trading. Unsound investment decisions and spending on operational costs, without considering the impact on cash flow resulted in excessive overdrafts of 5 million Euros. Once the SHU students began assisting the KNUTD teams, the overdraft was considerably reduced as improved financial data analysis and operational knowledge helped shape decisions in a positive manner. Enabling the poor performing hotels to reduce their overdrafts and service their debt, while those hotels trading with limited profits could maximise sales and increase profit making. Further demonstrating the benefits of peer-to-peer learning and experiential learning.

Alongside the Industry based learning experience from partaking in HOTS, it also provided the Ukrainian students the opportunity to interact with each other. This was something that the following chart shows was appreciated by the Ukrainian students. It should be noted that some KNUTD students were dispersed around Ukraine, and working remotely on the situation enabled them to engage and interact in a manner that they had been denied as a result of the conflict.

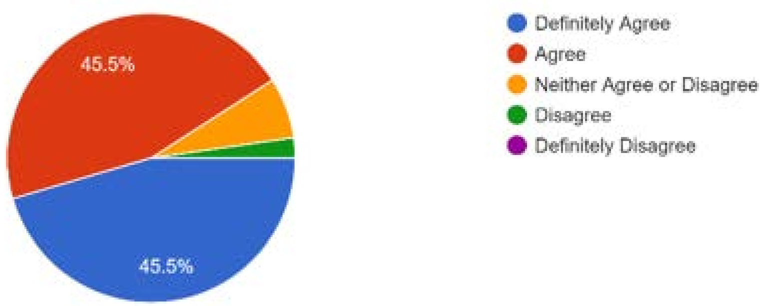


Figure 2. HOTS provided me with opportunities to interact with other students

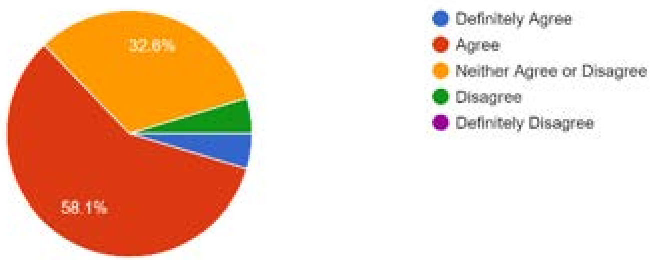


Figure 3. I found that the level of knowledge required to work on HOTS was not adequate prior to undertaking the simulation

Figure 3 illustrates the difficulties students experienced with their understanding. HOTS requires pre-delivery preparation time to read the supporting environment data, reports and the business environment scenario in which the simulation is set. Efficient preparation enables the teams to make better informed decisions and understand the challenges within the simulation and develop a strategy to achieve the vision and mission for their hotel. The level of pre-reading undertaken by the majority of KNUTD students was insufficient and as a result year one decisions were weak, leading to poor outcomes. It was not until the SHU students were assisted with the data interpretation and decision making, that positive trading was observed.

The open response questions asked the students specifically about what they had liked about using HOTS and what aspects they did not like. The students were also asked to comment on what they would do differently if they were to participate in the simulation again. With the e fourth open question asking if they had enjoyed working with the students from SHU. Overall, the comments were positive, with most of the students responding that they had enjoyed the experience. With students commenting on their experience of using HOTS as a learning tool:

> "Currently, for Ukrainian students, this is a new approach to the educational process, which moves the standard methods of educational work, but the results are much better, I do not see any problems."

Also, about the qualities of the simulation itself, with comments such as:

> "Most of all I liked the quality of the simulation. How much detail was worked out, the backstory. The ability to make completely unique decisions in relation to other players."

And

> "I liked the fact that HOTS helped me understand the very system of doing business and how to make the right decisions. taking into account literally everything that can have a bad or good effect on the result."

These would suggest that for these students it allowed them to develop business analysis skills in an applied manner, as suggested by Pratt and Hahn, (2016) and Ampountolas, Shaw and James (2019). This also indicates that although Hospitality based, the simulation can be appreciated by students from a variety of backgrounds.

The number of negative comments was limited and mostly focused on the difficulties posed by language with comments such as: "Difficulty in understanding, due to poor knowledge of English". One of the other issues to come out was the lack of time spent on the simulation:

> "I didn't like that we didn't have much time, because only by the end of the game I understand the decisions that I needed to make".

There were only 12 hours scheduled to deliver the simulation, and as the simulation was delivered in a voluntary nature this needed to fit around the timetabled commitments of staff and students both in the Ukraine and in the UK and the 2-hour time difference. This was further exacerbated by the language issue requiring translation of instructions during the first two sessions and to a lesser extent issues with reliable access through the internet. This is one of the general issues associated with simulation-based learning with Edelheim and Ueda (2007) suggesting that one of the main constraints is the time involved to demonstrate how it works and develop a suitable familiarity to gain the most from the experience. This aspect of familiarity is reflected in the answers provided by students responding to the question of would they like to run it again were again positive and focused on student being able to use and demonstrate their improved understanding:

> "Yes!!! Because I know what you would fix. I know how I would act. Because of the game, I know what mistakes I made. And I'd really like to play some more."

And

> "I would like to test my skills in a more aggressive confrontation, as we evolve through competition, and next time try a different approach to hotel management. So, of course, yes!"

This shows the level of engagement shown by the students and evidences the learning experience:

> "I would like to because I have a plan for what I'm going to do. I realized my mistake, and I want to fix it and see how it goes."

Providing the fulfilling and practical learning experience that Matin and McEvoy (2003) accredit to the use of simulation as a learning tool. Once again, the students confirmed the issues relating to familiarity and preparation (Edelheim & Ueda, 2007) when commenting on what they would do differently stating that they would "Get acquainted with the background documents in more detail" and "Spend more time preparing for the game". When asked about working with SHU students again the majority of responses were positive and were heavily focused upon how the input from the Hallam students had helped their own understanding:

> "I'd love to work with them again, because their advice helped me understand the game more."

> "Yes, because it gives you the opportunity to get experience from more experienced users of the game and makes you want to pay more attention to winning".

> "I would like to work with SHU students as simulation with other students creates a competitive spirit and an interest in being better than others".

From the perspective of the Hallam students, they found that the time they spent online became a discussion of the strategies they had used and which of the multiple information sources they focused on when they played the simulation and how this had affected their own success. This could be regarded as a positive learning outcome for the UK students, as it encouraged them to vocalise their knowledge and demonstrate the kind of leadership, negotiation and problem-solving skills that are regarded as essential outcomes from managerial courses (Pratt & Hahn, 2016). Again, the constraint with the interaction between the home students and their Ukrainian counterparts came from the language barrier, though this was less of an issue than when the UK staff tried to engage with the students in the online break out rooms.

The final question allowed students to make any general comments and again those that completed this were positive in their responses. Commenting again on the use of the simulation as an interesting way of learning:

> "I am grateful for the opportunity to participate in such a simulation, because it was very interesting and hopefully will be useful to me in the future".

Suggesting that they had enjoyed the experience and in agreement with previous comments would like the opportunity to engage with similar learning opportunities again given the chance:

> "Thank you very much for the experience that gave us this project. I would like to participate in such events more often. It was interesting experience."

One of the things that had come up in discussion over the course of the four weeks that the simulation ran was the opportunity to listen to English speakers in conversation not only for the content but the language attributes. The following comment applies not only to content but delivery: "I liked listening to people who understand this, thereby improving knowledge".

Conclusion

One of the criticisms levelled at the use of simulations is that strong performance in the environment, while maybe a good way of achieving experience of business in a risk-free manner, it is not always the most effective manner of assessing module learning outcomes (Gopinath & Sawyer, 1999), however in this case as a free-standing activity it could be regarded as a success. From the comments and the general positive results to the questionnaire, the students enjoyed the experience and found it beneficial. There was clearly a knowledge gap in business acumen, and this was not rectified until the SHU students acted as business decision facilitators to question the decisions and work through some of the financial reports and the impact that they were having. The results of the evaluation conducted were supported by comments from KNUTD staff who reported the students were engaged out of class and were keen to discuss informally the sort of strategies they could implement to improve performance.

Despite issues with available time and infrastructure delivering the simulation online worked effectively and provided an opportunity for interaction between the institution, staff, and students in a manner that as far as possible, overcame the inherent difficulties being experienced in the Ukraine. There is a desire to use the experience from this first delivery attempt to continue with HOTS as the basis for international collaboration between KNUTD and SHU moving forward. For the SHU staff it was a very humbling experience to be sitting in the safety of university offices in the UK talking to colleagues, both staff and students, logging in under the constant risk of missile strikes in a country ravaged by war.

References

Ampountolas, A., Shaw, G. & James, S. (2019). Active learning to improve self-confidence and decision-making skills through the use of hotel simulation. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 31(3), 125-138.

Bigg, M. (2023, February 24). How Russia's war in Ukraine has unfolded, month by month, *New York Times*. Retrieved from: https://www.nytimes.com/article/ukraine-russia-war-timeline.html

Brann, D. M., & Kulick, B. C. (2002). Simulation of restaurant operations using the restaurant modeling studio. *Proceedings of the Winter Simulation Conference*, December, 2(1), 1448-1453.

Dewey, J., (1963). *Experience and Education*. New York: Collier Books (original publication 1938).

Douglas, A., Miller, B., Kwansa, F., & Cummings, P. (2008). Students' perceptions of the usefulness of a virtual simulation in post-secondary hospitality education. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 7(3), 1-19.

Fazackerley, A. (2022, May 14). 'Giving hope': UK universities twin with struggling Ukraine counterparts. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from: https://www.theguardian.com/education/2022/may/14/giving-hope-uk-universities-twin-with-struggling-ukraine-counterparts?CMP=Share_iOSApp_Other

Edelheim, J., & Ueda, D. (2007). Effective use of simulations in hospitality management education–A case study. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport and Tourism Education*, 6(1), 18-28.

Gopinath, C., & Sawyer, J. E. (1999). Exploring the learning from an enterprise simulation. *Journal of Management development*, 18(5), 477-489.

Graham, D., Ellerby, J. & Dinsdale, N. (2022). Gamification: Teaching a Practice-based Subject Virtually for Transformative Impact. In B. A. Brown & A. Irons (Eds.) *The Emerald Handbook of Higher Education in a Post-Covid World: New Approaches and Technologies for Teaching and Learning* (pp. 107-128). Emerald Publishing Limited.

Hall, D. (2002). Brand development, tourism and national identity: The re-imaging of former Yugoslavia. Journal of Brand Management, 9(4), 323-334.

Kiambo, W. (2005). The emerging role of tourism in Mozambique's post-war reconstruction. *Africa insight*, 35(4), 142-148.

Kolb, D. A. (2015). *Experiential Learning: Experience as the Source of Learning and Development*. Upper Saddle River, New Jersey: Pearson.

Lohmann, G., Pratt, M., Benckendorff, P., & Stricklandet, P. (2019). Online business simulations: authentic teamwork, learning outcomes, and satisfaction. *Higher Education*, 77(3), 455-472.

Martin, D., & McEvoy, B. (2003). Business simulations: A balanced approach to tourism education. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 15(6), 336-339.

Papaioannou, M. (2022). The importance and effectiveness of business simulation programs as teaching tools, for enhancing university hospitality graduates' workforce preparedness and knowledge. Unpublished Conference Paper, CHME 2022 Edinburgh Napier University.

Pratt, M. A., & Hahn, S. (2016). Enhancing hospitality student learning through the use of a business simulation. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 19, 10-18.

Reka, S. (2017). Tourism governance in post-war transition: The case of kosova (Order No. 28037794). Available from Dissertations & Theses @ Sheffield Hallam University; ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (2418800898). Retrieved from https://hallam.idm.oclc.org/login?url=https://www.proquest.com/dissertations-theses/tourism-governance-post-war-transition-case/docview/2418800898/se-2

SupportZoom.US (2022). What is Zoom Video Conferencing? Updated, September 2022, Online, Accessed 20/3/2023 https://support.zoom.us/hc/en-us/articles/4420426401037-What-is-Zoom-Video-Conferencing-

SupportZoom.US (2023). Participating in breakout rooms. Updated, January 2023, Online, Accessed 20/3/2023. https://support.zoom.us/hc/en-us/articles/115005769646-Participating-in-breakout-rooms

Veal, A. J. (2017). *Research methods for leisure and tourism*. Pearson UK.

3.2. Diversity, equity, and inclusion in the hospitality and tourism education: How well are we preparing the leaders of tomorrow?

Christina Klearchou Dimitriou | New Mexico State University, USA

Abstract

The hospitality and tourism industry has been involved in expensive lawsuits for all kinds of discrimination, exclusion, and inequalities on a global scale. The need to promote diversity, equity, and inclusion is extremely important. So, what are we doing as hospitality and tourism educators to address that and bridge the gap? The purpose of this paper is to examine the extent to which American hospitality and tourism universities achieve that goal and how well they are addressing DEI issues in their classes and curriculum. It aims to get academicians to take a good, hard look at their curricula and reassess what is important to be successful in this industry, what the priorities and the needs of the industry are, and act accordingly. It is our responsibility to provide the industry with students who will honor our industry and the institutions they graduate from through their responsible, decision-making, attitudes, and behavior.

Keywords: Diversity; Equity; Inclusion; Hospitality and tourism education; Curriculum

Introduction

In recent years, the hospitality and tourism industry has been involved in numerous unethical scandals and lawsuits related to all kinds of discrimination, exclusion, and inequalities on a global scale. "The number of cases reaching the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) is alarming and the punitive measures and fines posed are huge. Considering the associated bad publicity and damage to the brand image, it becomes apparent that this issue should not be taken lightly" (Dimitriou & Tin Tun Kirkpatrick, 2023, p. 1). Indeed, this is clearly one of the strongest challenges that the industry is facing aside from the employee turnover intention which has been a constant headache for years. It also puts a lot of pressure on the hospitality and tourism academia as it raises critical questions such as "Are we doing enough to prepare the leaders of tomorrow to be successful and help the industry overcome its problems?" and "What can we do on our part to ameliorate this situation?" As hospitality and tourism educators, we have a huge responsibility to ensure that not only do we stay current with industry issues, but that we also address those critical industry issues in our classroom and in our curriculum to ensure a high quality of education for our graduating students/graduates. Moreover, we know better than anyone else that we are serving and working with the most diverse industry in the world. Not only in terms of our diverse workforce, but also in the extremely diverse clientele, our guests, that flood our hospitality and tourism lodging properties, restaurants, airlines, cruise ships, car rental companies, etc. No matter where our academic institution is situated and what type of students we have, whether domestic or international, the kind of gender, nationality, sex orientation, any disability they may identify with, it is our duty to teach them first and foremost how to embrace their differences while they are students at our campuses and how they can do so as industry professionals upon graduation.

The purpose of this paper is to examine the extent to which American hospitality and tourism educational institutions achieve that goal and how well they are performing in addressing DEI (Diversity, Equity, and Inclusion) issues in their classes and their curriculum. The goal is to help bridge the gap that exists between the hospitality and tourism industry and academia, especially when it comes to these very critical and sensitive issues and help provide the industry with students who will honor our industry and the institutions they graduate from through their responsible, ethical, and sound decision-making, attitudes, and behavior.

Literature Review

Defining diversity, equity, and inclusion

Different universities offer their own definitions, approaches, and perspectives on DEI. For example, Indiana University Bloomington (2023) defines equity as "the fair treatment of individuals, which includes actively addressing the disparities and biases that make it impossible/difficult for some individuals to succeed" (p. 1). It also defines inclusion as "the creation of environments in which all individuals feel welcomed, respected, supported, and valued, so that they may fully participate; providing access for the people, experiences, identities, perspectives, backgrounds, and/or epistemologies who/that have been historically marginalized" and points out that "some people have issues with the idea of "inclusion," as it is often used in a way that reinforces traditional power structures" (p. 1). According to the University of Washington (2023), "diversity is more than a word, more than an ideal and more than the attainment of a particular quantifiable goal. Diversity is the realization of difference and of inequity and understanding of power and privilege. It is balanced by inclusion, the desire to create equal opportunity and further, realize that a diverse community is stronger, richer and more sustainable than one which actively, or passively, excludes people who are different. Diversity and inclusion create excellence" (p. 1). It also defines equity as "the fair treatment, access, opportunity and advancement for all people, while at the same time striving to identify and eliminate barriers that prevent the full participation of some groups. The principle of equity acknowledges that there are historically underserved and underrepresented populations and that fairness regarding these unbalanced conditions is necessary to provide equal opportunities to all groups" (p. 1). Ferris State University (2023) defines diversity as "the range of human differences, including but not limited to race, ethnicity, gender, gender identity, sexual orientation, age, social class, physical ability or attributes, religious or ethical values system, national origin, and political beliefs" (p. 1).

Miller et al. (2007) supported that "understanding and embracing diversity is of critical importance in today's increasingly multicultural and diverse society. The term diversity is often used when discussing people of different cultures. Diversity refers to the following cultural as well as physical dimensions which separate and distinguish us both as individuals and as groups: Culture, ethnic group, race, religion, language, age, gender, physical abilities, sexual orientation" (p. 79). It must be noted, though, that too often researchers and the industry itself forget the many different layers and dimensions of diversity and limit their DEI efforts by focusing only on gender (women as minorities) and race (mainly African Americans) issues. This is a common mistake that companies and institutions fall into, which hinders success and leads to narrow-minded and improper implementation of DEI. The author contends that it is time to start looking at ourselves and realize that we all come from different backgrounds, beliefs, religions, etc. and join forces to educate our youth at hospitality and tourism departments. Therefore, diversity affects us all and is important to each and every one of us both professionally and personally. "When a group or segment is excluded or oppressed, all of us are denied. For business and communities to not only survive, but to thrive, each of us needs to be aware and sensitive to all members of the community. Our communities are rich in resources. When all segments are respected and utilized, it benefits everyone involved" (Miller et al., 2007, p. 82).

Our second obligation is to understand and appreciate that our classrooms have become more and more diverse, welcoming students from different backgrounds, ethnicities, and races, with different learning levels (Dimitriou, 2020). So, promoting and supporting DEI starts in the classroom and serves as a powerful tool that allows students to have first-hand experiences with DEI and actively learn and participate in methods and techniques that promote and support it. This also means that our teaching should not be confined to what the theory, research, and literature say about DEI, but to move to the actual application and active implementation of these very important concepts. As researchers ourselves, we also do have a very clear understanding of the benefits deriving from supporting DEI in the workplace ranging from reducing turnover, and increases loyalty to the organization (Overproof, 2022) and providing better service to customers, reduced costs, increased productivity, improved quality of management (Woods & King, 2010) to enjoying smooth collaboration and high levels of innovation in these kinds of workplaces (Darnell, 2020). This argument provides us with an additional, powerful reason to place emphasis on DEI practices in our teaching.

Possible reasons for the lack of DEI courses in the hospitality and tourism curriculum

Since the understanding and realization of the importance of focusing on DEI initiatives and practices have been established, the need to examine the possible reasons and obstacles that stand in the way should also be examined. Two key factors are suggested below, as follows:

Professors' concerns

Many hospitality and tourism professors recognize the value in allowing the classroom to be a space for the discussion of controversial societal topics but feel very uncomfortable managing the resulting conflicts. As Grant (2020) noted: "Conversations about race, class, sexuality and other identities are often called "difficult" or "uncomfortable." Mastering these conversations is necessary, it is often said, because shifting student demographics in higher education, including the increased enrollment of historically underrepresented students, require faculty members to gain facility discussing identity. This rationale is well intentioned as, on the surface, it suggests that faculty must adopt culturally responsive pedagogical practices to meet student needs" (p. 1). However, many hospitality and tourism educators cannot overcome their fear of discussing or addressing these delicate, sensitive terms and concepts in the classroom. Based on her 20+ years of academic and administrative experience at universities around the world, the author suggests the following reasons that contribute to this strong hesitation:

1. Fear of offending students: Professors may worry that discussing controversial DEI issues could offend some students or trigger emotional reactions.
2. Lack of expertise: Professors may feel that they lack the necessary expertise in DEI issues or philosophy to teach the subject effectively. Especially, if they never attended, experiences and were not exposed to these issues before.
3. Complexity of the subject matter: DEI issues are complex and sensitive or also known as 'touchy' subjects that can be challenging to teach in a way that is accessible to all students.
4. Fear of controversy: Professors may worry that opening the door to discussing and addressing DEI could spark controversy or criticism, which could negatively impact their reputation or career.
5. Time constraints: Professors may feel that there is not enough time in their curriculum to adequately cover DEI without sacrificing other important topics.

6. Lack of resources: Some universities may not have the necessary resources or support for professors to teach DEI effectively or may completely discourage that altogether.
7. Difficulty in assessing learning outcomes: It can be difficult to assess student learning outcomes in DEI courses, which can be a challenge for professors.
8. Resistance from colleagues: Some professors may encounter resistance or skepticism from colleagues who do not see the value in teaching DEI or who are afraid or uncomfortable themselves stepping into these 'deep' waters.
9. Fear of being perceived as preachy: Professors may worry that teaching about DEI could come across as preachy or moralizing, which could turn students off, lead to their lack of interest, and cause them to negatively evaluate the course altogether.
10. Personal beliefs: Some professors may have strong personal beliefs about DEI that could make it challenging to teach the subject in a balanced and objective way.
11. Fear of being wrong: As discussed earlier, DEI can be quite a subjective and contested field, which can make some professors hesitant to take a clear stance or make definitive claims.
12. Lack of job security: Professors may worry that teaching controversial topics could put their job security at risk, especially if they are on a fixed-term contract or hold non-tenured positions.
13. Limited student exposure: Students may not have been exposed to DEI in previous educational contexts, which can make it difficult for professors to build on prior knowledge.
14. Cultural differences: Dealing with such strong cultural issues and being faced with all this cultural unawareness is not easy, making it even more challenging for professors to teach the subject in a way that is relevant and inclusive to all students.
15. Fear of being accused of bias: Professors may worry about being accused of bias or prejudice when teaching about DEI issues that relate to social or political controversies.
16. Lack of support from administration: Some professors may feel that their university or department does not prioritize DEI education or provide sufficient support for teaching the subject.
17. Lack of funding: Teaching DEI effectively may require additional resources or funding, which may not be available to all professors.
18. Very limited research opportunities: Some professors may feel that teaching DEI could significantly limit their opportunities for conducting research or publishing in academic journals.

Professors never received any training on DEI

A good question here is who trains or has trained the hospitality and tourism educators and how prepared are they to address DEI issues in the classroom? Have they ever received any sort of training on the subject? If not, why, and how should that be fixed? How should that be addressed?

Methodology

An online search was conducted to identify universities in different parts of the United States (from the East Coast and the Midwest to the West Coast and the South) which offer a hospitality and tourism program at an undergraduate level. The sample consisted of 101 American universities that were randomly selected. 83 of them were public universities while the other 18 were private. The curriculum of each specific program was carefully examined to identify what courses were on offer on diversity, equity, and inclusion. One by one their course codes, course descriptions, and related material of both mandatory and elective courses were investigated to establish how they addressed those issues.

Results

Results revealed that out of the 101 universities forty-six of them do not offer any course on diversity. Twenty-one universities refer to diversity issues in an indirect manner. Thirty-one universities devote a specific course to diversity and include important aspects of it on its description. Only two universities include the actual word 'diversity' in the course title. Diversity results are presented in Figure 1.

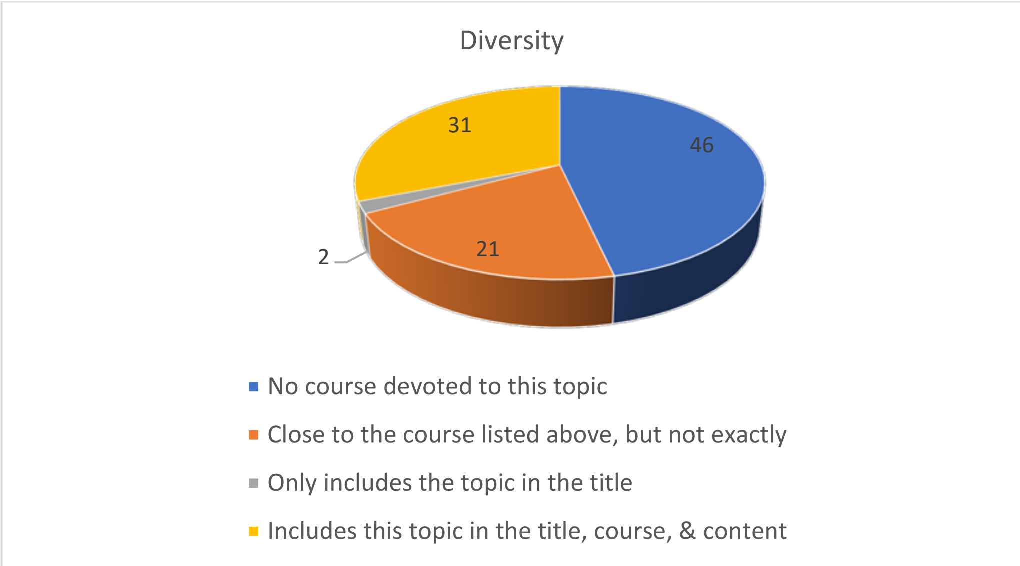


Figure 1. Diversity

In terms of inclusion, 84 universities offer absolutely nothing to address this important issue; neither as a specific course or as a course title. Only two universities touch upon aspects related to inclusion. Fourteen universities do offer a course on inclusion and analyze its components. Inclusion findings are represented in Figure 2.

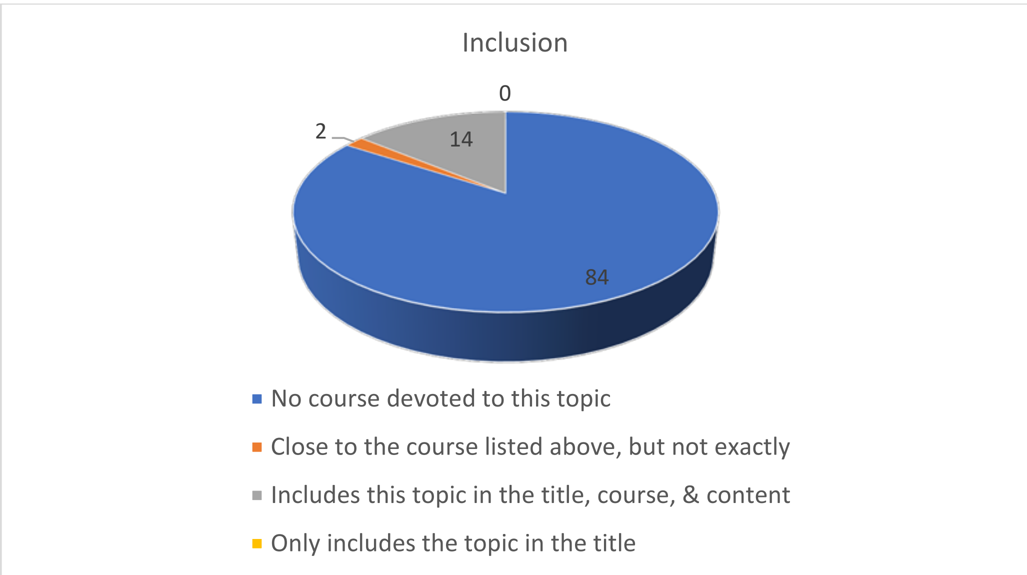


Figure 2. Inclusion

An even larger number, 87 universities to be precise, completely ignore the importance of teaching hospitality and tourism students about equity issues. Nine out of the 101 universities refer to it in some form and only four fully address it in their curriculum. Equity results are shown in Figure 3.

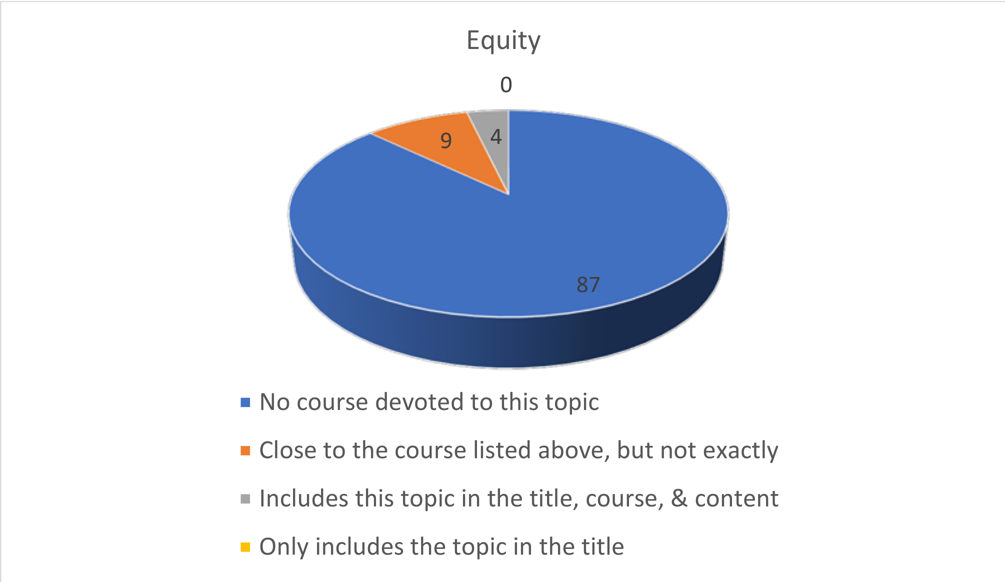


Figure 3. Equity

Discussion and implications

In order to prepare effectively the leaders of tomorrow, it is essential to educate them on how to be, above all, culturally competent and show them how to promote DEI successfully in the workplace. As Galanti (2001) argued "obviously it is not possible to know everything about every culture, but the first important step is an awareness of the fact that different cultures have different rules of appropriate behavior" (Galanti, 2001, p. 26). However, this is just the tip of the iceberg, as it only applies to one small part of the diversity field since there are additional dimensions (both primary and secondary) that should be considered. Primary diversity dimensions also include ethnic groups, race, religion, language, age, gender, physical abilities, and sexual orientation. Secondary diversity dimensions include occupation, work experience, education, income, and marital status. Thus, one of the strongest takeaways of this study is to highlight to both universities and the industry that not addressing critical aspects of DEI is an inadequate and insufficient approach to follow. Instead, careful research is required to educate ourselves first and make sure that we fully understand the nature and aspects of DEI so as to be able to design and implement a sound and effective action plan.

Some hospitality and tourism educational institutions have realized the importance of including DEI in their curriculum and are already in the process of addressing it. But clearly this is not enough. The lack of specific DEI courses in the hospitality and tourism curriculum of many American universities strongly validates and supports how disconnected the U.S. academia still is from the industry and how huge this gap still is. Especially, when taking into consideration how desperately the industry needs leaders and managers who are prepared, qualified, and equipped to boldly address these issues and implement effective strategies that will bring hospitality and tourism management and staff together in eliminating unethical, discriminatory, and unjust practices.

What is fascinating is the fact that all American universities in this study offering undergraduate study programs in hospitality and tourism, place significant emphasis on how much they value DEI and devote big sections on their websites to describe their commitment to these important issues. Yet, a closer look at their curriculum tells a very different story and that begs the question: "If these universities realize the importance of DEI and its implementation, then why do they not provide a single course on the subject to educate their students?" One possible answer could be that many of them view DEI as a trend, a nice "buzzword" that should be included on their website simply to satisfy modern trends, accreditation, or other purposes. Another possible answer could be that these academic institutions do not really know or haven't figured out yet how to embrace and actively support these very profound and valuable initiatives throughout their institutions. That is clearly something that needs to be addressed, and specific practices, and courses of action must be established to remedy the current situation. Especially, bearing in mind that there are many educators involved in the hospitality and tourism academia who have spent years in the industry and appreciate first-hand the need to prepare their students adequately to enter this field. Therefore, academicians must take a good, hard look at their hospitality and tourism curricula and reassess what is important to be successful in the industry, what the priorities and the needs of the industry are, and then act accordingly knowing the impact that this course of action will have on their students' career and to the industry itself.

Conclusion

This paper aims to address the sensitive issue of teaching and addressing the DEI issue in hospitality and tourism academic institutions and raise awareness on the situation that currently exists. The focus is on American universities and serves as a starting point to assess the extent to which DEI is included and addressed in each university's curriculum, identify those factors that could possibly lead to ignoring or downplaying such critical issues in the hospitality and tourism academia, and initiate more research and conversations on what it takes to become more sensitive and responsive to them. Some universities have already started addressing the importance of DEI principles and practices by incorporating them in their teaching and curricula. The goal is to inspire other universities to share this vision and use it as another way to connect with the hospitality industry, bridge the existing gap, and prepare the leaders of tomorrow on how to create successfully a better, more productive, more inclusive, and welcoming work environment for our guests, our management and staff, the suppliers, the stakeholders, and everyone involved.

References

Darnell, L. (2020, August 24). Ask an Expert: Equity 101 for the Hospitality Industry. Culinary Agents. Retrieved from https://culinaryagents.com/resources/ask-an-expert-equity-101-for-the-hospitality-industry

Dimitriou, C. K. (2020). Adjusting our teaching strategies, material, and techniques to the new standards. [Paper presentation]. The Tourism Education Futures Initiatives (TEFI) 11-What's Tourism got to do with it? York, United Kingdom (Virtual Conference).

Dimitriou, C. K., & Tin Tun Kirkpatrick, C. (2023, February 16-18). Diversity, equity, and inclusion in the hospitality and tourism industry: Why should we care? [Paper presentation]. West Federation CHRIE Regional Conference, Las Vegas, Las Vegas, NV.

Ferris State University. (2023). Diversity and inclusion definitions. Retrieved from https://www.ferris.edu/administration/president/DiversityOffice/Definitions.htm#:~:text=Diversity%20is%20the%20range%20of,national%20origin%2C%20and%20political%20beliefs.

Galanti, G. A. (2001). The challenge of serving and working with diverse populations in American Hospitals, *The Diversity Factor*, 9(3), 21-26.

Grant, D. (2020, July 15). On 'difficult' conversations. Inside Higher Ed. Retrieved from https://www.insidehighered.com/advice/2020/07/15/why-classroom-conversations-about-diversity-and-identity-shouldnt-be-framed

Indiana University Bloomington. (2023). Diversity and Inclusion. Retrieved from https://citl.indiana.edu/teaching-resources/diversity-inclusion/index.html

Miller, J. E., Walker, J. R., & Drummond, K. E. (2007). *Supervision in the hospitality industry: Applied human resources* (2nd ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Overproof. (2020, June 15). The Importance of Diversity in Hospitality. Retrieved January 28, 2023, from https://overproof.com/2020/06/15/the-importance-of-diversity-in-the-hospitality-industry/

University of Washington. (2023). Diversity, Equity and Inclusion Glossary. Retrieved from https://environment.uw.edu/about/diversity-equity-inclusion/tools-and-additional-resources/glossary-dei-concepts/

Woods, R. H., & King, J. Z. (2010). *Leadership and management in the hospitality industry* (3rd ed.). Lansing, MI: American Hotel & Lodging Educational Institute.

3.3. Education that fits: Gaps, educational entrepreneurship models and new perspectives in hospitality and tourism education

Paola Ossola | César Ritz Colleges Switzerland, Switzerland
Olga Larina | César Ritz Colleges Switzerland, Switzerland
Daniele Grechi | Insubria University, Italy

Abstract

With the intensification of innovative solutions in hospitality and tourism, a gap between the education value proposition and the needs of entrepreneurs and startups becomes more flagrant. The purpose of this study is to review the literature, through a narrative literature review, to preliminary explore this gap, identify the most urgent inconsistencies, and explore some alternative strategies to close the existing gap to adjust curricula to the unmet needs of entrepreneurial skills and technology transfer in hospitality and tourism. In the paper, the role of universities as enablers of entrepreneurial education (EE) and technology transfer has been briefly analyzed. A larger focus is on of incubators (including University Business Incubators) as an alternative. Findings reveal the existence of unmet needs in developing entrepreneurial skills and technology transfer also in incubators. For this reason, the authors suggested the opportunity to explore a third alternative: i.e., venture creation programs in hospitality and tourism.

Keywords: Skill gap; Entrepreneurial education; Incubators; Venture creation programs

Introduction

With the intensification of innovative solutions in hospitality and tourism, a gap between the education value proposition and the needs of entrepreneurs and startups becomes more flagrant. Today educational curricula, both public and private, are challenged to deliver a set of skills that is aligned with the expectations of a new generation of entrepreneurs, that look for and propose new digitalized business models both in existing business ventures and new ones (Zott et al., 2011) (Osterwalder et al., 2005; Teece, 2010; Massa et al., 2016; Foss, & Saebi, 2018; Bradley et al., 2015). Entrepreneurship education is needed to cope with the changing environmental conditions that also result from digital transformation and its requirement for more creative thinking and resilience (Jones, et al., 2018). For this reason, entrepreneurship education programs have grown over time (Katz, 2008), also in the case of tourism and hospitality (Ahmad et al., 2018), however a considerable gap between entrepreneurial education and the needs of the tourism sector exists (Zehrer & Mössenlechner, 2008).

In this paper, through a narrative literature review, the authors explored the gap in entrepreneurial skills and technology transfer in hospitality and tourism and identified the most urgent inconsistencies. Having gained a better understanding of the gap, the entrepreneurial education model of universities has been briefly questioned to justify a deeper need of understanding alternatives for EE, such as the incubator model (including the University Business Incubators). The goal was to explore their ability to fill in the gap. In the last part of the work, the authors proposed the opportunity of exploring a third alternative option for filling the gap, which deserves much more attention also in hospitality and tourism research and practice.

Literature Review

The gap in entrepreneurial skills and technology transfer

With entrepreneurship playing a vital role in generating economic growth (Audretsch, et al., 2006) it is important to understand how education, and in particular universities, could contribute to the entrepreneurial society, generate entrepreneurial capital, and technology transfer (Audretsch, et al., 2006), helping students to develop entrepreneurial thinking and actions (Audretsch, 2014). New business creations are important for economic growth and innovation (Landström, et al., 2012), and entrepreneurship fosters this economic and social growth thanks to the role of entrepreneurs. Entrepreneurs discover and create opportunities (Sarasvathy, et al., 2003) and are capable of generating economic and social performance from it, as discussed by Lumpkin and Dess (1996). In such a circumstance, it is important to equip students with entrepreneurial capabilities essential for their professional life (Gundry, et al., 2014; Rae & Woodier-Harris, 2013), and bridge the gap between skills attained in the university and skills required in the job market (Zimmer, & Keiper, 2021), more explicitly within entrepreneurship and Industry 4.0 and 5.0 (Oraison, et al., 2019). This will help to prepare the entrepreneurs and intrapreneurs of the future (Gibb, 2002). Entrepreneurship education is needed to cope with the changing environmental conditions that result also from digital transformation and its requirement for more creative thinking and resilience (Jones, et al., 2018).

Technology transfer is also particularly important. In fact, in addition to the mismatch in entrepreneurial skills, another mismatch that exists is the one in technology, especially technology used by startups to generate innovative business models. In recent years entrepreneurial activities and startups have increased significantly. Digital technology startups characterize part of the current innovation discussion (Giones & Brem, 2017), and strongly influenced new and old business models in travelling and tourism. The majority of these entrepreneurial activities are now characterized by digitalization. Digitalization is changing the structure of the industry, its value chain and the way we create experiences for customers, establish relationships with them, and create loyalty (Assaf & Tsionas, 2018; Minghetti & Buhalis, 2010; Buhalis et al., 2019; van Asperen et al. (2018). In addition to this, technology changes the operations of many business functions, supply chains, and sustainability monitoring (Kayikci, 2019; Ali & Frew, 2014).

Modern digital technologies such as Virtual reality (VR), augmented reality (AR), Artificial Intelligence (AI) are becoming extremely important in tourism (Yung & Khoo-Lattimore, 2019; Guttentag, 2010) and are changing it (Buhalis et al., 2023; Dwivedi et al., 2022,). Although companies might outsource digital skills, they require strategic understanding and planning within the company to deliver the proper business transformation and remain competitive in the market. This increases the need for specific digital skills both in existing companies and in startups. Therefore, bridging the tech skills gap, as it happens for entrepreneurship becomes a priority. Emerging technical skills must become part of the curriculum, taking into consideration both hard and soft skills. However, universities, as in the case of entrepreneurship, still exhibit a gap in training students to acquire such skills (Aljohani et al., 2022). In hospitality and tourism programs it will be then important to teach specific knowledge of hospitality and tourism but at the same time, to help students to become digitally fluent, develop skills for conducting e business, get to know more about AI, VR, and AR and be able to strategize their integration with current business models (Carlisle, et al., 2021).

Entrepreneurship education as a solution

Entrepreneurship education programs have grown over time (Katz, 2008), since entrepreneurship teaches practical skills that are required for employability reasons, including those related to technological transfer. This requires the need to question the role of entrepreneurship and entrepreneurship education in tourism and hospitality. Entrepreneurs have a crucial role in redirecting tourism products and increasing competitiveness (Hjalager, 2010). Responding to the change in entrepreneurial orientation is crucial in innovating tourism especially due to the uncertainty, ambiguity, and complexity of today's tourism world (Hjalager, 2002), and considering the digital transformation of tourism (Buhalis & Licata, 2002; Buhalis, 2020). In Table 1 below the main papers about Entrepreneurship Education analyzed are summarized.

Entrepreneurship education in universities

Considering this, it is important to understand the role of entrepreneurship education (EE) in tourism and hospitality. Universities have recently started to teach entrepreneurial skills in tourism and hospitality (Ahmad, et al., 2018), although according to Ahmad (2015) entrepreneurship education is not always seen as important by hospitality and tourism students, and research only recently started to pay attention to it (Daniel et al., 2017; Ahmad et al., 2018). The focus of EE research is on the distinguishing components of EE (objectives/goals, target group or audience, content and educators, teaching methods or pedagogies, and stakeholder involvement) (Fayolle & Gailly, 2008). Although EE is becoming important in these programs, the way of teaching it is still too mechanistic and does not promote entrepreneurial behaviour (Ahmad, 2015). There is not even a single teaching method for it (Ahmad et al. 2018). According to Zehrer and Mössenlechner (2008), a considerable gap between education and the needs of the tourism sector exists when looking at EE.

Table 1. Summary of entrepreneurship education papers reviewed

Authors / Year	Focus	Specific Focus	T&H	Aim	Main findings
Cohen, et al. (2019)	Entrepreneurship education	Accelerators	No	Understand whether variation in the antecedents, organizational design and operation of acceleratorsprograms impact entrepreneurial performance.	Different design of accelerators programs has differences in the performance of their portfolio firms. Investor-led accelerator portfolio companies tend to have higher amounts of capital raised.Founders should be aware of design trade-offs between differenceaccelerators and align their goals with those of the accelerator. Accelerators are only one of many types of intermediaries that areemerging.
Gonzalez-Uribe & Leatherbee (2018)	Entrepreneurship through accelerators support	Accelerators	No	Explore the role of business accelerators in newventure performance.	Accelerators by bundling together schooling and basic service can significantly increase new venture performance. However, there isno evidence of effect on new venture performance created by basic services on their own. Findings show that in new ventures (especially early-stage start-ups) entrepreneurial capital matters.
Aernoudt (2004)	Entrepreneurship through incubators and accelerators support	Incubators	No	Explore incubator's role in entrepreneurship and current condition.	Europe lags in incubators development. Main challenges for incubation in Europe: lack of entrepreneurship, seed financing andbusiness angels' networks. Differences exist between different incubator typologies and their success must take this into consideration. Need of bridge together incubators and business angels to promote entrepreneurship.
Colombo & Delmastro (2002)	Entrepreneurship through incubators and accelerators support	Incubators	No	Examine the effectiveness of technology incubators.	Incubators (parks) managed to attract entrepreneurs with betterhuman capital. On-incubator companies show higher growth rates, perform betterin terms of adoption of advanced technologies, aptitude to participating in international R&D programs, establishment of collaborative arrangements (with universities in particular), and find it easier to get access to public subsidies than off-incubator companies. This is more valid in a country like Italy with weak nationalinnovation system.
Grimaldi & Grandi (2005)	Entrepreneurship through incubators and accelerators support	Incubators	No	Map business incubators and identify different models.	Identification of four types of incubators, and development of a list of characterizing variables (that depend on the evolution of the requests of the companies). Suggestions to incubators on how to position themselves strategically.
Lasrado, et al. (2016)	Entrepreneurship through incubators and accelerators support	University Incubators	No	Explore whether graduated university incubatorcompanies benefit from university incubation.	University incubated companies' performance continually improves above and beyond the incubation period, and universityincubated companies' performance is superior to non-incubated ones above and beyond the incubation period. University incubated firms grew faster (in number of jobs and sales) than thenon-incubated firms.

Schwartz (2013)	Entrepreneurship through incubators and accelerators support	Incubators	No	Explore the long-term survival of incubator companies.	It was not observed any higher survival chances for companies located in incubators than those not located in incubators. Doubts regarding the impact of incubators on long-term survival of companies emerged.
Stokan, et al. (2015)	Entrepreneurship through incubators and accelerators support	Incubators	No	Explore whether business incubators produce adifferential effect on the growth of companies.	Incubators have significant positive impact on companies' job creation than nonincubated ones. Incubated companies have access to five times as many business services than those notincubated.
Collinson, S., & Gregson, G. (2003)	Entrepreneurship through incubators and accelerators support	Regional knowledge networks	No	Understand the role of regional knowledge networks as enablers of accelerated learning for entrepreneurs.	Regional knowledge networks are useful for entrepreneurs to integrate specialist knowledge and get expertise from different regional entities. The different regional knowledge networks analyzed (3, 1 per country) are different in terms of effectiveness,scope, and scale but they proved to be enablers of accelerated learning for entrepreneurs.
Fayolle & Gailly (2008)	Entrepreneurship education in formal institutions such asuniversities	Curricula developmen t	No	Explore a conceptual framework for curricula and course development in entrepreneurship education to provide a bridge between education sciences and entrepreneurship.	Reconsider entrepreneurship education, from theoretical choices to objectives, publics, pedagogical methods, approaching entrepreneurship education through multiple teaching models andlearning processes
Gibb (2002)	Entrepreneurship education in formal institutions such asuniversities	University vs. Business Schools	No	Discuss a new approach to teach entrepreneurship.	Traditional focus of entrepreneurship education on business, andnew venture management provides an inadequate response to entrepreneurship. Business schools will struggle to fit with this new landscape of entrepreneurship education. Universities are instead in a much better position to respond to the challenge.
Katz (2008)	Entrepreneurship education	General discussion	No	Propose a life cycle stage of entrepreneurship as a discipline.	A theoretical life cycle model for entrepreneurship as a discipline isproposed. Entrepreneurship education is currently in its fully maturity stage: evidence from the growing centrality of entrepreneurship as a discipline in many business-schools, however there is still partial legitimacy of it.
Lackéus & Williams Middleton (2015)	Entrepreneurship education	Entrepreneurs hip education for technology transfer	No	Explore how university-based entrepreneurship programs that incorporate real-life venture creation into educational design and delivery, is important tobridge the gap between entrepreneurship education and technology transfer.	In university environment VCP can benefit the collaboration between entrepreneurship education and technology transfer
Rae & Woodier-Harris (2013)	Entrepreneurship education	Entrepreneursh ip education and career planning	No	Explore whether entrepreneurship educationinfluences students 'career intentions.	EEE has a wider influence on personal development and careerplanning of PG and international students.
Smith, et al. (2022)	Entrepreneurship education through VCPs	VCPs	No	Review of the literature surrounding VCPs (Venture Creation Programmes).	VCPs might be options to provide an innovative curriculum basedon experiential learning principles. VCP is a learning experience and lead as well to actual business start-up.
Ahmad (2015)	Entrepreneurship education in formal institutions such asuniversities	Higher education	Yes	Evaluation of the entrepreneurship module in hospitality and tourism programs of higher learning.	Students have limited consideration for entrepreneurship moduleas an important subject within programs. There are several challenges in establishing an entrepreneurial culture in T&H but there is an urgency to encourage and foster it within programs.
Ahmad, et al. (2018)	Entrepreneurship education in formal institutions such asuniversities	University	Yes	Review and evaluation of different methods of teaching entrepreneurship and identify the challenges and difficulties in teaching entrepreneurship.	Traditional techniques are commonly used in delivering the subject, however no single method is successful in achieving thegoal of teaching entrepreneurship. A link between theory and practice and combinations of methos is a must for teaching suchdiscipline.
Audretsch (2014)	Entrepreneurship education in formal institutions such asuniversities	University	Yes	Explore the role of entrepreneurial universities in an entrepreneurial society.	The university's role has changed: from being a response to generate technology transfer and knowledge-based start-ups toenhance entrepreneurship capital and facilitate behavior to prosper in an entrepreneurial society.
Ayad, et al. (2022)	Entrepreneurship education in formal institutions such asuniversities	University	Yes	Understand the role of university incubators for entrepreneurs (as networking support, financial support, and training support) and the role of personalattitude of students in mediating entrepreneurship.	Personal attitude of graduates partially mediates the impact of networking support and entrepreneurship, it fully mediates therelationships between financial and training support and entrepreneurship.
Daniel, et al. (2017)	Entrepreneurship education	Entrepreneu rial skills	Yes	Explore the perspective of tourism students on the relevance of entrepreneurship education within theirprograms.	Tourism students consider entrepreneurship education as relevantwithin their courses for their future employment. "Learning to be" program that challenges the students to develop viable solutions to real-case problems was successful as a best practice and could serve as guideline for curricula that aim to develop entrepreneurialskills.

Entrepreneurship education in incubators and University Business Incubators

If universities are still failing to teach entrepreneurial and technological-related skills this might influence the entrepreneurial initiative of students, and future entrepreneurs with business ideas might look for accelerated entrepreneurial learning within incubators and accelerators, as visible in the fact that both incubators and accelerators have been proliferating quickly (Cohen, et al., 2019). According to Aernoudt (2004) incubators are a tool for bridging the entrepreneurial gap. According to Grimaldi and Grandi (2005) incubators assist entrepreneurs and future entrepreneurs by providing support services, from business development to marketing plans, from building management teams to obtaining capital. Incubators are a valuable resource for entrepreneurs since they can provide business support services as needed through counselling interaction (i.e., mentorship) and this interaction is fundamental for success (Rice, 2002; Scillitoe & Chakrabarti 2010). Although the literature is still unsure about the beneficial effects of incubators and accelerators, for some research they are beneficial (Colombo, & Delmastro 2002, Stokan et al., 2015). There are 4 different types of incubators, Business Innovation Centres (BICs), University Business Incubators (UBIs), Independent Private Incubators (IPIs), and Corporate Private Incubators (CPIs). Looking at entrepreneurial education, IPIs and CPIs are those more oriented towards the provision of it (i.e., transfer of competencies and knowledge-based services), as well as UBIs incubators. UBIs are those incubators' intangible services (i.e. competencies and knowledge) and tangible services (such as offices and spaces). Lasrado et al. (2016) findings show that university incubators might have superior performance than other forms of incubators, but this depends on the setting. Incubators as well as accelerators in universities can facilitate ideas diffusion and at the same time, they can provide students with entrepreneurial skills.

Although incubators are found to be beneficial in some circumstances, in others their effect is still unclear (Schwartz, 2013; Gonzalez-Uribe, & Leatherbee, 2016), this is also in the case of tourism. If network support has a significant positive impact on the attitude and entrepreneurial intention of tourism graduates (as found also by Collinson and Gregson (2003) in the general literature about incubators, the training and financial support given by UBIs are only predictors of tourism graduates' attitudes toward entrepreneurship, and not of their entrepreneurial intention (Ayad, et al., 2022). This questions whether UBIs could be considered the right option for EE, and EE in Tourism. So far, educators encounter challenges in combining entrepreneurial education and incubation (Glassman et al. (2003) due to the need of combining a learning philosophy focused on traditional academic learning with a strong focus on problem-oriented thinking and a philosophy that stimulates entrepreneurial behaviour. Although UBIs could be alternative to traditional entrepreneurial education in universities, it could be possible to question whether universities, also in hospitality and tourism, should invest more in this form of entrepreneurial support, or could identify ways for creating education programs able to bridge the skill gap in entrepreneurship and technology dissemination without having to create UBIs.

Venture creation approach as an alternative

A possible approach to follow in this case, that deserves much more analysis is the venture creation approach (Ollila & Williams-Middleton, 2011), an approach able to integrate EE and incubation, that "allow for "spin-through" of innovative ideas while contributing simultaneously to entrepreneurial learning (Lackéus & Williams Middleton, 2015), and that potentially could benefit the ability to close the entrepreneurial gap also in tourism. As a matter of fact, some recent studies confirm the ability of venture creation programs to provide a positive learning experience that could also lead to actual business start-up during the degree or after graduation (Smith & Bozward, 2022), reaching the goal of creating entrepreneurial capital, and technology transfer (Audretsch et al., 2006). This form of learning provides students with the opportunity to learn through real-life entrepreneurial and business activities, learning by doing, and reflecting upon actions taken, with the intent of creating successful new ventures (Ollila & Williams-Middleton, 2011).

Through the venture creation approach, it would be possible to combine the conventional approach of EE, with the enterprising approach identified by Gibb (1996). In particular, the venture creation approach creates a bridge between the conventional approach (more focused on subject, content and theory, when learning is dominated by teachers, and participants participate passively in heavily programmed sessions with imposed learning objectives) and the enterprising approach (more focused on problems, process delivery and practices, with participants taking ownership of learning and generating knowledge, with teachers acting as facilitators in flexible sessions where learning objectives are negotiated, and participants learn from mistakes). The venture creation approach focuses on reflection-in-action, it is a combination of problem-oriented and solution-focused approaches, with emphasis on creation, where mistakes are encouraged, and participants seek for and co-create knowledge in sessions emerging from venture-related activities, with learning objectives emerging through reflection, with learning facilitated by an integrated environment and multiple learning stimulators (Ollila & Williams- Middleton, 2011).

Conclusion

The goal of this paper is to understand how universities could increase the competitiveness and employability of hospitality students in the modern working environment through programs that fit business trends more effectively. This paper shows a gap between the needs of the modern working environment and the skills acquired in formal university programs (both in business and hospitality and tourism education). Universities and their entrepreneurial education still struggle to fill the gap. Students looking for entrepreneurial skills and technological transfer under these circumstances might turn to business incubators. The role of business incubators, and in particular university business incubators, in filling the gap is also questionable. Neither conventional entrepreneurial education in universities nor the one through incubators is completely effective in filling the gap. In such a circumstance university should question if other alternative solutions might be applied in hospitality and tourism to deliver value to students and the community through entrepreneurial education.

Finding alternative ways could create opportunities for competitive advantage creation for both public and private universities willing to build value propositions that won't change completely their typical learning philosophy of universities focused on conventional academic learning with a strong focus on problem- oriented thinking while applying a philosophy that stimulates entrepreneurial behaviour, as it happens in incubators. One of these opportunities that deserves much more research from academia and could be considered for a university able to build a competitive edge, is the venture creation program. This type of program might be a possible solution to deliver education that fits the aims and competencies expectations from industry. Researchers should further investigate this type of program, particularly in light of hospitality and tourism to be able to understand better their characteristics and its benefit, and the type of content to deliver. In the future, through semi- structured interviews among start-uppers in hospitality and tourism, the authors will reveal more precisely some of the unmet needs in developing entrepreneurial skills through semi-structured interviews among entrepreneurs in hospitality and tourism, with a focus on startups, this will enable a deeper exploration and projection of how to successfully fill the gap not only in terms of structure and content, but also delivery of entrepreneurial education. Startups will also be questioned about the utility of the venture creation approach, and current tourism and hospitality universities will be screened to acknowledge best practices in filling the gap through this approach. The ultimate goal will be to identify and suggest best practices in hospitality and tourism to create education that aligns with the current industry demands.

References

Aernoudt, R. (2004). Incubators: tool for entrepreneurship? Small business economics, 23(2), 127-135. Ahmad, S. Z. (2015). Entrepreneurship education in tourism and hospitality programs. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Education*, 27(1), 20-29.

Ahmad, S. Z., Bakar, A. R. A., & Ahmad, N. (2018). An evaluation of teaching methods of entrepreneurship in hospitality and tourism programs. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 16(1), 14-25.

Ali, A., & Frew, A. J. (2014). Technology innovation and applications in sustainable destination development. *Information Technology & Tourism*, 14, 265-290.

Aljohani, N. R., Aslam, A., Khadidos, A. O., & Hassan, S. U. (2022). Bridging the skill gap between the acquired university curriculum and the requirements of the job market: A data-driven analysis of scientific literature. *Journal of Innovation & Knowledge*, 7(3), 100190.

Assaf, A. G., & Tsionas, M. (2018). The estimation and decomposition of tourism productivity. *Tourism Management*, 65, 131-142.

Audretsch, D. B. (2014). From the entrepreneurial university to the university for the entrepreneurial society. *The Journal of Technology Transfer*, 39, 313-321.

Audretsch, D. B., Keilbach, M. C., & Lehmann, E. E. (2006). *Entrepreneurship and economic growth*. Oxford University Press.

Ayad, T., Sobaih, A. E. E., & Elshaer, I. A. (2022). University Incubator Support and Entrepreneurial Intention among Tourism Graduates: Mediating Role of Personal Attitude. *Sustainability*, 14(23), 16045.

Bradley, J., Loucks, J., Macaulay, J., Noronha, A., & Wade M. (2015). Digital Vortex How Digital Disruption Is Redefining Industries. Global Center for Digital Business Transformation.

Buhalis, D. (2020). Technology in tourism-from information communication technologies to eTourism and smart tourism towards ambient intelligence tourism: a perspective article. *Tourism Review*, 75(1), 267-272.

Buhalis, D., & Licata, M. C. (2002). The future eTourism intermediaries. *Tourism Management*, 23(3), 207-220.

Buhalis, D., Harwood, T., Bogicevic, V., Viglia, G., Beldona, S., & Hofacker, C. (2019). Technological disruptions in services: lessons from tourism and hospitality. *Journal of Service Management*, 30(4), 484-506.

Buhalis, D., Leung, D., & Lin, M. (2023). Metaverse as a disruptive technology revolutionising tourism management and marketing. *Tourism Management*, 97, 104724.

Carlisle, S., Ivanov, S., & Dijkmans, C. (2023). The digital skills divide: Evidence from the European tourism industry. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 9(2), 240-266.

Cohen, S., Fehder, D. C., Hochberg, Y. V., & Murray, F. (2019). The design of startup accelerators. *Research Policy*, 48(7), 1781-1797.

Collinson, S., & Gregson, G. (2003). Knowledge networks for new technology–based firms: An international comparison of local entrepreneurship promotion. *R&D Management*, 33(2), 189-208.

Colombo, M. G., & Delmastro, M. (2002). How effective are technology incubators?: Evidence from Italy. *Research Policy*, 31(7), 1103-1122.

Daniel, A. D., Costa, R. A., Pita, M., & Costa, C. (2017). Tourism Education: What about entrepreneurial skills? *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 30, 65-72.

Dwivedi, Y. K., Hughes, L., Baabdullah, A. M., Ribeiro-Navarrete, S., Giannakis, M., Al-Debei, M. M., ... & Wamba, S. F. (2022). Metaverse beyond the hype: Multidisciplinary perspectives on emerging challenges, opportunities, and agenda for research, practice and policy. *International Journal of Information Management*, 66, 102542.

Fayolle, A., & Gailly, B. (2008). From craft to science: Teaching models and learning processes in entrepreneurship education. *Journal of European Industrial Training*, 32(7), 569-593.

Foss, N.J., & Saebi, T. (2018). Business Models and Business Model Innovation: Between Wicked and Paradigmatic Problems. *Long Range Planning*, 51, 9–21.

Gibb, A. (2002). In pursuit of a new 'enterprise'and 'entrepreneurship'paradigm for learning: creative destruction, new values, new ways of doing things and new combinations of knowledge. *International Journal of Management Reviews*, 4(3), 233-269.

Giones, F., & Brem, A. (2017). Digital Technology Entrepreneurship: A Definition and Research Agenda. *Technology Innovation Management Review*, 7(5), 44–51.

Glassman, A. M., Moore, R. W., Rossy, G. L., Neupert, K., Napier, N. K., Jones, D. E., & Harvey, M. (2003). Academic entrepreneurship: Views on balancing the Acropolis and the Agora. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 12(4), 353-374.

Gonzalez-Uribe, J., & Leatherbee, M. (2018). The effects of business accelerators on venture performance: Evidence from start-up Chile. *The Review of Financial Studies*, 31(4), 1566-1603.

Grimaldi, R., & Grandi, A. (2005). Business incubators and new venture creation: An assessment of incubating models. *Technovation*, 25(2), 111-121.

Gundry, L. K., Ofstein, L. F., & Kickul, J. R. (2014). Seeing around corners: How creativity skills in entrepreneurship education influence innovation in business. *The International Journal of Management Education*, 12(3), 529-538.

Guttentag, D. A. (2010). Virtual reality: Applications and implications for tourism. *Tourism Management*, 31(5), 637-651.

Hjalager, A. M. (2002). Repairing innovation defectiveness in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 23(5), 465- 474.

Hjalager, A. M. (2010). A review of innovation research in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 31(1), 1-12.

Jones, P., Klapper, R., Ratten, V., & Fayolle, A. (2018). Emerging themes in entrepreneurial behaviours, identities and contexts. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 19(4), 233-236.

Katz, J. A. (2008). Fully mature but not fully legitimate: A different perspective on the state of entrepreneurship education. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 46(4), 550-566.

Kayikci, Y. (2019). E-Commerce in logistics and supply chain management. In *Advanced Methodologies and Technologies in Business Operations and Management* (pp. 1015-1026). IGI Global.

Lackéus, M., & Williams Middleton, K. (2015). Venture creation programs: bridging entrepreneurship education and technology transfer. *Education+ training*, 57(1), 48-73.

Landström, H., Harirchi, G., & Åström, F. (2012). Entrepreneurship: Exploring the knowledge base. *Research policy*, 41(7), 1154-1181.

Lasrado, V., Sivo, S., Ford, C., O'Neal, T., & Garibay, I. (2016). Do graduated university incubator firms benefit from their relationship with university incubators? *The Journal of Technology Transfer*, 41, 205-219.

Lumpkin, G. T., & Dess, G. G. (1996). Clarifying the entrepreneurial orientation construct and linking it to performance. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(1), 135-172.

Massa, L., Tucci, C., & Afuah, A. (2017). A Critical Assessment of Business Model Research. *Academy of Management Annals*, 11(1), 73–104.

Minghetti, V., & Buhalis, D. (2010). Digital divide in tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(3), 267-281.

Ollila, S., & Williams-Middleton, K. (2011). The venture creation approach: Integrating entrepreneurial education and incubation at the university. *International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation Management*, 13(2), 161-178.

Oraison, H., Konjarski, L., & Howe, S. (2019). Does university prepare students for employment?: Alignment between graduate attributes, accreditation requirements and industry employability criteria. *Journal of Teaching and Learning for Graduate Employability*, 10(1), 173-194.

Osterwalder, A., Pigneur, Y., & Tucci, C.L. (2005). Clarifying Business Models: Origins, Present, and Future of the Concept. *Communications of the Association for Information Systems*, 16(1), 1-25.

Rae, D., & Woodier-Harris, N. R. (2013). How does enterprise and entrepreneurship education influence postgraduate students' career intentions in the New Era economy? *Education+ Training*, 55(8-9), 926-948.

Rice, M. P. (2002). Co-production of business assistance in business incubators: an exploratory study. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 17(2), 163-187.

Sarasvathy, S. D., Dew, N., Velamuri, S. R., & Venkataraman, S. (2010). Three views of entrepreneurial opportunity. In Z. J. Acs & D. B. Audretsch (Eds.) *Handbook of entrepreneurship research: An interdisciplinary survey and introduction* (pp. 77-96). Springer.

Schwartz, M. (2013). A control group study of incubators' impact to promote firm survival. *The Journal of Technology Transfer*, 38, 302-331.

Scillitoe, J. L., & Chakrabarti, A. K. (2010). The role of incubator interactions in assisting new ventures. *Technovation*, 30(3), 155-167.

Smith, K., Rogers-Draycott, M. C., & Bozward, D. (2022). Full curriculum-based venture creation programmes: current knowledge and research challenges. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, 28(4), 1106-1127.

Stokan, E., Thompson, L., & Mahu, R. J. (2015). Testing the differential effect of business incubators on firm growth. *Economic Development Quarterly*, 29(4), 317-327.
Teece, D.J. (2010). Business Models, Business Strategy and Innovation. *Long Range Planning*, 43(2–3), 172–194.
van Asperen, M., de Rooij, P., & Dijkmans, C. (2018). Engagement-based loyalty: The effects of social media engagement on customer loyalty in the travel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Administration*, 19(1), 78-94.
Yung, R., & Khoo-Lattimore, C. (2019). New realities: A systematic literature review on virtual reality and augmented reality in tourism research. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 22(17), 2056-2081.
Zehrer, A., & Mössenlechner, C. (2008). Industry relations and curricula design in Austrian tourism master programs: A comparative analysis. *Journal of Teaching in Travel & Tourism*, 8(1), 73-95.
Zimmer, W. K., & Keiper, P. (2021). Redesigning curriculum at the higher education level: Challenges and successes within a sport management program. *Education Action Research*, 29(2), 276-291.
Zott, C., Amit, R., & Massa, L. (2011). The Business Model: Recent Developments and Future Research. *Journal of Management*, 37(4), 1019–1042.

3.4. Exploring transgender equity within diversity and inclusion statements in the hospitality industry

Zed Karoui | University of West London, UK

Abstract

This study examines the current state of transgender-inclusive work environments in the hospitality industry, focusing on the equity and inclusivity of transgender employees. By conducting a qualitative content analysis of diversity and inclusion reports from 26 NYSE and NASDAQ-listed hospitality companies, we aim to shed light on the industry's efforts in this critical area. Drawing upon a conceptual framework developed for this study, we analyse the reports to identify key themes related to transgender equity. Our findings reveal seven major themes that contribute to a transgender-inclusive workplace: the presence of a company-wide diversity council, transgender-inclusive awareness programs, transgender-specific policies, support mechanisms for transgender employees, provision of transgender-specific health coverage, the establishment of trans employee resource groups, and engagement with transgender-inclusive suppliers. However, our analysis also indicates a lack of clear transgender equity policies within the LGBTQ+ reports, suggesting that the industry has yet to fully grasp the essential components of a transgender-inclusive workplace.

Keywords: Diversity and inclusion; Transgender equity; LGBTQ+ policies; Framework; Trans-inclusive workplace

Introduction

The issue of transgender people's (trans) rights in the workplace has spurred contentious debates over the years (Westbrook & Schilt, 2014) and there is a demand for more specific trans policies to help build a better trans-Inclusive Workplace (TIW) and achieve trans equity (Thoroughgood, Sawyer, & Webster, 2020). Companies are getting bolder in advocating for LGBTQ+ to differentiate themselves from other companies such as Barilla group which faced backlash over anti-LGBTQ+ remarks (Weinzimmer & Esken, 2016). This incident compelled Barilla to revise its LGBTQ+ policies and expand health benefits for trans employees to salvage its reputation (Buckley, 2019). It brought diversity and inclusion (D&I) to the forefront of social discourse (Combs, Milosevic, & Bilimoria, 2019). Furthermore, as noted by Carter, Onyeador and Lewis Jr (2020), 50 % of US companies have pledged to invest $8 billion annually in new D&I training programmes working closely with advocacy groups, such as the human rights campaign (HRC), to showcase their commitment to D&I.

These companies have adopted gender-inclusive policies and utilise the HRC corporate equality index as a primary driving force for LGBTQ+ workplace inclusion (The Human Rights Campaign, 2020). Despite the implementation of some reactive measures to protect trans employees in the workplace (Metcalfe & Rolfe, 2011), a study revealed that 68% of UK companies believe there is a gap between LGBTQ+ policies and trans equity across all industries including the hospitality industry (Marvell, Broughton, Breese, & Tyle, 2017). Moreover, almost 30% of trans staff members often feel excluded from the social fabric of their company. This highlights the need to investigate the extent to which trans equity is embedded within LGBTQ+ policies and values in the hospitality industry. This paper, therefore, aims to address the gap in knowledge by conducting a qualitative content analysis of diversity and inclusion reports from 26 NYSE and NASDAQ-listed hospitality companies. Specifically, it seeks to answer the following research questions: Do D&I reports in the hospitality industry include transgender equity, and what specific aspects of transgender equity do hospitality companies report within their LGBTQ+ policies? By examining these reports, the study will identify major themes related to transgender equity and develop a conceptual framework to better understand how to achieve trans equity in the workplace.

Literature Review

LGBTQ+ Equity within Diversity and Inclusion

Madera (2013) highlights the importance of linking D&I messaging and practices; however, in theory, these two components have been assessed separately. Manoharan, Madera and Singal (2021) point out that investing in D&I may lead to recognition in the hospitality industry. Other scholars (e.g., Gehrels & Suleri, 2016) suggest that building a diverse and inclusive workforce is an invaluable resource that helps strengthen the company's performance and improve its competitiveness in the marketplace. LGBTQ+ policies are now fast becoming a priority for all companies as they offer numerous benefits (Vongvisitsin & Wong, 2021), including attracting talent and fostering workplace creativity, which provides a competitive advantage in the marketplace (Cunningham & Hussain, 2020). Many companies use LGBTQ+ policy reporting as a strategic tool to communicate corporate values, vision and mission statements (Babnik et al., 2014).

Communicating specific LGBTQ+ policies is crucial for promotional marketing, increasing brand awareness and achieving reputational gains (Manoharan et al., 2021). Including LGBTQ+ policies within D&I reports sends a strong message about the company's overall commitment to diversity and inclusion (Cunningham & Hussain, 2020). Contrary to some concerns, reporting LGBTQ+ and trans equity does not necessarily drive away heterosexual people (Cunningham & Melton, 2014). In fact, companies that advertise LGBTQ+ policies within their D&I initiatives, tend to build better brand image and stronger relationships with not only the LGBTQ+ community but also with the entire civil society, reinforcing their strategic D&I policies (Manoharan et al., 2021).

Trans-inclusive Policies

Manoharan et al. (2021) suggest that hospitality companies should translate their strategic D&I statements into diversity management policies. Recent research (Longarino, 2019) has started to examine LGBTQ+ policies in the workplace. However, little is known about trans equity within LGBTQ+ policies, which is a critical but often overlooked aspect (Kinney, Pearson, & Aoki, 2022). This study, therefore, aims to explore what companies report about LGBTQ+ with a specific focus on transgender equity. The goal is to propose initial stages for developing a conceptual Trans-Inclusive Workplace (TIW) framework to better understand how trans equity can be achieved in the workplace (Davis & Yeung, 2022). As Huffman, Mills, Howes, and Albritton (2021) noted, there is a need to expand LGBTQ+ initiatives, integrate trans-specific policies and create a more inclusive work environment for transgender, gender diverse, and non-binary (TGDNB) individuals. A study conducted by Out and Equal revealed that 83% of Fortune 500 companies incorporated LGBTQ+ policies within their D&I initiatives in 2018 (The Human Rights Campaign, 2019). Longarino (2019) states that "as companies compete against each other in the war of talent, discriminating against LGBTQ+ people amounts to shooting themselves in the foot" (p.512). Therefore, exploring LGBTQ+ policies with a specific focus on transgender issues is essential, as previous studies (e.g., Madera, 2013; Manoharan et al., 2021) have primarily focused on companies recognised for their diversity management practices, leaving a gap in understanding LGBTQ+ policies' coverage of transgender issues.

TIW Conceptual Framework and Main Concepts

This section presents the major concepts of trans-inclusive policies extracted from the current literature providing the rationale for the proposed themes and contributing to the construction of the TIW conceptual framework (presented in Table 1). The framework has been validated and enriched by seven expert members of academia and trans advocacy groups who possess extensive knowledge about transgender issues in the workplace. Whittle and Turner (2017) recommend trans-specific training for recruiters to gain a well-informed understanding of trans candidates and the barriers they may experience during the recruitment and selection process. Therefore, recruitment managers with knowledge of trans employees' experiences are better equipped to handle trans recruitment and selection. Davis and Yeung (2022) highlight the role of leadership in the workplace and the need to implement and enforce trans-inclusive procedures and policies.

They also emphasise the importance of providing trans-inclusion training to business leaders, enabling them to foster a trans-inclusive culture that embraces gender identity and expression, thus creating a trans-equitable work environment. Thoroughgood et al. (2020) urge companies to adopt basic trans-inclusive policies such as those related to trans-specific non-discrimination policies, transitioning leave, dress codes, pronoun and name usage, and access to changing rooms and bathrooms. Adopting such policies sends an important message to trans employees emphasising their value as organisational members. Hafiz, Azmi, Islam, Latiff, and Abd Wahab (2022) point out that companies committed to creating a trans-friendly environment, providing trans support and empowerment in the workplace and exercising greater trans equity within their D&I practices are more likely to outperform those who do not.

Trans-inclusive employers gain competitive advantages in the marketplace, such as enhancing workforce value and increasing productivity. In terms of career development and trans promotion in the workplace, Sangganjanavanich and Headley (2016) suggest that employers must take action to ensure that trans career policies are in place to meet the diverse personal and professional needs of trans individuals. Regarding trans benefits, Stroumsa (2014) suggests offering trans-specific health coverage and recommends the formulation of explicit government policies regarding the provision and the enhancement of healthcare services for trans people in the workplace. Elias, Johnson, Ovando, and Ramirez (2018) consider the Trans Employee Resource Group (TERG) as the advocate body for trans employees in the workplace. They recommend that companies include such resources and proactive programmes to support both trans and transitioning people in the workplace, educate the workforce about the trans issue, and promote a more inclusive and positive work environment for all employees regardless of their sexual orientation or gender identity. Marvell et al. (2017) emphasise the importance of working with NGOs and trade unions that possess in depth knowledge of transgender issues. These organisations can make a significant difference by providing additional expertise and assisting in the development of trans-inclusive policies. Pulcher, Guerci, and Köllen (2022) suggest setting trans-specific minimum requirements for engaging with external stakeholders such as suppliers, consumers and the community. When companies adopt a contextual strategy for identifying stakeholders and gain deeper insights into what trans-inclusion means for external stakeholders, they can build more effective D&I initiatives while delivering added value to shareholders.

Table 1. TIW Conceptual Framework

Literature	Trans-inclusive Policies	Themes
Sevelius et al. (2016); Marvell et al. (2017); Whittle & Turner (2017); Manoharan et al. (2021); Davis & Yeung (2022)	Trans-specific training for recruiters, hiring process i.e., selection, recruitment, induction etc.	Recruitment & Selection
Madera (2013); Whittle & Turner (2017); Elias et al. (2018); Thoroughgood et al. (2020); Manoharan et al. (2021); Davis & Yeung (2022)	Creating a Trans-inclusive culture, trans-specific training for managers and HODs.	Leadership
Marvell et al. (2017); Whittle & Turner (2017); Elias et al. (2018); Thoroughgood et al. (2020); Davis & Yeung (2022)	Anti-discrimination, bullying and harassment, transitioning leave, gender neutral dress code, language, changing rooms and bathroom access.	Trans Policies
Sangganjanavanich & Headley (2016). Marvell et al. (2017); Whittle & Turner (2017); Peate (2020); Davis & Yeung (2022)	Trans employee professional development, trans promotions and career progression. trans employee development and career progression.	Career Development
Madera (2013); Elias et al. (2018);Bozani et al. (2019); Boe et al. (2020); Baboolall et al. (2021)	Trans-specific health package i.e., health insurance coverage, counselling service, mental health and wellbeing.	Trans Benefits
Madera (2013); Whittle & Turner (2017); Elias et al. (2018); Mckendry & Lawrence (2020); Manoharan et al. (2021)	Trans network group access, periodicinvitations to events.	Trans Resource Group
Marvell et al. (2017); Kristen & Nahmias (2018); Bozani et al. (2019); Sidiropoulou (2020); Jones (2020)	legal representation in the workplace,consultation with NGOs about policies, legal representation in theworkplace, trade union membership.	NGOs, Trade Union
Madera (2013); Nambiar & Shahani (2018); Benbow et al. (2021); Manoharan et al. (2021); Nelson & Hwang (2021)	Supply Chain: Trans-specific requirements, engagement strategies.Consumer Commitment: Product andservice access to trans consumers. Community Commitment: Trans charitable work, hosting event and prides etc.	External Stakeholders

Methodology

A textual qualitative approach was employed. Qualitative research offers a holistic view of the occurrences under investigation (Bogdan & Biklen, 1997; Patton, 2014). Compared with quantitative research, it offers flexibility in collecting, analysing and interpreting collected data (Matveev, 2002). It is useful for exploratory and explanatory purposes (Marshall & Rossman, 2014). Thus, a qualitative approach that explores (1) whether D&I reports in the hospitality industry include transgender equity and (2) what hospitality companies specifically report about transgender equity within their LGBTQ+ policies was deemed suitable.

Sample and Data Collection

Companies were selected from the NYSE and NASDAQ in the hotel, restaurant, and food service sectors. NYSE and NASDAQ-listed companies are the most prominent globally and considered leaders in their field. The NYSE and NASDAQ list has been used in several studies (e.g., Carpenter & Whitelaw, 2017), as a sample source. Twenty-six NYSE and NASDAQ-listed companies have been identified in the hospitality sector. Data on LGBTQ+ policies with a focus on transgender were collected from official documents such as D&I, sustainability, marketing and communication reports, and policy statements published on companies' websites. Additional relevant data were extracted from external reports of third-parties advocacy groups and organisations.

Analysis

Braun and Clarke's six-phases thematic analysis (Maguire & Delahunt, 2017) was used to explore LGBTQ+ statements and policies within 26 selected hospitality companies. An inductive bottom-up approach was adopted for a data process directed at strategic LGBTQ+ policies. A top-down deductive approach was applied for a theory process directed at trans-inclusive policies within LGBTQ+ policies. Based on the developed TIW framework, trans-inclusive policies were categorised into seven themes. Data collected from selected hospitality companies were then coded and categorised into six stages of thematic analysis. A two-step coding process was applied to increase the validity of this paper and to fulfil the purpose of the study. The first step involved organising data manually in a spreadsheet and all data were coded independently. The intercoder agreement was calculated manually using Campbell, Quincy, Osserman and Pedersen (2013) formula to explore trans-inclusive policies within LGBTQ+ equity. The second step involved coding all data independently to identify the links between trans-inclusive policies and LGBTQ+ initiatives. Whenever coding discrepancies were present; companies were either placed into 'connected links' or 'no links.'

Findings

This study aims to explore (1) the inclusion of transgender equity in D&I reports within the hospitality industry and (2) the specific details provided by hospitality companies regarding transgender equity within their LGBTQ+ policies. The analysis identified two overarching themes that encompass these aspects. The first theme comprises five LGBTQ+ equity subthemes that include organisational culture and leadership, policies, support strategies, equitable benefits, and valuing LGBTQ+ equity for external stakeholders. The second theme encompasses seven additional subthemes focused on trans-inclusive policies, such as the presence of company-wide diversity councils, trans-specific cultural awareness training programs, dedicated policies for transgender individuals, support mechanisms, provision of trans-specific health coverage, trans employee resource groups, and engagement with trans-inclusive suppliers. Notably, all 26 companies examined in this study provided information about their LGBTQ+ policies on their respective company websites.

LGBTQ+ Equity

All 26 companies (presented in Table 2) identified LGBTQ+ equality as a core value when communicating about D&I on their company websites. Specifically, three companies

(McDonald's Corp., Sodexo Inc. and Starbucks Corp.) revealed their aim to foster a diverse, inclusive workplace aligned with their corporate mission and values. McDonald's Corp. (2022) stated that their goal is always to create a safe space where LGBTQ+ community members can be their true selves. Sodexo Inc. (2022) also expressed its mission to champion an environment of acceptance and workplace equality for all LGBTQ+ through employee engagement, community involvement, education and awareness. Starbucks Corp. (2022) highlighted the importance of valuing the trans community as part of its mission and values of nurturing the human spirit.

Table 2. NYSE and NASDAQ-listed Hospitality Companies and their LGBTQ+ Initiatives

Company name	LGBTQ+ initiatives communicated	Trans-inclusive policies included	Connected links*	No links
Accor Group	Yes	No		✓
Aramark Corp.	Yes	Yes	✓	
Ben & Jerry's Inc.	Yes	Yes	✓	
Boyd Gaming Corp.	Yes	Yes	✓	
Brinker International Inc.	Yes	Yes	✓	
Caesars Entertainment	Yes	Yes	✓	
Chipotle Mexican Grill Inc.	Yes	No		✓
Choice Hotels International Inc.	Yes	Yes	✓	
Compass Group Inc.	Yes	No		✓
Cracker Barrel Old Country Store Inc.	Yes	Yes	✓	
Darden Restaurants Inc.	Yes	No		✓
Dominos Pizzas Inc.	Yes	Yes	✓	
Hilton Worldwide	Yes	Yes	✓	
Hyatt Hotels Corp.	Yes	Yes	✓	

Company name	LGBTQ+ initiatives communicated	Trans-inclusive policies included	Connected links*	No links
InterContinental Hotels Group	Yes	Yes	✓	
Las Vegas sands Corp.	Yes	No		✓
Marriott International	Yes	Yes	✓	
McDonald's Corp.	Yes	Yes	✓	
MGM Resorts International	Yes	Yes	✓	
Panera Bread Co.	Yes	No		✓
Sodexo Inc.	Yes	Yes	✓	
Starbucks Corp.	Yes	Yes	✓	
Wyndham Hotels & Resorts Inc.	Yes	Yes	✓	
Wynn Resorts	Yes	Yes	✓	
Yum! Brands Inc.	Yes	No		✓

*A company that included trans-inclusive policies within their LGBTQ+ initiatives communication.

LGBTQ+ Organisational Culture and Leadership

Accor Group (2023), Bloomin' Brands Inc. (2017), Boyd Gaming Corp. (2014), InterContinental Hotels Group (2021) and Wyndham Hotels & Resorts Inc. (2019) indicated their willingness to create opportunities and a culture of equality for LGBTQ+ team members, offering policies that support an inclusive culture around gender identity and self-expression. Bloomin' Brands Inc. (2017) offer training programmes that support LGBTQ+ individuals at work. Brinker International Inc. (2007) reported that they had developed several programmes around recruitment and selection, hiring, marketing, and philanthropy to support LGBTQ+ individuals in the workplace. Darden Restaurants Inc. (2022) expressed their pride to be recognised as one of the best places to work for LGBTQ+ as it showcases their commitment to providing an inclusive and diverse culture. LGBTQ+ issue has been central to the company's DNA since Mr. Darden opened his first restaurant in 1938. The Leadership of Boyd Gaming strives to create opportunities and a culture of equality for all LGBTQ+ employees. Las Vegas Sands Corp. (2023) has shown sustained commitment to diversity through initiatives like training for new hires and employees, and executives' performance tied to diversity goals. Sodexo Inc.'s leadership highlighted the importance of fostering an inclusive environment where LGBTQ+

employees can bring their whole selves to work. Starbucks Corp.' commitment, however, is to build a culture where everyone is welcome, standing as an ally to LGBTQ+ people and affirming every way they may choose to identify.

LGBTQ+ Policies

Accor Group (2023), Aramark Corp. (2022), Bloomin' Brands Inc. (2017), Brinker International Inc. (2007), Choice Hotels International Inc. (2019), Darden Restaurants Inc. (2022), Hilton Worldwide (2019), Hyatt Hotels Corp. (2015), InterContinental Hotels Group (2021), Las Vegas Sands Corp. (2023), Marriott International (2021), Sodexo Inc. (2021) and Starbucks Corp. (2022) were among the 26 companies that specified engaging in a supportive and inclusive culture around gender identity and self-expression in their D&I policies. Wyndham hotels & Resorts Inc. (2019) claim to be "an employer of choice among the LGBTQ+ community for more than ten years and one that encourages team members to bring their whole selves to work." Darden Restaurants Inc. (2022) helped improve the lives of LGBTQ+ people over the years by encouraging the adoption of gender-inclusive policies. Caesars Entertainment (2015) and Panera Bread Co. (2021) pledged their commitment to an equal workplace for LGBTQ+.

LGBTQ+ Equity as Support Strategy

Compass Group Inc. (2016) was among those 26 companies that adopted LGBTQ+ equality as a strategy for D&I. Hence it partnered with the leading LGBTQ+ charity Stonewall and professional network Outstanding to help develop its workplace strategy and policies further to support LGBTQ+ colleagues at their place of work. Aramark Corp. (2022) claims that they are committed to promoting an open, inclusive environment for LGBTQ+ employees and is fully engaged in achieving organisational goals and enhancing professional growth. As a member of Stonewall's Diversity Champions programme, Compass Group Inc. (2016) employs a new LGBTQ+ and Allies network as part of its wider D&I strategy to create a positive working environment for all colleagues to realise that people perform better when they can be themselves and that a diverse team produces a more creative and productive workplace environment. So, a commitment to LGBTQ+ equity also produces tangible business benefits.

LGBTQ+ Equitable Benefits

Ben and Jerry's Inc. (2023), Cracker Barrel Old Country Store Inc. (2022), Dominos Pizzas Inc. (2020), and Sodexo Inc. (2021) shared information on their active support of LGBTQ+ rights and advocacy for trans people and their families. MGM Resorts International (2016) and Starbucks Corp. (2022) were among the 18 companies that explicitly specified expanding their supplier and construction diversity programmes to include companies owned by LGBTQ+. Hyatt Hotels Corp. (2015), Marriott International (2021) and Starbucks Corp. (2018) offer equitable benefits for LGBTQ+ workers and their families, including equal health insurance coverage. Regarding employee resource groups (ERG), Hilton Worldwide Executive Inclusion Council created its first ERG in 2012, including LGBTQ+ and allies. Starbucks Corp. (2022) indicated that Suppliers interested in doing business through Starbucks Supplier Diversity Programme must be 51% owned and operated by an LGBTQ+.

Valuing and Supporting LGBTQ+ Equity for External Stakeholders

All 26 companies, including Starbucks Corp., continue to value and support LGBTQ+ inclusion for their external stakeholders, such as owners, partners, suppliers and local communities. Starbucks Corp. (2022) explicitly declared its commitment to LGBTQ+ diversity by operating a supplier diversity programme that helps build prosperous communities. One of the main eligibility criteria is that suppliers must be owned or operated by LGBTQ+ to qualify for this programme. In 2011, MGM Resorts International (2016) expanded its construction and supplier diversity programmes to include LGBTQ+ companies. Dominos Pizzas Inc. (2020) and Chipotle Mexican Grill Inc. (2019) declared their ongoing commitment to standing with the LGBTQ+ community during Pride Month and every day. Hilton Worldwide (2019) acknowledged being a long-time partner of the LGBTQ+ community, supporting civil society organisations and working to promote the inclusion of and dignity for all persons, regardless of sexual orientation or gender identity. Their commitment is sincere, diverse, and solid to affirm a consistent global message that LGBTQ+ rights are human rights.

Trans-inclusive Policies

18 out of 26 companies reported on trans-inclusive policies (presented in Table 3) within their LGBTQ+ inclusion policies (Ben & Jerry's Inc., Bloomin' Brands Inc., Brinker International Inc., Boyd Gaming Corp., Caesars Entertainment, Choice Hotels International Inc., Cracker Barrel Old Country Store Inc., Dominos pizzas Inc., Hilton Worldwide, Hyatt hotels Corp., InterContinental Hotels Group, Marriott International, McDonald's Corp., MGM resorts International, Sodexo Inc., Starbucks Corp., Wyndham hotels & Resorts Inc., Wynn resorts). Findings showed that 19 out of 26 assessed companies seem to have a reasonable understanding of trans equity and showed some links between their LGBTQ+ policies and trans-inclusive policies. These companies happened to also receive awards for "Best Place to Work for LGBTQ+ employees". Nonetheless, there seems to be a lack of understanding of trans equity amongst the remaining 7 companies did not address trans equity within their LGBTQ+ policies.

Table 3. Summary of Trans-inclusive Policies and Corresponding Illustrative Quotations

Trans-inclusive policies	Companies that communicated trans-inclusive policies within their D&I and LGBTQ+ reports	Illustrative quotations
Company-wide diversity council	Bloomin' Brands Inc., Brinker International Inc., Caesars Entertainment, Hilton Worldwide, Hyatt Hotels Corp., InterContinental Hotels Group, Marriott International, Yum Brands Inc.	Employee groups and/or diversity councilswithin the company to support LGBTQ+ employees (Bloomin' Brands Inc.).
Trans-inclusive Cultural awareness training programmes	Ben & Jerry's Inc., Bloomin' Brands Inc., Brinker International Inc., Choice Hotels International Inc., Hilton Worldwide, Hyatt Hotels Corp., InterContinental Hotels Group, Marriott International, MGM Resorts International, Yum Brands Inc.	offering several programmes aroundhiring, supplier selection, marketing, and philanthropy to support LGBTQ+ individuals, causes, and organisations (Brinker International Inc.)
Trans-specific policies	Ben & Jerry's Inc., Bloomin' Brands Inc., Boyd Gaming Corp., Brinker International Inc., HiltonWorldwide, Hyatt Hotels Corp., InterContinental Hotels Group,McDonald's Corp., Marriott International, Starbucks Corp., Wyndham Hotels& Resorts Inc.	Policies that support an inclusive culture around gender identity and self-expression(Bloomin' Brands Inc., Brinker International Inc, Boyd Gaming Corp., InterContinental Hotels Group).

Trans-inclusive Support	Ben & Jerry’s Inc., Caesars Entertainment, Cracker Barrel Old Country Store Inc., Dominos Pizzas Inc., Hilton Worldwide, Hyatt Hotels Corp, InterContinental Hotels Group, McDonald’s Corp., MGM Resorts International, Marriott International, Sodexo Inc., Starbucks Corp., Wyndham Hotels& Resorts Inc., Wynn Resorts, Yum Brands Inc.	working with our friends at the National Center for Transgender Equality (NCTE) in supporting and advocating for trans people (Ben & Jerry’s Inc.).
Trans-inclusive policies		
	Companies that communicated trans-inclusive policies within their D&I and LGBTQ+ reports	Illustrative quotations
Trans Employee Resource Group	Bloomin’ Brands Inc., Brinker International Inc., Choice Hotels International Inc., Caesars Entertainment, Cracker Barrel Old Country Store Inc., Hilton Worldwide, Hyatt Hotels Corp., InterContinental Hotels Group, McDonald’s Corp, Marriott International, Yum Brands Inc.	in 2012 by the first Employee Resource Groups, including one for LGBT+ and allies (Hilton Worldwide).
Trans-inclusive Suppliers	Bloomin’ Brands Inc., Brinker International Inc., Caesars Entertainment, Hilton Worldwide, Hyatt Hotels Corp., InterContinental Hotels Group, MarriottInternational	MGM Resorts expanded its supplier and construction diversity programmes to include LGBT-owned companies (MGM Resorts International). Suppliers interestedin doing business through Starbucks Supplier Diversity Programme must be 51% owned and operated by a LGBTQ+, (Starbucks Corp.)

Conclusion

This study delved into the realm of LGBTQ+ policies with a specific emphasis on transgender inclusion within the hospitality sector. By examining 26 multinational companies, it enriched the field of Diversity and Inclusion (D&I) by developing a Trans-Inclusive Workplace (TIW) conceptual framework which can become a valuable tool for evaluating trans equity within LGBTQ+ policies of hospitality companies. The findings revealed that while some companies demonstrated a strong commitment to LGBTQ+ equality and trans inclusion, others fell short in addressing trans equity within their policies. The identified seven trans-inclusive policies, such as company-wide diversity councils, trans-specific policies, and support mechanisms for trans employees, varied in their implementation across the examined companies. Notably, those companies that exhibited a clear integration of their LGBTQ+ policies with trans equity were often recognized as "Best Place to Work for LGBTQ+ employees." Nevertheless, it is crucial to recognise the prevailing disparity and inconsistency in trans-inclusive policy and practice at the industry level.

The road to achieving a trans-inclusive workspace is far more challenging than addressing the needs of LGBTQ+ individuals. It requires a deeper understanding of the unique experiences, vulnerabilities, and rights of trans employees. Companies must go beyond superficial gestures and strive to become genuine advocates of LGBTQ+ rights to avoid allegations of 'rainbow-washing'. It is important also to acknowledge certain limitations of this study. The research primarily relied on the information provided in the companies' D&I reports, limiting the depth of analysis. Additionally, the intersectionality within the LGBTQ+ spectrum was not extensively explored, calling for further research and experimentation. The current literature also lacks comprehensive conceptual and empirical studies on trans equity, highlighting the need for increased investment in understanding and implementing trans-specific policies in the workplace. In conclusion, the findings of this study underscore the ongoing work required to create an inclusive and equitable environment for LGBTQ+ employees in the hospitality industry. By adopting the TIW framework and addressing the identified gaps, companies can navigate the complexities of trans equity and foster an atmosphere where all employees feel valued, respected, and supported in their authentic selves.

References

Accor Group. (2023). LGBTQI inclusion. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://group.accor.com/en/careers/our-culture-of-inclusion/lgbtqi-inclusion

Aramark Corp. (2022). Aramark recognized for achievement dei lgbtq workplace equality inclusion. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.aramark.com/newsroom/news/aramark-recognized-for-achievement-dei-lgbtq-workplace-equality-inclusion

Babnik, K., Breznik, K., Dermol, V., & Širca, N. T. (2014). The mission statement: Organisational culture perspective. *Industrial Management & Data Systems*, 114(4), 612-627.

Ben & Jerry's Inc. (2023). LGBTQ rights. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.benjerry.com/values/issues-we-care-about/lgbtq-rights

Bloomin' Brands Inc. (2017). Diversity equity inclusion. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from http://www.bloominbrands.com/diversity-equity-inclusion

Bogdan, R., & Biklen, S. K. (1997). *Qualitative research for education*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon.

Boyd Gaming Corp. (2014). Corporate social responsibility report 2014. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://static.boydgaming.net/boydgaming/media/downloads/Boyd_Gaming_2014_CSR.PDF

Brinker International Inc. (2007). Brinker international honored diversity and inclusion efforts. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://investors.brinker.com/news-releases/news-release-details/brinker-international-honored-diversity-and-inclusion-efforts

Buckley, T. (2019). Barilla Pasta's turnaround from homophobia to national pride. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.bloomberg.com/news/features/2019-05-07/barilla-pasta-s-turnaround-from-homophobia-to-national-pride?leadSource=uverify%20wall

Caesars Entertainment. (2015). Caesars Entertainment earns perfect score in corporate equality index for ninth consecutive year. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://investor.caesars.com/news-releases/news-release-details/caesars-entertainment-earns-perfect-score-corporate-equality

Campbell, J.L., Quincy, C., Osserman, J., & Pedersen, O. K. (2013). Coding in-depth semi- structured interviews: problems of unitization and intercoder reliability and agreement. *Sociological Methods and Research*, 42 (3), 294–320.

Carpenter, J. N., & Whitelaw, R. F. (2017). The development of China's stock market and stakes for the global economy. *Annual Review of Financial Economics*, 9(1), 233-257.

Carter, E. R., Onyeador, I. N., & Lewis Jr., N. A. (2020). Developing & delivering effective anti-bias training: challenges & recommendations. *Behavioral Science & Policy*, 6 (1), 57–70.

Chipotle Mexican Grill Inc. (2019). Chipotle celebrates LGBTQ+ community with 'Love What Makes You Real'. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://newsroom.chipotle.com/2019-06-06-Chipotle-Celebrates-LGBTQ-Community-With-Love-What-Makes-You-Real

Choice Hotels International Inc. (2019). Choice Hotels named "Best Place to Work for LGBTQ Equality" for ninth consecutive year. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://media.choicehotels.com/2019-03-28-Choice-Hotels-Named-Best-Place-to-Work-for-LGBTQ-Equality-for-Ninth-Consecutive-Year

Combs, G. M., Milosevic, I., & Bilimoria, D. (2019). Introduction to the special topic forum: Critical discourse: Envisioning the place and future of diversity and inclusion in organizations. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 26(3), 277–286.

Compass Group Inc. (2016). Compass Group UK & Ireland launches LGBT network. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.compass-group.co.uk/media/news/compass-group-uk-ireland-launches-lgbt-network/

Cracker Barrel Old Country Store Inc. (2022). Diversity and Inclusion. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.crackerbarrel.com/diversity-and-inclusion

Cunningham, G. B., & Hussain, U. (2020). The case for LGBT diversity and inclusion in sport business. *Sport & Entertainment Review*, 5(1), 1-15.

Cunningham, G. B., & Melton, E. N. (2014). Signals and cues: LGBT inclusive advertising and consumer attraction. *Sport Marketing Quarterly*, 23(1), 37.

Darden Restaurants Inc. (2022). Darden Named One of the Best Places to Work for LGBTQ+ Equality. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.darden.com/our-impact/team-members/Darden-Named-One-of-the-Best-Places-to-Work-for-LGBTQ%2B-Equality

Davis, N. B. & Yeung, S. T. (2022). Transgender equity in the workplace: A Systematic Review. *SAGE Open*, 12(1), 1-6.

Dominos Pizzas Inc. (2020). Dominos celebrates the LGBTQ+ community. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://media.dominos.com/stories/lgbtq/

Elias, N. M., Johnson, R. L., Ovando, D. & Ramirez, J. (2018). Improving transgender policy for a more equitable workplace. *Journal of Public Management & Social Policy*, 24(2), 53-81.

Gehrels, S., & Suleri, J. (2016). Diversity and inclusion as indicators of sustainable human resources management in the international hospitality industry. *Research in Hospitality Management*, 6(1), 61-67.

Hafiz, N., Azmi, K. M., Islam, A., Latiff, A. S. A., & Abd Wahab, S. (2022). Diversity and inclusion experience of trans workers: The missing link of trans-friendly environment in organisations. *Journal of International Business and Management*, 5(2), 01-15.

Hilton Worldwide. (2019). Diversity and Inclusion at Hilton. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.hilton.com/en/corporate/wp-content/uploads/2019/11/20190225_External-Diversity-Brochure.pdf

Huffman, A. H., Mills, M. J., Howes, S. S., & Albritton, M. D. (2021). Workplace support and affirming behaviors: Moving toward a transgender, gender diverse, and non-binary friendly workplace. *International Journal of Transgender Health*, 22(3), 225-242.

Hyatt Hotels Corp. (2015). Hyatt Recognized by Human Rights Campaign as 'Best Place to Work' for LGBT Equality. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://newsroom.hyatt.com/111815-Hyatt-Recognized-by-Human-Rights-Campaign-as-Best-Place-To-Work-for-LGBT-Equality

InterContinental Hotels Group. (2021). IHG celebrates seventh straight year as a 'Best Place to Work for LGBTQ Equality'. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.ihgplc.com/en/news-and-media/news-releases/2021/ihg-celebrates-seventh-straight-year-as-a-best-place-to-work-for-lgbtq-equality

Kinney, M. K., Pearson, T. E., & Aoki, J. R. (2022). Improving "Life Chances": Surveying the anti-transgender backlash and offering a transgender equity impact assessment tool for policy analysis. *Journal of Law, Medicine & Ethics*, 50(3), 489-508.

Las Vegas Sands Corp. (2023). Las Vegas Sands welcomes the LGBTQ centre of Southern Nevada into the Sands Cares Accelerator. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.sands.com/news/press/las-vegas-sands-welcomes-the-lgbtq-center-of-southern-nevada-into-the-sands-cares-accelerator/

Longarino, D. (2019). Uncovering: The economic benefits of LGBT workplace inclusion. *Frontiers of Law in China*, 14(4), 500-532.

Madera, J. M. (2013). Best Practices in Diversity Management in Customer Service Organizations: An Investigation of Top Companies Cited by Diversity Inc. *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly*, 54(2), 124–135.

Maguire, M., & Delahunt, B. (2017). Doing a thematic analysis: A practical, step-by-step guide for learning and teaching scholars. *All Ireland Journal of Higher Education*, 9(3), 3351–33514.

Manoharan, A., Madera, J. M., & Singal, M. (2021). Walking the talk in diversity management: Exploring links between strategic statements, management practices, and external recognition. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94, 102864.
Marriott International (2021) Marriott International earns 100% perfect score on 2021 Human Rights Campaign's corporate equality index. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://news.marriott.com/news/2021/01/28/marriott-international-earns-100-perfect-score-on-2021-human-rights-campaigns-corporate-equality-index
Marshall, C., & Rossman, G. B. (2014). *Designing qualitative research*. Sage publications.
Marvell, R., Broughton, A., Breese. E. & Tyle, E. (2017). Supporting trans employees in the workplace. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from http://sro.sussex.ac.uk/id/eprint/70309/1/Supporting-trans-employees-in-the-workplace.pdf
Matveev, A. V. (2002). The advantages of employing quantitative and qualitative methods in intercultural research: Practical implications from the study of the perceptions of intercultural communication competence by American and Russian managers. *Theory of communication and applied communication*, 1(6), 59-67.
McDonald's Corp. (2022). Diversity, Equity & Inclusion. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://corporate.mcdonalds.com/corpmcd/our-purpose-and-impact/jobs-inclusion-and-empowerment/diversity-and-inclusion.html
Metcalfe, H. & Rolfe, H. (2011). Barriers to employers in developing lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender-friendly workplaces. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/85515/LGBT-equality-workplace.pdf
MGM Resorts International. (2016). MGM Resorts named one of the best places to work for LGBT equality. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://newsroom.mgmresorts.com/mgm-resorts-named-one-of-the-best-places-to-work-for-lgbt-equality.htm
Panera Bread Co. (2021). Diversity, equity and inclusion 2020 Progress Report. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.panerabread.com/content/dam/panerabread/documents/DEI-progress-report.pdf
Patton, M. Q. (2014). *Qualitative research & evaluation methods: Integrating theory and practice*. Sage publications.
Pulcher, S., Guerci, M., & Köllen, T. (2022). When stakeholders claim differently for diversity management: Adopting lesbian, gay and bisexual-inclusive practices in Italy. *British journal of industrial relations*, 60(4), 815-840.
Sangganjanavanich, V. F. & Headley, J. A. (2016). Career development of transgender college students pursuing gender transition. *Career Planning & Adult Development Journal*, 32(1), 161-168.
Sodexo Inc. (2022). Diversity, Equity & Inclusion (DEI), available at: https://uk.sodexo.com/DE&I.html
Sodexo Inc. (2021). Workplace pride benchmark. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.sodexo.com/en/news/newsroom/2021/workplace-pride-benchmark-2021
Starbucks Corp. (2018). 'They are lifesaving': Starbucks offers expanded benefits for trans people. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://stories.starbucks.com/stories/2018/they-are-lifesaving-starbucks-offers-expanded-benefits-for-trans-people/
Starbucks Corp. (2022). Timeline: Starbucks history of LGBTQIA2+ inclusion. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://stories.starbucks.com/stories/2022/starbucks-pride-a-long-legacy-of-lgbtq-inclusion/
Stroumsa, D. (2014). The state of transgender health care: policy, law, and medical frameworks. *American journal of public health*, 104(3), 31-38.
The Human Rights Campaign. (2020). Corporate Equality Index 2020. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://assets2.hrc.org/files/assets/resources/CEI-2020.pdf
The Human Rights Campaign. (2019). Corporate Equality Index 2019. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://assets2.hrc.org/files/assets/resources/CEI-2019-FullReport.pdf
Thoroughgood, C.N., Sawyer, K.B. & Webster, J.R. (2020). Creating a Trans-Inclusive Workplace. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://hbr.org/2020/03/creating-a-trans-inclusive-workplace
Vongvisitsin, T. B., & Wong, A. K. F. (2021). Organisational change towards LGBTQ+ inclusion in hospitality and tourism: Managerial perspectives. *Tourism Management*, 86, 104331.
Weinzimmer, L. G., & Esken, C. A. (2016). Risky business: Taking a stand on social issues. *Business Horizons*, 59(3), 331–337.

Westbrook, L., & Schilt, K. (2014). Doing gender, determining gender: Transgender people, gender panics, and the maintenance of the sex/gender/sexuality system. *Gender & society*, 28(1), 32-57.
Whittle, S. T. & Turner, L. (2017). Trans-Inclusive Workplaces – a guide for employers and businesses is a toolkit and call for action. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://espace.mmu.ac.uk/620618/1/2017%20TGEU_transinclusive_workplaces.pdf
Wyndham Hotels & Resorts Inc. (2019). Wyndham Hotels & Resorts' commitment to fostering workplace equality recognized by Human Rights Campaign. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://corporate.wyndhamhotels.com/news-releases/wyndham-hotels-resorts-commitment-to-fostering-workplace-equality-recognized-by-human-rights-campaign/
Yum Brands Inc. (2019). Yum pride allyship story. Retrieved January 23, 2023, from https://www.yum.com/wps/portal/yumbrands/Yumbrands/news/company-stories-article/Yum+Pride+Allyship+Story

TRACK 4 – Managerial and New Work Realities

4.1. The intersection of Talent Management and career development strategies for post COVID-19 in the narrative accounts of hotel employees

Aliaksei Kichuk | Birmingham City University, UK
Cindy Millman | University for the Creative Arts, UK

Abstract

The paper explores how employees and managers of three-, four- and five-star hotels in the UK build sound TM and career development strategies for resilience, career adaptability, work agility and effective crisis management after COVID-19 pandemic. The theoretical underpinning for this research comes from the management and career literature. The study adopted an inductive qualitative approach and narrative approach were adopted as a frame of reference for this research. In total 15 narrative interviews with employees and managers in three-, four- and five-star hotels were collected. Data saturation was achieved by the 15th narrative interview. Thematic analysis by Braun and Clarke (2006) combined with NVIVO 12 analysis were conducted to get in-depth of research findings. The findings explore how sound strategies for TM and career development are interrelated in the hospitality industry after COVID-19 pandemic.

Keywords: Talent Management; Career development; Career theories; Post-Covid-19 strategies; Hospitality industry

Introduction

COVID-19 has become the litmus indicator that changed the global economy and the face of the modern hospitality industry. The UK hospitality sector was affected the most amongst others. Particularly, Food & Beverage (F&B) services output (restaurants, cafes, takeaways, pubs) fell by 29.3% in January 2021; whilst that of the hotel and accommodation output fell by 22.3% reported by Office for National Statistics (ONS) (2021). Research aiming to access the views of individual employees and understand their personal reasons for continuing to work in hospitality organisations is very limited (Jang and George, 2012). This research aims to provide a narrative account, explore the perceptions from employees and managers examining how hotel industry could build resilience, career adaptability, work agility and effective crisis management post-COVID-19 pandemic.

Theoretical framework

This research is positioned at the intersection of TM and career development. Hence, the theoretical underpinning for this research mainly from the management and career literature. It draws theories of: Human Capital Theory (Becker, 1964), Career Choice and Development theory (Super 1957; 1981; 1990), Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) (Lent et al., 1994; 2000; 2005) and Higgin's Regulatory Focus Theory (RFT) (Higgins et al., 1997; 1998).

Resilience

Nowadays resilience is the indicator of the hospitality business to be able to adapt to new post-COVID-19 rules, regulations and challenges. It was argued that COVID-19 was the major disturbance that had extremely negative impact on hotels and other hospitality businesses, as they ceased their operations following governmental orders of lockdown (ONS 2021). The latest framework stems from the challenges that were revealed during COVID-19 with a resilience-based framework proposed (Sharma et al., 2021). They highlighted that current post-COVID-19 reality requires resilient strategies for business stability and recovery. Moreover, the strategies require coordination of various crisis management techniques, good relationship among stakeholders, recognition of risks involved, and opportunities for business development for hospitality organisations (Alves et al., 2020; Fitriasari, 2020).

Career Adaptability

Career adaptability is defined as a person's ability to cope with difficulties arising from change through self-adjustment, self-control, and efficient task performance (Boo et al. 2021). In the current post-COVID-19 reality career adaptability allows talented employees to demonstrate readiness for new challenges and develop problem-solving strategies and self-regulation (Sou et al., 2022). Previous studies on career adaptability identified that it can be triggered or developed during career-related events or changes, it can also be advanced by different high-performance work practices such as group-based performance pay training, high pay levels and employee training (Ocampo et al., 2020). Therefore, individuals can increase their own career adaptability to strengthen their capacity to handle occupational changes (Savickas & Porfeli, 2012).

Organisational agility

COVID-19 revealed that hospitality organisations lack the skills, flexible organisational culture to overcome crisis. Organisational agility is a competitive advantage that can increase performance and creativity (Darvishmotevali et al., 2020). Batra (2020) claimed that organisational agility is the key to success in a dynamic and rapidly changing work environment as it aids the ability to manage sudden change, taking advantage of available opportunities. Organisational agility provides new ways to capture opportunities during the uncertain environment as in the context of hospitality industry to adapt environmental complexity by taking strategic decisions (Walker & McCarthy, 2010).

Crisis Management

Crisis management has become a burning priority during COVID-19 with disruption to hospitality regular business requiring hotel managers to mitigate the effects. Multiple models have been proposed to explain the phenomenon and help guide management through crises (Smith, 1990; Booth, 1993; Seymour & Moore, 2000; Faulkner, 2001). Alonso-Almeida, Bremser and Llach, (2015) argued that the concept of crisis management consists of three generic domains, regardless of the type of crisis: crisis identification, proactive, and reactive crisis management strategies. The proactive strategies defined by the management are preventative measures which aim to strengthen a hospitality organisation's market leadership and operational efficiency. This means that the management sets actions and procedures in place to be undertaken prior to, during, and after the crisis. Contrarily, reactive crisis management strategies are spontaneous (ad-hoc) and inconclusive management reactions to environmental changes, which mainly consist of immediate cost-cutting measures.

Methodology

This study adopted an inductive qualitative approach, to be responsive to multiple meanings using narrative inquiry to uncover the accounts of the employees interviewed (Merriam & Tisdell, 2015). Non-probability purposive sampling was adopted which involves a deliberate selection of the individuals suitable for the research purposes (Polkinghorne, 1988). The selection of participants was criterion based (Jones et al., 2013). The criteria were identified following the review of the initial body of research and were pseudonym, hotel star rating, position held in a hotel, hotel department, years of experience and nationality. Below, Table 1 provides participants' profile with pseudonyms used. Data collection was completed in two stages: Stage 1 took place in January and February 2021 when narrative interviews were conducted over MS Teams and Zoom with 3* and 4* hotels in the UK. Stage 2 took place in May and June 2021 with 5*hotels. 15 narrative interviews with employees and managers were collected with the data saturation reached by then, followed Guest et al. (2006) definition which states that saturation in narrative research is a fluid concept and stories are expected to have some common themes, however each storyteller tells a unique story. Interviews of between 1 hour 45 minutes to 2 hours 30 minutes in duration were digitally recorded and fully transcribed by the researchers.

Data was analysed by a combination of the technique of thematic analysis (Braun & Clarke, 2006) and NVivo 12 software to get in-depth analysis and visualisation of data collected. The audio recordings totalling 27 hours of digital recording were personally transcribed resulting in 15 transcripts of employee narratives. The process spanning over 4 months, ended with a 300-page document totalling, more than 210,000 words.

Table 1. Participants' profile

Pseudonym	Hotel star rating	Position held	Hotel department	Years of experience	Nationality
Jose	3*	Reception Manager	Reception	5	Spanish
Michael	4*	Hotel Manager	Management	12	English
Aaron	4*	Head Chef	Kitchen	18	Scottish
Adrians	5*	Reception Manager	Front of House	7	Latvian
Zuzanna	3*	HR Manager	Human Resources	4	Polish
Maria	4*	Pastry Chef	Kitchen	3	Portuguese
Albena	5*	Reception Manager	Management	10	Bulgarian
Ladislav	3*	Night porter	Nights	7	Slovakian
Lorenzo	5*	Night Manager	Nights	8	Italian

Peter	4*	Guest services staff	Conference & Banqueting	6	English
Samuel	4*	Commis Chef	Kitchen	5	English
Daniel	3*	Duty Manager	Management	7	Bulgarian
Aleksander	4*	Guest services staff	Conference & Banqueting	4	Polish
Charles	5*	Sommelier	Conference & Banqueting	8	English
Andrew	3*	HR Manager	Human Resources	10	English

Figures 1 and 2 demonstrate the two overarching themes and the sub-themes:

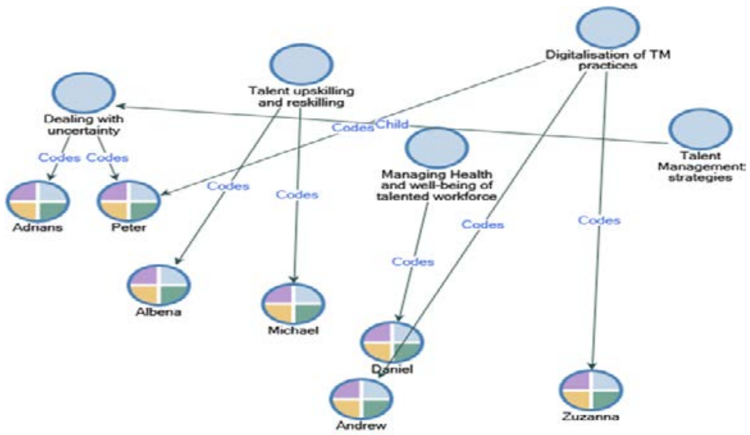


Figure 1. Talent Management strategies

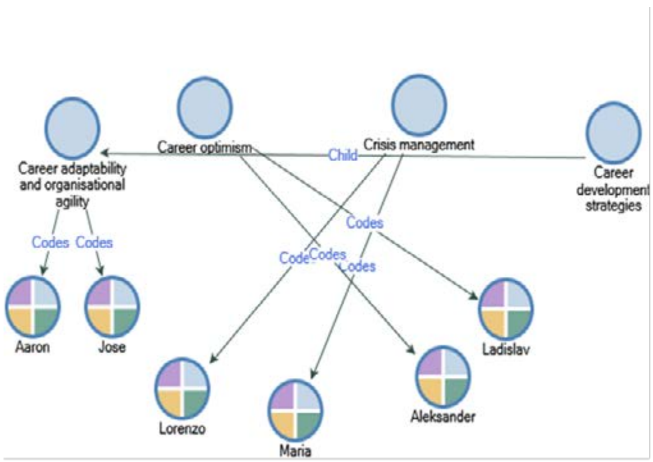


Figure 2. Career development strategies

Findings and Discussion

Talent Management Strategies

Talent upskilling and reskilling

> "During lockdown our staff worked remotely, and we initiated multiple courses, that allowed our staff to improve their skills. We offered free access to e-learning courses, such as Remote Workers-Health, Safety and Welfare, New Digital Technologies during COVID-19, innovative thinking during COVID-19 and ghost kitchen service…". Michael (Hotel Manager)

The findings revealed that all hotels adapted new approaches to talent development and concentrated on talent upskilling and reskilling. The findings are in line with the current research of Agrawal et al. (2020) who highlighted that upskilling and reskilling will allow hospitality organisations to thrive after the crisis and bring critical talent pools to the organisation. Moreover, upskilling and reskilling has a direct connection to the Human Capital theory by Becker (1964), who argued that individuals are assumed to invest in training during an initial period and receive returns to the investment in subsequent periods.

Managing health and well-being of talented workforce

> "In our hotel, I paid extra attention to health and well-being of our staff. When we all retuned to work, most of the staff were afraid to deal with customers at reception, restaurant while serving customers. It was mandatory for all hotel staff to use facial masks, follow distance regulations and access restrictions, hand hygiene and disinfection possibilities." Daniel (Duty Manager)

The above excerpt underscores the value placed on health and well-being in hotels. In Danilel's case, employee well-being improves happiness, comfort, and tranquillity that employees feel while working. Sirgy (2019) claimed that the awareness of employee well-being had a positive effect on mental health, job satisfaction, organisational commitment and work-life balance.

Dealing with uncertainty

> "After COVID-19 numerous reception staff returned to the hotel feeling frustrated and were afraid of losing their jobs…But we had a meeting with our GM, and he told us that we could share any concerns related our jobs with our line managers. Also, GM introduced an incentive scheme to boost morale of the staff after COVID-19 and allowed them to be valued and appreciated". Adrians (Reception Manager)

Hence, it was evident from the above narrative that COVID-19 introduced a new way of thinking where hotel managers needed to address uncertainty in the workplace and build further strategies of how to engage and motivate hotel employees. Among them were incentive schemes to boost the morale and deepen the engagement and motivation of the employees, involve staff in decision-making. This finding is in line with Lai and Cai (2022) who claimed that in the post-COVID-19 reality organisations need to deal with myriad of factors how to engage and motivate their employees.

Digitalisation of TM practices

Bharwani and Mathews (2021) argued that digital transformation and innovative technologies are a key component of the COVID-19 response. This was confirmed in the open narratives:

> "We have our company websites, where we advertise current job roles and provide clear indication of job specs of the role. We use LinkedIn, where we search for potential candidates-future talented employees. We also use social networks such as Facebook and Twitter to select, attract top talents to our company and build a talent pool of professionals. Zuzanna (HR Manager)

The above excerpt revealed that nowadays to be in line with the digital transformation, hotels apply digital technologies for attraction, development and retention of talented employees. This finding was in line with Super's theory of career choice and development (1957, 1981, & 1990), who postulated an individual passes through different life stages: growth, exploration, establishment, maintenance, and decline or disengagement, when involved in career decision-making.

Career Development strategies

The second overarching theme that was revealed was Career Development strategies, which was further broken down into four subthemes: career adaptability and organisational agility, crisis management and career optimism as a way of building a resilient workforce.

Career adaptability and organisational agility
Filimonau et al. (2020) claimed that COVID-19 led to major challenges in staff recruitment and employee retention for hotel managers. This was evident in the employees' accounts:

> "Funny enough, COVID-19 put us in a different mindset, where I started to think about health and safety of hotel operations. I was lucky enough that our GM provided us with online NCASS training course of "COVID-19 safety training for caterers". That career development course instigated my interest in Health and Safety regulations, so I am going to complete more career related courses in the near future." Aaron (the Head Chef)

The above narrative account demonstrated that career development strategies are of paramount importance especially during crisis, pandemic, as they allow to find proactive decisions, build career adaptability and organisational agility. This finding is in line with the Social Cognitive Career Theory of Lent et al. (1994), who argued that self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and personal goals are building blocks of a career development of an individual and they have an impact on career-related interest, choice, and performance.

Crisis Management
Crisis management is a continuous and holistic effort in an organisation to efficiently understand and prevent crises, as well as manage it with the interests of stakeholders in mind (Alzoubi & Hisham 2020). This was evident in accounts below:

> "Back in 2019 nobody expected that the hospitality industry will be in such a huge crisis…We started to operate ghost kitchens, we advertised on our company website that our guests can order their food online and it will be delivered safely to their door. Along with food deliveries we started to offer contactless payments, and YoYo wallet was introduced that allowed our customers to feel safe during pandemic." Maria (Pastry Chef)

Hence, it is evident from narrative account that hotels introduced crisis management strategies that allowed them to effectively manage their businesses. This finding echoed Anderson (2006) who highlighted that hotel managers and HODs make decisions that are not part of normal operating procedures. Moreover, they are designing and implementing policies related to good and strategic crisis management.

Career optimism
Manoharan et al. (2021) purported that career optimism is especially important for culturally and linguistically diverse workers (CALD). In our sample all the employees were of different nationalities, cultures and backgrounds. Therefore, it was important for them to build career adaptability and resilience for the aftermath of COVID-19. Emotional, when shared the narrative account below:

> "I know that COVID-19 brought lots of challenges to hotel industry, we were shut for some time…As I worked for the Nights for 7 years, I was hoping one day to get a job promotion. During lockdown I had several online courses related to job security, leadership during COVID-19. Moreover, my Night Manager left the job. I was interviewed for the Night Managers role and got promoted." Ladislav (Night porter)

The narrative account demonstrated that despite COVID-19 challenges hotel employees had career optimism and were eager to have higher levels of resilience, career adaptability for promotion in their career. These findings are in line with Higgin's Regulatory Focus Theory (1997, 1998), who claimed that employees who are pursuing promotion goals make good things happen in a positive-outcome-focused motivational state.

Conclusion

Talent Management strategies

The findings revealed that the hotels adapted new approaches to talent development and concentrated on talent upskilling and reskilling. As COVID-19 pandemic evolved employees had numerous online training courses in health and safety, sanitation and social distancing measures, digital and contactless technologies, innovative thinking how to work in after-COVID-19 reality and home delivery and ghost kitchen cooking concept. The study found that hotel managers introduced effective strategies to boost morale of the staff after COVID-19. They introduced employee of the month nominations and further training and development for talented employees in hotels that allowed them to feel valued and appreciated. The research found that professional and social networks are used for development of skills and competencies for talented employees.

Career development strategies

The research found that career development strategies allowed managers to find proactive decisions, build career adaptability and organisational agility. Moreover, effective crisis management strategies allowed the hotels to manage their businesses successfully. The managers effectively generated the revenue during hotel closures by applying ghost kitchen concepts, home deliveries, time-sensitive differential prices to diverse market segments generating both higher hotels' revenues and customer satisfaction.
It was found that despite COVID-19 challenges, hotel employees had career optimism and were eager to have higher levels of resilience, career adaptability for promotion in their career. Therefore, we propose to conceptualise intersection of Talent Management and career development strategies for post-COVID-19 in the narrative accounts of hotel employees, presented in Figure 3.

Implications

Figure 3 illustrates that this research is positioned at the intersection between TM and career development. Hence, we contribute knowledge both to the organisational perspective of the TM literature and the personal career perspective of the career literature. The inclusion of two perspectives allows the researchers to fully understand the effects of TM practices on personal career development in the hotel sector. Firstly, the Human Capital theory (Becker, 1964) helps to establish links between skills and knowledge of talented employees and to understand the relationship among skills and knowledge of employees and productivity. Secondly, Super's theory of career choice and development (Super, 1957, 1981, 1990) deepens our understanding of the process of career building and explains how individuals situate their work roles among their other life roles, and then use them to gain their career experiences and fulfil their personal career aspirations. Thirdly, Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT) (Lent et al., 1994, 2000, 2005) offers a comprehensive framework to understand the development of career interest, career choice, career experience and performance.

We also provided a methodological contribution in the knowledge field by adopting a narrative inquiry for the understanding of the experiences of employees in the hotel sector, and the effects of TM practices on personal career development. The reason for the omission of this research approach in the TM and career literature is that it is "a more difficult, time-consuming, intensive, and yet, more profound method to begin with participants living because in the end, narrative inquiry is about life and living" (Connelly & Clandinin, 2006, p. 478). This may explain why it is not very often chosen as a research approach.

The practical implications for this research are manifold. Firstly, this research helps hotel managers and senior managers to build effective and successful strategies for TM and career development after COVID-19 pandemic. Secondly, the findings suggest that hotel managers can apply effective TM strategies, such as upskilling and reskilling of talented workforce, addressing health and well-being, incentive schemes, employee benefits to boost employees' motivation and engagement and finally, digitalisation of attraction, development and retention practices. Thirdly, hotel managers can successfully implement effective career development strategies such as introduction of career development courses and training programmes for talented employees to mitigate COVID-19 outcomes and build career adaptability, resilience and organisational agility. Finally, hotel managers can adopt career optimism as the way forward for talented employees to promote higher levels of resilience, career adaptability and get a promotion in their career.

Limitations and future research scope

The first limitation of this research is that the study has focused mainly upon three-, four- and five-star hotels in the UK. The second limitation is a sample size of 15 employees interviewed during in-depth narrative research. Language barrier was one of the main limitations of this study. For the majority of the staff English was their second language. Their backgrounds varied from Spanish, Latvian, Polish, Portuguese to Bulgarian, Slovakian and Italian. Some of the questions were lost in translation. This issue of language and translation was raised by Kapborg and Berterö (2002) and by Squires (2009). During the narrative interviews if something was not clear the researchers acted as interpreters. This therefore could have influenced some of the responses and thus data quality could have been affected.

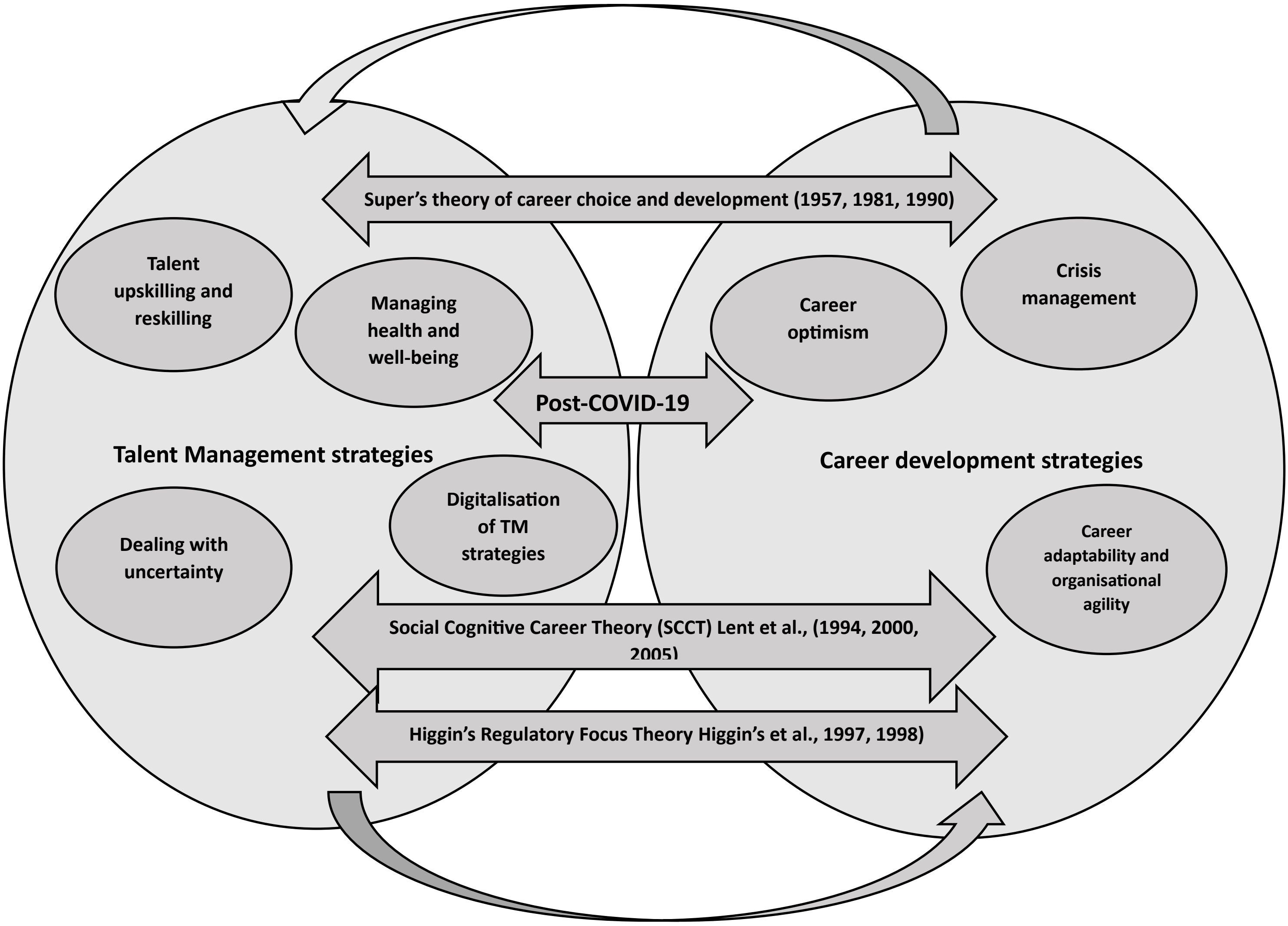


Figure 3. Conceptualising intersection of Talent Management and career development strategies for post-COVID 19 in the narrative accounts of hotel employees (developed by the researchers)

To conduct further research on this topic, one could study TM and career development strategies for post-COVID-19 in three-, four- and five-star hotels in other geographical contexts, countries to get in-depth understanding and compare the results. Even though the saturation was achieved (Guest et al., 2006), larger sample size could be an advantage for future research interventions. Finally, it is suggested that the results of this study could help to inform or extend research on TM and career development strategies for post-COVID-19 across a variety of settings, specifically, for example, through developing an understanding of the experiences of individual employees and the role of TM practices in personal career development in sectors such as banking, retail and real estate.

References

Agrawal, S., De Smet, A., Lacroix, S., & Reich, A. (2020). To emerge stronger from the COVID-19 crisis, companies should start reskilling their workforces now. Adapting employees' skills and roles to the post-pandemic ways of working will be crucial to building operating-model resilience. McKinsey and Company. Retrieved from:

https://www.mckinsey.com/~/media/mckinsey/business%20functions/organization/our%20insights/to%20emerge%20stronger%20from%20the%20covid%2019%20crisis%20companies%20should%20start%20reskilling%20their%20workforces%20now/to-emerge-stronger-from-the-covid-19-crisis.pdf

Alonso-Almeida MDM, Bremser, K., & Llach, J. (2015). Proactive and reactive strategies deployed by restaurants in times of crisis: effects on capabilities, organization and competitive advantage. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(7), 1641-1661.

Alves, J.C., Lok, T.C., & Luo, Y. et al. (2020). Crisis challenges of small firms in Macao during the COVID-19 pandemic. *Frontiers of Business Research in China*, 14, 26.

Alzoubi, R. H., & Hisham, J. (2020). The Mediating Effect of Crisis Management on Leadership Styles and Hotel Performance in Jordan. *International Journal of Financial Research*, 11(4), 384–397.

Anderson, B.A. (2006). Crisis management in the Australian tourism industry: Preparedness, personnel and postscript. *Tourism Management*, 27(6), 1290-1297.

Batra, D. (2020). The Impact of the COVID-19 on Organizational and Information Systems Agility. *Information Systems Management*, 37(4), 361- 365.

Becker, G. (1964). Investment in human capital: A theoretical analysis. *Journal of Political Economy,* 70, 9-49.

Bharwani, S., & Mathews, D. (2021). Post-pandemic pressures to pivot: Tech transformations in luxury hotels. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 13(5), 569-583.

Boo, S., Wang, C. & Kim, M. (2021). Career adaptability, future time perspective, and career anxiety among undergraduate students: A cross-national comparison. *Journal of Hospitality, Leisure, Sport & Tourism Education*, 29, Article 100328.

Booth, S. (1993). *Crisis Management Strategy, Competition and Changes in Modern Enterprises*. London: Routledge.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3, 77-101.

Connelly, F. M., & Clandinin, D. J. (2006). Narrative inquiry. In J. L. Green, G. C. Camilli, & P. B. Elmore (Eds.). *Handbook of complementary methods in education research* (pp. 477-488). Washington: AERA.

Darvishmotevali, M., Altinay, L., Köseoglu, M. (2020). The link between environmental uncertainty, organizational agility, and organizational creativity in the hotel industry. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 87, 3-9.

Faulkner, B. (2001). Towards a framework for tourism disaster management. *Tourism Management*, 22(2), 135-147.

Filimonau, V., Derqui, B., & Matute, J. (2020). The COVID-19 pandemic and organisational commitment of senior hotel managers. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 91, Article 102659.

Fitriasari, F. (2020). How do Small and Medium Enterprise (SME) survive the COVID-19 outbreak? *Jurnal Inovasi Ekonomi*, 5(2).

Guest, G., Bunce, A., & Johnson, L. (2006). How many interviews are enough? An experiment with data saturation and variability. *Field Methods*, 18(1), 59–82.

Higgins, E. T., Shah, J., & Friedman, R. (1997). Emotional responses to goal attainment: strength of regulatory focus as a moderator. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 72, 515–525.

Higgins, E.T. (1998). Promotion and Prevention: Regulatory Focus as a motivational principle. *Advances in Experimental Social Psychology*, 30, 1–46.

Jang, J., & George, R. (2012). Understanding the influence of polychronicity on job satisfaction and turnover intentions: a study of non-supervisory hotel employees. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31, 588-595.

Jones, I., Brown, L., & Holloway, I. (2013). *Qualitative research in sport and physical activity*. London: Sage.

Kapborg, I., & Berterö, C. (2002). Using an interpreter in qualitative interviews: Does it threaten validity? *Nursing Inquiry*, 9(1), 52-56.

Lai, Y. L., & Cai, W. (2022). Enhancing post-COVID-19 work resilience in hospitality: A micro-level crisis management framework. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*. Ahead of print: https://doi.org/10.1177/14673584221075182

Lent, R., Brown, S., & Hackett, G. (1994). Toward a unifying social cognitive theory of career and academic interest, choice, and performance [Monograph]. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 45, 79-122.

Lent, R., Brown, S., & Hackett, G. (2000). Contextual supports and barriers to career choice: a social cognitive analysis. *Journal of Counselling Psychology*, 47(1), 36-49.
Lent, R. W. (2005). A social cognitive view of career development and counselling. In S. D. Brown & R. T. Lent (Eds.), *Career development and counselling: Putting theory and research to work* (pp. 101–127). Hoboken, NJ: Wiley.
Manoharan, A., Jones, J., Jiang, Z., & Singal, M. (2021). Career optimism of culturally and linguistically diverse hotel workers in the pandemic age. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 93, Article 102796.
Merriam, S., & Tisdell, E. J. (2015). *Qualitative research: A guide to design and implementation*. 4th ed. Jossey-Bass.
Ocampo, A. C. G., Reyes, M. L., Chen, Y., Restubog, S. L. D., Chih, Y. Y., Chua-Garcia, L., & Guan, P. (2020). The role of internship participation and conscientiousness in developing career adaptability: A five-wave growth mixture model analysis. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 120, Article 103426.
Office for National Statistics (2021). Coronavirus and the impact on output in the UK economy: January 2021. https://www.ons.gov.uk/economy/grossdomesticproductgdp/articles/coronavirusandtheimpactonoutputintheukeconomy/january2021
Polkinghorne, D. E. (1988). *Narrative knowing and the human sciences*. State University of Albany: New York Press.
Savickas, M. L., & Porfeli, E. J. (2012). Career adaptabilities scale: Construction, reliability, and measurement equivalence across 13 countries. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 80(3), 661–673.
Seymour, M., & Moore, S. (2000). *Effective Crisis Management: Worldwide Principles and Practice*. London: Cassell.
Sharma, G.D., Thomas, A., & Paul, J. (2021). Reviving tourism industry post-COVID-19: A resilience-based framework. *Tourism management perspectives*, 37, Article 100786.
Sirgy, M. (2019). Promoting quality-of-life and well-being research in hospitality and tourism. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 36(1), 1-13.
Smith, D. (1990). Beyond contingency planning: Towards a model of crisis management. *Industrial Crisis Quarterly*, 4(4), 263-275.
Sou, E.K., Yuen, M., & Chen, G. (2022). Career adaptability as a mediator between social capital and career engagement. *The Career Development Quarterly*, 70(1), 2-15.
Squires, A. (2009). Methodological challenges in cross-language qualitative research: A research review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 46(2), 277– 287.
Super, D. E. (1957). *The psychology of careers*. New York: Harper.
Super, D. E. (1981). A developmental theory: Implementing a self-concept. In D. H. Montross & C. J. Shinkman (Eds.). *Career development in the 1980s: Theory and practice* (pp. 28-42). Springfield, IL: Thomas.
Super, D. E. (1990). A life-span, life-space approach to career development. In D. Brown & L. Brooks (Eds.). *Career choice and development: Applying contemporary approaches to Practice*, 2nd ed. (pp. 197–261). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.
Walker, E. T., & McCarthy, J. D. (2010). Legitimacy, strategy, and resources in the survival of community-based organizations. *Social problems*, 57(3), 315-340.

4.2. The influence of human resources practices and organisational climate on innovative behavior at work

Christophe Estay | FERRANDI Paris, France
El Hadji Sarr | Université Jean Moulin, Lyon, France
François Durrieu | KEDGE Business School, France

Abstract

This study aims at improving an understanding of the relationship between different human resources management (HRM) practices, to determine the HRM practices that mostly influence innovative behavior at workplace. Previous research focuses on individual differences of the variables of work environment and how they influence employees' innovative behavior. Our study focuses on the effects of the conditions of the working environment on innovative behavior of employees. We conduct field study in both Senegal and Turkey in the Banking, Agro-food and Higher education sectors. We collect data from these different sources to reduce potential bias and broaden our understanding of the issue. Our findings show that a working system in the presence of innovative organizational climate, with a high degree of engagement promotes employees' innovative behavior at work because it supports employees' capacities, motivation, and opportunities to participate, or by shaping their perception.

Keywords: Human resources practices; Organizational climate; Innovative behavior at work

Introduction

The goal of every organization is to guarantee its competitive advantage to achieve business sustainability (Chen, 2016; Coronado & Antony, 2002). One way organizations often achieve this is through value creation or increasing innovation activities. In a competitive environment, innovation is a key indicator of performance and differentiation (Gil et al., 2018). Hence, there is a need for organizations to exploit ideas and suggestions from their pool of employees to build capacity (Talukder, 2016). At any rate, increasing innovative capacity drives additional earnings and sustaining it requires key competencies and opportunities provided by employees (Biberhofer et al., 2018; Foss et al., 2011). Organizations consider employees' work innovation behavior as a key issue because they are the cornerstone of capacity building (Talukder, 2016). However, despite the importance of innovative behavior at work and the way it influences capacity building, very little is known about it, at least, in the context of French-speaking sub-Saharan Africa.

Numerous factors encourage employees to generate innovation at work. Some researchers suggest that individual, group, and organizational levels are several factors that influence innovation behavior (Kruglanski & Fishman, 2009; Sabherwal & Becerra-Fernandez, 2003). Conversely, Jiang et al. (2012) assert that, for any organization that strives in an uncertain environment, greater strategic orientation on Individuals' innovative behaviors and development of ideas becomes a key instrument for growth. Thus, the study of what stimulates individual innovative behavior is critical (Jafri, 2010; Scott & Bruce, 1994). HRM practices, organizational climate, and innovative behavior at work are significantly correlated. However, research that studies the interdependence between the three constructs simultaneously is under-exploited. Past studies usually focus on the innovativeness of the firm, that is, the level to which organizational structure enhances and supports innovation (Kleysen & Street, 2001; Li et al., 2018) or analyze how innovation contributes to product innovation (Li-Hua et al., 2010).

This study aims to empirically improve an understanding of the relationship between different human resource management (HRM) practices, to determine the HRM practices that mostly influence innovative behavior at work. We suggest that Individuals' innovative behaviors within the workplace play a significant role in any high-performance organization. In addition, the present study contributes to this body of research by answering the following research question: Do HRM practices and organizational climate influence the employees' innovative behavior at work? The article is structured into three sections. In the next section, we review the literature and present the hypothesis, then we explain our methodology including details of the measurement instrument. Finally, we discuss the research implications and suggest several directions for future research.

Literature review

This research focuses on the relationship that subsists between human resources practices, organizational climate, and innovative behavior at work. The organizational climate is considered a variable that moderates the relationship between human resources practices and innovative behavior at work. Strategic needs, globalization and continuous changes in the environmental conditions push companies to continue to develop new ways and strategies in the marketplace. Innovation is a process of using new technical and managerial knowledge to propose or create new products or services for customers (Li-Hua et al., 2010). Knowledge is new either because the company has not used it before or it has not been used in a particular context (Rogers, 1962; Stevenson & Jarillo, 1990). Very often, a new product or service is considered an innovation because it stems from new managerial and technical knowledge or is completely new for the customers (Li-Hua et al., 2010; Lindgardt et al., 2015). Innovations at the organizational level often require the application of new methods or ideas that drives radical changes. Consequently, we can conclude that innovation is any new organizational practice that generates dramatic shifts in a competitive position and contributes to organizational performance.

Messersmith and Guthrie (2010) assert that the concept of innovations ranges from the processes, policies, projects, equipment, products, services, and implementation of new ideas that have an impact on the whole organization. This specifically improves business performance, which is a kind of innovation process based on collaboration between individuals, groups, and organizations (Jafri, 2010). Thus, the increasing importance given to the development of people in organizations has stimulated arguments among researchers about the relationship between organizational climate and innovative behavior at work.

Innovative behavior refers to the central role of people in developing, promoting, and improvement of business routines within their organization (Jafri, 2010). Innovative behavior can be conducted both by an individual organizational member or by groups of individuals within an organization (De Jong & Hartog, 2007). Examples of such behavior include complex behavior comprising idea generation, searching out new technologies, adopting new ways to achieve goals, and exploring techniques toward innovative solutions. Individual innovation begins with the creation of ideas, that is, the production of advanced and useful ideas or to construct a coalition of supporters who provide the required capacity to achieve the idea.

Individual innovative behavior is a valuable asset that contributes to the competitiveness of an organization. However, there are several factors expected to motivate the antecedents of individual innovations. The organizational climate that promotes creativeness, empowerment practices, non-bureaucratic organizational structure, managerial support, effective reward system, open communication, quality of superior-subordinate relationships, job characteristics, and individual differences may be an important tool for individual innovation (Jafri, 2010). Since the purpose of this article is to analyze the relationship that exists between human resources practices, organizational climate, and innovative behavior at work, the present study adopts a broad concept of managerial innovation and HRM practices.

Management innovation

From the innovation management perspective, the organizational condition of innovativeness is the relationship between HRM practice, strategy, structure, organizational culture and leadership and knowledge management and innovation management (Fu et al., 2015). In particular, HRM practices and organizational climate contribute to supporting open innovation ecosystems and innovative behavior at work (Fu et al., 2015). However, management innovation has been marked as a disruption from traditional management principles, processes, and practices or a departure from conventional organizational forms that significantly changes the way the work of management is performed. It usually refers to products, services and the technology used in the production process, affecting core activities (Dodgson, 2018). They create information-based decisions and effectively select which initiatives to pursue and what concepts to go for (Deutsch & Gerard, 1955; Guest, 2011).

For example, an improved production process can generate higher returns for the same volume of work. Managerial innovation ultimately supports new means of production process leading to organizational uncertainty in a 'creative sense' (Schumpeter, 1934). It involves the use of innovative solutions for renegotiating or reconstructing interactive institutions to solve complex social challenges (Svensson & Hambrick, 2019; van Van Wijk et al., 2018). The goal of innovation is to pressure people into accepting products in their environment, where innovators and social activists influence consumption patterns (Carberry et al., 2017; Rogers, 1962). Consequently, people may accept a product not because of its usefulness but because of perceived innovative capability. According to (Garry, 2006), management innovation is the invention and implementation of a management practice, process, structure, or technique that is new to state of the art and is intended to progress organizational goals. Management innovation is a leadership program, which translates a novel idea from everyone, everywhere into new and deeply rooted management practices, requiring sustained and broad-based efforts with substantial payoffs (Garry, 2006).

Managerial innovations are indirectly related to the core work of an organization and more directly to its management (Kimberly & Evanisko, 1981). Hence, there is a need to look at the role human resources managers play in the development of employees' innovative behavior at work, including the creation of opportunities and conditions that align employees' behavior with the goals of the organization. Consequently, Scott and Bruce (1994) suggest that employees who perceive an organizational climate as conducive adopt higher levels of intraorganizational innovative behavior which is often evolutionary. Intra-organizational evolutionary innovation involves key changes that drive overall organizational growth. The underlying driver of these forms of intra-organizational innovation is technological change coupled with uncertainty (Birkinshaw et al., 2008). Importantly, as one technology supplants another, there is a period of turbulence during which incumbent firms attempt to transition from the "old" to the "new" (Fu et al., 2015). During this transition, intra-organizational innovation is acceptable because the old and the new exist alongside each other.

The scope of innovations ranges from the development and implementation of new ideas that have an impact on HRM practices, practices, or products across the whole organization, to smaller-scale ideas that contribute to innovative behavior at work. Finally, we need to prove the correctness of the foregoing assertions through hypothetical illustrations.

HRM Practices

The effects of Human Resources practices on innovative behavior at work

Innovation is a device that allows a company to build a sustainable competitive advantage (Hitt et al., 1998). Individuals who are guided by HRM policies form the basis of innovation, they develop, facilitate, spread, and modify fundamental ideas which are key success factors for innovation. HRM is important because it has the capacity to influence the attitudes and behaviors of employees (Laursen & Foss, 2003; Shipton et al., 2006). Most of the studies on the relationship between HRM practices and innovation provide evidence that this relationship is positive (Jiménez-Jiménez & Sanz-Valle, 2008; Messersmith & Guthrie, 2010).

The desired outcome from a sustained innovation system is the development of corporate capabilities that can become a competitive advantage through the integration of valuable human resources practices and the acquisition of external information and knowledge (Chen, 2016). The acquisition of knowledge from the company depends on the capacity of the firm to absorb new ideas, that is, to incorporate the dimensions of human resource management such as selection, training, performance, management, compensation, and information sharing (Biberhofer et al., 2018). Firms implement such systems to increase the growth of the market size, profit margins, brand value and market capitalization (Messersmith & Guthrie, 2010; Schumpeter, 1934; Wang & Zatzick, 2019).

Additionally, the importance of HRM in organizational innovation is also an area of interest in the literature (Svensson & Hambrick, 2019; Van Wijk et al., 2018; Wright & Kehoe, 2008). Jose and Mampilly (2012), attest that organization recognizes and rewards the efforts of employees, as a result, employees have more motivation and satisfaction to make additional efforts in contributing to organizational innovation. Messersmith and Guthrie (2010) demonstrate that practices of HRM which have the most impact on organizational innovation are those intended to retain and motivate employees who show creativity. In previous explorations of these phenomena, scholars generally relate human resources and management innovation under the theoretical concepts of the resource-based view (RBV) of the firm. For example, Jose and Mampilly (2012) contend for the role of HRM, comprised of human capital, social capital, and organizational capital, as a mediator of the relationship between HR practices and innovation of the organization (Biberhofer et al., 2018). Similarly, Vogus and Welbourne (2003) suggest that organizational innovation improves faster through HRM practices that strengthen employees' engagement. Following these assumptions, we propose the hypothesis below:

Hypothesis H1: HR practices positively influence the innovative behavior of employees.

The effects of HR practices on organizational climate

HR practices in the perspective of motivation and improvement are implemented to influence the employees' performance by shaping their perceptions, including awards for working over and above their assigned roles (Janssen, 2000). Awards could be by incentives such as differential remuneration and employment security. RH practices are designed to create opportunities for empowering employees, to enable them to make use of their capacities and motivation to achieve organizational objectives (Jiang et al., 2012). Practices such as labor flexibility, teamwork, employee engagement, and information sharing are generally used to offer these opportunities.

According to Sun et al. (2007) model of AMO (ability, motivation, opportunity), high-engagement HR practices reinforce the shared perception of employees about the organization's work environment. Such shared perception encourages discretionary work behaviors which are not explicitly recognized by the organizational system, whereas they lead to its success.

Hypothesis H2: HR practices are positively correlated to organizational climate.

The effects of organizational climate on innovative behavior at work

This study focuses on the effects of organizational climate on innovative behavior at work. Research that has examined the effects of these conditions on the innovative behavior of individuals suggests that environmental climate perceived to be positive supports and encourages employees' innovative responses (Madjar, 2005; Shalley et al., 2004). Individuals show more positive emotional creativity (e.g., satisfaction and emotional engagement) when their supervisors (i.e., company managers) and their colleagues treat them warmly and give them the support they need (Yuan & Woodman, 2010).

However, the lack of support produces feelings of anger and frustration towards the organization (Madjar, 2005). Managerial support and relationships with supervisors are crucial in stimulating innovative behaviors (Hunter & Cushenbery, 2011; Parker et al., 2006). Employees' innovative behavior is the expectation of potential influence on job performance inside the organization (Madjar, 2005). These expectations add to the understanding of why employees are innovative in a workplace (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). A work environment that is characterized by the support of managers and co-workers is more conducive to innovation because employees feel that their work environment provides the support which they need to feel free and be independent as they innovate. When a work environment is conducive to discussing ways activities should be carried out, and trust exists between social actors, employees may feel more comfortable in taking risks and putting forward creative ideas and innovations (Mclean, 2005).

Broadly speaking, organizational climate refers to a combination of attitudes, feelings, and behaviors which characterizes life in the organization (De Jong & Hartog, 2007; Patterson et al., 2005). According to Ekvall (1996), organizational climate affects the results of an organization's operations as it influences organizational processes such as problem-solving, decision-making, communications, coordination, controlling, and psychological processes of learning, creating, motivation, and commitment. Organizations that are labeled as innovative in terms of products, services, methods, policies, etc., should accordingly differ in climate from deliberately out-performed organizations (Ekvall, 1996). Following this discussion, we state the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis H3: the organizational climate improves the innovative behavior at work.

The mediating effect of the organizational climate on the relationship between human resources practices / innovative behavior at work

Hayton (2005) suggests that "mediation constructs" such as the formation of social capital, confidence, and the existence of a high level of supervisor's support perception, normally increase the willingness of employees to adopt a certain behavior (extra-role) which promotes the interests of the organization. Examples include discretionary cooperative behaviors of employees which are often the basis of innovative actions.

Prior to our research, some studies have attempted to determine the effect of organizational context on employee behavior and work performance as a key success factor for organizations (Svensson & Hambrick, 2019; Van Wijk et al., 2018). They found that organizational climate is one of the important factors related to the organization. In all these studies, the work environment has been described differently, but all the definitions have the same meaning. Terms such as organizational climate, work environment, work situation, and work, are commonly used in the literature and refer to the notion of work atmosphere.

In the management literature, different authors have defined climate differently. Laursen & Foss, 2003) define it as a set of characteristics that describe an organization and which (a) distinguish the organization from other organizations; (b) who are relatively durable over time; (c) influence the behavior of people in the organization. Rogers (1962) defines organizational climate as shared perceptions about how things are in the organization, rather than shared judgments about how things should be. In the same vein, two concepts have been severally used to describe organization climate; first, some theorists describe climate as a perception commonality of members, which occurs when they interact within the organization (Ekvall, 1996; Schumpeter, 1934). The second point of view comes from those who consider climate as an objective property of the organization (Patterson et al., 2005). However, researchers who argued that both the climate and culture are identical (the values, norms and belief systems are included in this concept), differ from those that oppose the two concepts (Janssen, 2005). Some researchers have attempted comparisons between organizational culture and climate, exploiting the differences between the duo. Organizational cultures are related to values, beliefs, and historical traditions (Hornsby et al., 2002).

The climate of the organization is made up of the common patterns of behaviors, attitudes and feelings that are demonstrated and perceived by people working in the organization (Janssen, 2005; Laursen & Foss, 2003). When the climate is analyzed at the individual level, it is assimilated into the notion of psychological climate (Janssen, 2005; Laursen & Foss, 2003). The organizational climate indicates the feelings and attitudes an individual experiences and the interpersonal aspects of their behaviors. If all these elements are combined, they constitute the notion of organizational climate (Jose & Mampilly, 2012).

They can also be seen as shared perceptions that describe life within an organization. Climate can be distinguished from culture because it is more visible and open to change and improvement (Patterson et al., 2005). On the other hand, the deepest values and norms that prevail within the organization make its culture (Ekvall, 1996).

Based on the foregoing, we conclude that leadership, managerial and co-worker support, sharing a vision, horizontal organization and creating a climate that is conducive to creativity and innovation play a mediating role in the relationship between "HRM practices and innovative behavior at work".

> Hypothesis H4: the organizational climate plays a mediating role in the relationship between "high-engagement HRM practices and innovative behavior at work".

We show below an analytical framework (in Figure 1), highlighting the links between the different "constructs", as well as the underlying hypotheses. Figure 1 explains our hypothetical constructs (H1-4) stemming from the need for high-engagement human resources practices in the presence of a good organizational climate which also leads to the achievement of innovative behavior at work.

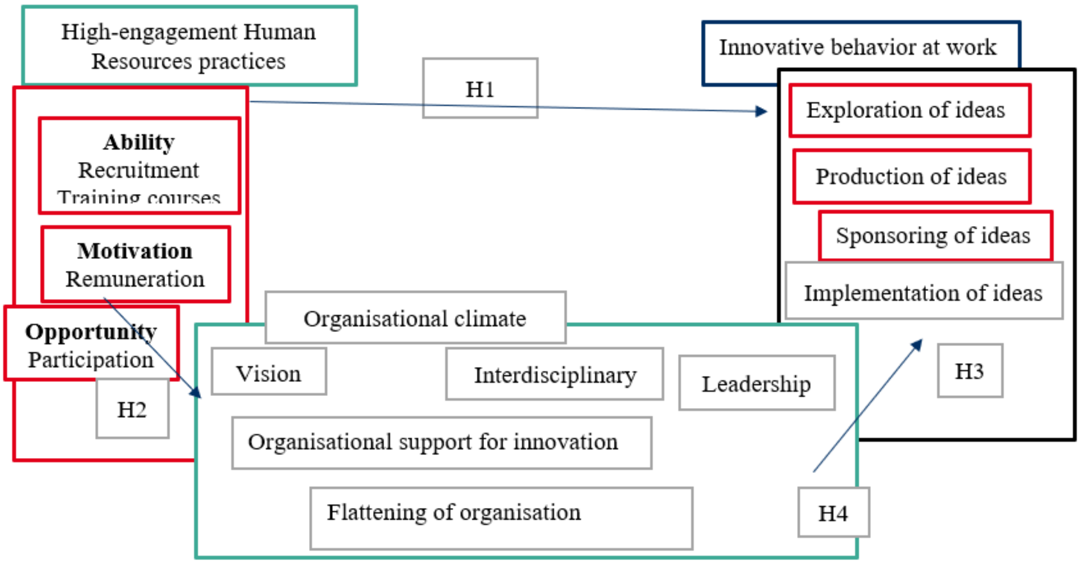


Figure 1. The analytical framework

Methodology

We did a field study of banking activities in Senegal and Turkey. We collected data from different sources to reduce potential bias and broaden our understanding of the issue. We also administered questionnaires to agro-food and higher education sectors, building on the works of Van der Merwe and Oosthuizen (2011). To answer the research question of this study, the authors used a parametric technique according to the statistical distributions and the characteristics of the samples selected. Attitudes have the particularity of not being apparent. We cannot say directly whether or not a person has the motivation to innovate; it's from his behavior that we can appreciate this attitude. Traditionally, the measurement of an attitude is carried out using measurement scales (Yuan & Woodman, 2010).

The synthesis of the characteristics of the sample included in this study is presented in Table 1. The variables indicate that the major constituents of our sample originated from Senegal. Our study is characterized by a set of possible relationships between several blocks of variables: which involved human resource management practices, organizational climate, and innovative behavior at work. The choice of samples is defined through various random sampling methods; the size of the sample is calculated to respond to a given question. The use of mathematical tools such as regression analyses, correlation coefficient calculations, and multivariate analyses were used to interpret data.

Since the primary focus of this study is to test the model that explains innovative behavior at work, we limit our sample to small employer firms, using the threshold of 269 respondents (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). The age analysis of the sample shows that 60% are under 40 years and that more than 9% are over 50 years old. The population aged 41 to age 50 is around 31%, which shows that the sample is essentially composed of a relatively young population. Approximately 40% of the respondents are women and 60% are men. The sample shows a preponderance of the population of middle managers, of which at least 67% of respondents have a high school education. Nearly 30% have a level equivalent to that of first degree. The sample is mainly composed of people from the audit (46.84%), human resources (23.79%) and commercial (18.5%). Managers represent 66% against 34% of non-managers. The banking population is greater in relation to the size of the sample (73.98%); Agrifood (11.90%); and Education (10.78%).

This research work re-emphasizes the fact that the validity tests of the global construct were carried out on the quality criteria of representation items (> 0.5), and varimax rotation from two factorial components. We consider a percentage of cumulative variance to be acceptable when the value is above 60% (Yuan & Woodman, 2010) and conditions for carrying out reliability tests are when Cronbach's alpha is greater than 0.7 and inter-item correlation is greater than 0.4 (Bentler & Wu, 2002).

Table 1. Synthesis of the characteristics of the sample

	Absolute value	Frequencies	Accumulated frequencies
Senegal	180	66,9 %	66,9 %
Turkey	89	33,1 %	100,0 %
Total	269	100,0 %	

Measurement scale

The variables used in this research focus on the assessment of innovative behavior at work. It begins with the definition of high-impact human resource management practices, which constitute the main levers through which companies can influence and shape the skills and behaviors of individuals to perform the tasks that are entrusted to them and thus enable the organization to achieve its goals (Chen, 2016; Van Der Merwe & Ellis, 2007).

Human Resources Practices

We measured HRM practices in this study using three independent variables. Our measuring scale is constructed from the works of Prieto and Perez-Santana (2014). We created the scale by regrouping different HRM practices in additive variables, demonstrating that companies can achieve better results by using a cluster of HRM practices (Ny et al., 2014). We used the following variables for the purposes of the study namely, selection, training, remuneration, and participation, which represent 79.72% of the variance extracted. The convergent validity is checked for each dimension of practices of human resource management, which is statistically significant (Drucker, 1985). The Cronbach's alpha is greater than (0.8). The reliability of the factors is calculated from the internal consistency coefficient alpha of Cronbach (α). When this coefficient is greater than 0.70, this means that the items in the factor show a fairly strong homogeneity (Bentler & Wu, 2002). However, a coefficient between 0.60 and 0.70 also remains acceptable (Fu et al., 2015). A reduced number of items in a factor can potentially lead to a drop in the value of (α). Thus, the use of a factor containing two items does not seem appropriate (Chen, 2016; Van Der Merwe & Ellis, 2007). This is the case for the training variable that is reduced to two items.

Organizational climate

We developed our questionnaire building on the works of Van der Merwe and Oosthuizen (2011). These authors originally designed it to assess whether an organizational climate exists within the South African mining industry. It consists of thirteen identified constructions, which stimulate and support innovation. In this study, the organizational climate is defined by five dimensions: the flatness of the organization (autonomy), interdisciplinarity, vision, leadership and organizational support for innovation which represent nearly 80% of the explained variance. The convergent validity is checked for each dimension of the organizational climate because the average value is greater than 0.5 (Drucker, 1985). Reliability is also checked for each dimension because Cronbach's Alpha is greater than 0.8 except for innovation.

Innovative behavior at work

We measured innovative behavior at work using four constructs: exploration, generation, promotion, and implementation of ideas. While we measured the exploration of ideas by the construct; "Opportunity for exploration" (Kleysen & Street, 2001), we used the construct developed by De Jong and Hartog (2007) to measure the generation, promotion, and implementation of ideas. The variable innovative behavior at work is considered to be unidimensional: it represents nearly 77.91% of explained variance. The criteria of convergent validity and discriminant according to (Drucker, 1985) are verified. Cronbach's Alpha is equal to 0.921 and therefore greater than 0.8. This makes it possible to decide on the reliability of the dimensions.

Results

Constructs and validity of the analytical framework

We chose exploratory factor analysis (principal component analysis) by rotation Promax to test the one-dimensional character of different constructs, which is the subject of this study. Convergent validity and reliability are checked for every dimension of human resources practice, in the perspectives of organizational climate and innovative behavior at work. We validated our analytical framework by linking the human resources practices and organizational climate on one hand, and organizational climate to innovative behavior at work on the other hand, using a Path Analysis under EQS (Bentler & Wu, 2002) and by resuming factor scores. We also used a robust method (Bentler & Wu, 2002) to alleviate problems related to the normality of data. Moreover, a "bootstrap" method has been developed to have coefficients and adjustment indices for more stability. The table below reports our adjustment indices. The superior adjustment indices (GFI, AGFI et CFI) is 0,95 or close to that value, RMSEA and SRMR being inferior at 0,05 and the probability of chi^2 superior is at 0,05; the model is correctly fitted to the data. Table 2 below presents the structural parameters of the model as well as the R^2.

Table 2 below shows that participation has a visual impact of (0,494), flattening (horizontal) of the organization (autonomy) (0,362), leadership (0,248), and interdisciplinarity (0,239). In addition, recruitment influences interdisciplinarity (0,325), leadership (0,295) and organizational support to innovation (0,224). In the area of remuneration, the only impact is on the flattening of the organization (0,28). The links to innovative behavior at work are weak except for vision (0,24). Moreover, the model explains 30% of innovation behavior at work. The dimensions of organizational climate which are the most explained in the model are organizational support for innovation at 43 %, autonomy at 39 %, leadership at 37 %, and vision and interdisciplinarity being 35 %. The validated analytical framework is shown in Figure 2.

Table 2. Structural parameters and their significance

	Coefficient	Standard deviation	Significance
Vision--> Innovative behavior at work	0,24	0,0794	8,517
Leadership--> Innovative behavior at work	0,256	0,082	8,940
Participation--> Flattening of the organisation	0,362	0,076	13,131
Participation-->interdisciplinarity	0,239	0,07	9,033
Participation-->vision	0,494	0,068	18,944
Participation-->leadership	0,248	0,069	9,441
Recruitment-->interdisciplinarity	0,325	0,047	14,991
Recruitment-->vision	0,062	0,074	2,279
Recruitment -->leadership	0,295	0,097	9,472
Recruitment --> Organisational Support for Innovation	0,224	0,057	9,382
Training courses-->Innovation	0,366	0,058	15,197
R^2 Innovative behavior at work	0,300		

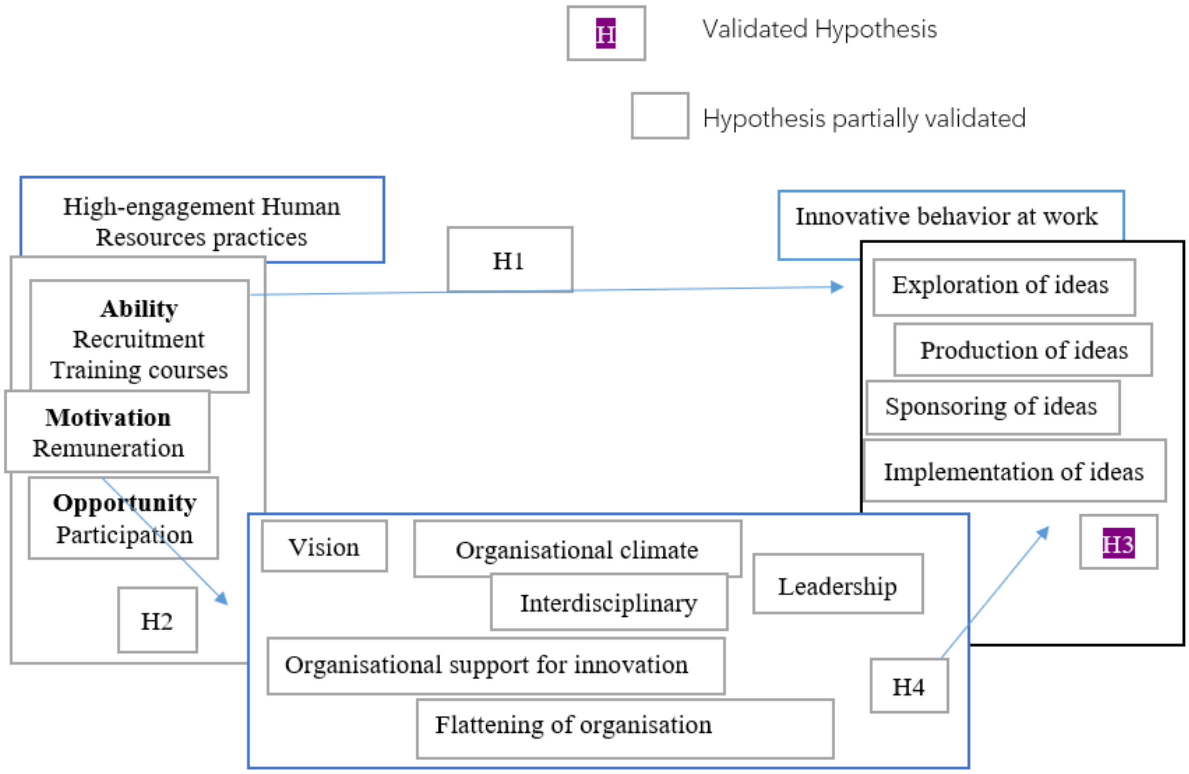


Figure 2. Validated analytical framework

Figure 2 indicates that the effects of participation, recruitment, and training courses on innovation at work are direct: Z is not significant, and while the direct coefficient is significant, in the case of a direct link with remuneration, it is not significant. Participation facilitates innovation at work by the variables of autonomy, vision, and leadership, although remuneration is completely mediated by the variable of autonomy. Our results show that the culture of the organization also plays an important role. The majority of the sample is from Senegal. This gives more credence to our interpretation that most banks in Senegal do not always have a strong culture of innovation, unlike the Turkish banks. With the exception of the link between remuneration on innovative behavior, others, such as recruitment, training and participation are positively related. Therefore, this allows us to confirm that; H1 is partially validated, except for the remuneration.

In addition, Hypothesis 2 proposes that; High Involvement HR Practices are positively correlated to organizational climate. Our results show that the standardized coefficients of the HR practices dimensions on organizational climate were positive, except for insignificant remuneration (-0.011). This allows us to confirm that hypothesis H2 is partially validated. The dimensions of the organizational climate that are best explained by the model support organizational innovation (43%), the flattening of the organizational structure (39%) and leadership (37%), vision and interdisciplinarity (35.4%). According to the supporters of the model (AMO), high Performance HR practices reinforces the shared perception that employees have of an organization's work environment. This encourages discretionary behaviors that go beyond job expectations. The climate parameters for our case come down to leadership, interdisciplinarity, vision, support organizational innovation, and flattening of the organizational structure (autonomy). The parameters of human resource management practices that have the greatest impact on the organizational climate are participation, recruitment, training, and remuneration. Consequently, we conclude that the H2 is partially validated.

Hypothesis 3 reports that organizational climate and innovative behavior at work are positively related. There is strong significance between Flattening of the organization --> work innovation (0.149), Interdisciplinarity --> innovative behavior at work (0.083), Vision --> innovative behavior at work (0.24), Leadership--> innovative behavior at work (0.256), Innovation--> innovative behavior at work (-0.137). A conducive leadership climate and consideration of employees have a substantial effect on the attitudes and innovation behaviors at work (creativity and innovation). Guest (2011) proposes four factors for team climate that facilitate innovation: vision, participatory safety, task orientation and innovation support. This gives credence to the two parameters that are integrated into the organizational climate variables. Which is vision and organizational support for innovation. In view of the above, we fully validate the H3.

Finally, Hypothesis 4 states that organizational climate plays a mediating role in the relationship between high-engagement HRM practices and innovative behavior at work. Our result shows that Participation is partially mediated with behavior innovation at work by; autonomy, vision, and leadership, while compensation is completely mediated by flattening the organizational structure (autonomy). Recruitment and training have a direct effect on innovative behavior at work. According to the findings, a company whose managers exercise visionary leadership and empower employees will cultivate a lasting competitive advantage. Additionally, these employees will feel indebted to the organization by developing discretionary behaviors beyond what is required of them, which translates into innovative behavior at work. Thus, H4 is partially validated.

Discussion

Our research focuses on studying the influence of human resource management practices on the innovative behavior of employees at work. The central variable (innovative behavior at work) which is the subject of the research, comprises two essential notions: generation or introduction of new ideas, and realization or implementation of new ideas at work (Yuan & Woodman, 2010). From an individual perspective, the innovative behavior at work is a result of the contextual determinants of the organizational climate (mediator variable), influenced by the human resources practices (independent variable) and individual determinants such as self-innovation (moderating variable). This allowed us to develop the model that serves as the basis for this research.

Our study contributes to the literature on innovative behavior in two ways. First, it provides a better understanding of the complex relationship between HRM and innovative behavior at work and on the other hand to know which HRM practices have the greatest impact on innovative behavior at work. A number of factors have been identified which contribute to fostering innovation (Coronado & Antony, 2002). These factors affect innovation according to different perspectives: the individual level, the team level, and the organizational level, according to De Jong's classification (De Jong & Hartog, 2007, p. 30). Second, we provide a framework that aggregates findings on the mediating effect of the organizational climate (autonomy, interdisciplinarity, vision, leadership, and innovation) on the relationship between HRM practices (participation, remuneration, recruitment, and training courses) and innovative behavior at work. We report that organizational climate does not fully mediate this relationship. Only remuneration is fully mediated by this variable; “flattening of the organization’s” (autonomy) climate. Thus, our first hypothesis is partially validated (HR practices influence positively innovative behavior at work).

However, most HR practices that we study are cojoined and considered to have synergy and performance-enhancing effects which influence the three main areas of human resources policies: cognitive skills, employees' professional skills, and motivation and effort that give incentives to employees including the opportunity to contribute. The dimensions of organizational climate that are mostly explained by our model are organizational support for innovation, autonomy, leadership, vision and interdisciplinarity. We thus show that individuals can be innovative at work inventing new ways of doing their work, coming up with new procedures and innovative ideas, and transforming known approaches into new alternatives. Scott and Bruce (1994) refer to innovative behaviors at work as a complex behavior including the generation, introduction, or application of new ideas appropriate to the processes and solutions (Scott & Bruce, 1994).

Previous research asserted that individual differences and the variables of the work environment may help promote innovative behavior at work (Parker et al., 2006; Yuan & Woodman, 2010). On the other hand, our study focuses on the effects of the conditions of the working environment on innovative behavior at work. When company managers provide support, they pay attention to employees and give informational feedback without judging their work. They also encourage employees to express their own concerns (Shalley et al., 2004). Managerial support provides employees with a feeling of participation and contribution that is necessary to generate creative ideas, explore new opportunities and translate them into action (Calantone et al., 2002). Our research presented the effect of managerial support as a critical background for creative and discretionary behaviors.

Also, our findings show that a working system with a high degree of engagement promotes employees’ innovative behavior at work by supporting their capacities, motivation, and opportunities to participate, or by shaping their perception, thanks to the existence of an innovative organizational climate. Consequently, a working system with a high degree of engagement may increase the innovative behavior of employees by creating a positive perception of commitment to the organization, and by strengthening accountability towards the same company.

Finally, the banking sector represents our field of study, so we focus on the customer relationship dimensions of innovative behavior of employees. In the dynamic process of service delivery, employees adopt innovative behaviors and creatively solve customers' problems (customer complaints). When they are confident, they cope with failures and uncertainties and find ways to implement innovative actions. There is an evolution of the relationship between “human resource management practices” and “innovation” because of the need to innovatively transform customer service processes in the context of French-speaking sub-Saharan Africa. This means, there is the rationalization of the development of new products and services that makes companies go beyond sole reliance on employees’ use of innovative collaborations, to extensive relationships and knowledge flow across organizational boundaries.

Conclusion

This study examines how human resource management practices with strong involvement constitute an explanatory factor of innovative behavior at work. Our objective is, among other things, to improve our understanding of the antecedents and favorable conditions for individual innovation constrained in the organization. Particularly, in the context of developing countries where states strive to find innovative solutions. Our two constructs; the effect of HRM practices on organizational climate, and the effect of organizational climate on innovative behavior at work, influence the innovative work behavior of employees. Also, the organizational climate partially mediates the relationship between human resources practices and employees' innovative behavior at work.

The result shows some areas of HR systems that have effects on organizational innovation. The practices of capacity building (selection, recruitment, and training), capacity building motivations (remuneration) and reinforcement of opportunities (participation) are particularly effective in supporting innovative behaviors at work. We contributed to the literature on HRM since our study predicts that HR practices are part of the contextual conditions that may precede innovative behavior. In this study, remuneration and the improvement of opportunities (participation) turn out to be quite relevant to explain innovative behavior as well. The result also shows that the exchange between colleagues through interdisciplinarity (climate organizational) is an important factor that increases the innovative behavior of employees. We contributed to enriching an important part of the literature on Innovation with reference to the work of (Janssen, 2000; Scott & Bruce, 1994; Yuan & Woodman, 2010).

Our study has implications for managerial practices. Human resource practitioners, particularly in developing countries should be more familiar with research on the organizational environment and innovation at work. As noted in our study, several factors may be highly dependent on employees' innovation behavior. Thus, companies should invest in recruiting and selecting candidates with high competencies that promote innovative behavior. However, future research needs to look more at specific sets of human resources practices, with the extent to which these practices could be coherent and complementary, that is, to consistently act in the perfect synergy that promotes a conducive working environment and the development of innovative behavior at work.

Lastly, there are other exogenous variables such as (organizational structure) that may affect the working environment and innovation at the organizational level. Therefore, future research on HR practices and organizational factors can focus on how to measure HR practices that effectively affect the contextual parameters of companies. Despite our findings, this study is not without limitations. Our data were collected from respondents having the same profile, we questioned most bankers using the same perceptual measurement technique. A further limitation is that we used only six practices around human resources practices, while there are many others, we did not consider in this study. Regardless, the findings of this study can help company managers make better decisions, by assisting employees to build confidence and allow them to cope with failures and uncertainties that surround implementation of innovative actions.

References

Birkinshaw, J., Hamel, G., & Mol, M. J. (2008). Management Innovation. *Academy of Management Review*, 33(4), 825-845.

Biberhofer, P., Lintner, C., & Bernhardt, J. (2018). Facilitating work performance of sustainability-driven entrepreneurs through higher education: the relevance of competencies, values, worldviews, and opportunities. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 20(1), 21-38.

Bentler, P. M., & Wu, E. J. C. (2002). EQS 6 for Windows user's guide, Encino, CA: Multivariate Software, Inc.
Calantone, R. J., Cavusgil S. T., & Zhao, Y. (2002). Learning orientation, firm innovation capability, and firm performance. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 31(6), 515-524.
Carberry, E. J., Bharati, P., & Levy, D. L. (2017). Social movements as catalysts for corporate social innovation: Environmental activism and the adoption of green information systems. *Business & Society*, 58(5), 1083-1127.
Coronado, R. B., & Antony, J. (2002). Critical success factors for the successful implementation of six sigma projects in organisations. *The TQM Magazine*, 14(2), 92-99.
Chen, S. H. (2016). The influencing factors of enterprise sustainable innovation: An empirical study. *Sustainability*, 8(5), 1-17.
De Jong, J., & Hartog, D. D. (2007). How leaders influence employees' innovative behavior. *European Journal of innovation management*, 10(1), 41-64.
Dodgson, M. (2018). *Technological collaboration in industry: strategy. Policy and Internationalization in Innovation*. New York: Routledge.
Deutsch, M., & Gerard, H. B. (1955). A study of normative and informational social influences upon individual judgment. *Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 51(3), 629-636.
Drucker, P. F. (1985). *Innovation and Entrepreneurship*. New York: Harper & Row.
Ekvall, G. (1996). Organizational climate for creativity and innovation. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 5(1), 105–123.
Foss, L., Iakovleva, T., & Kickul, J. (2011). Taking innovations to market: the role of strategic choice and the evolution of dynamic capabilities. *The International Journal of Entrepreneurship and Innovation*, 12(2), 105-116.
Fu, N., Flood, P. C., Bosak, J., Morris, T., & O'Regan, P. (2015). How do high performance work systems influence organizational innovation in professional service firms? *Employee Relations*, 37(2), 209-231.
Garry, H. (2006). The why, what and how of management innovation. *Harvard Business Review*. Retrieved from: http://he-product-images.s3.amazonaws.com/docs/R0602Cf2.pdf
Gil, A. J., Rodrigo-Moya, B., & Morcillo-Bellido, J. (2018). The effect of leadership in the development of innovation capacity: A learning organization perspective. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 39(6), 694-711.
Guest, D. E. (2011). Human resource management and performance: Still searching for some answers. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 21(1), 3-13.
Hayton, J. C. (2005). Promoting corporate entrepreneurship through human resource management practices: A review of empirical research. *Human Resource Management Review*, 15(1), 21-41.
Hitt, M. A., Barbara, W., Keats, B. W., & Demarie, S. M. (1998). Navigating in the new competitive landscape: Building strategic flexibility and competitive advantage in the 21st century. *The academy of management executive*, 12(4), 22-42.
Hornsby, J.S., Kuratko, D. F., & Zahra, S. A. (2002). Middle managers' perception of the internal environment for corporate entrepreneurship: Assessing a measurement scale. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 17(3), 253-273.
Hunter, S. T., & Cushenbery, L. (2011). Leading for innovation: Direct and indirect influences. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 13(3), 248-265.
Jafri, M. H. (2010). Organizational commitment and employee's innovative behavior: A study in retail sector. *Journal of Management Research*, 10(1), 62-68.
Janssen, O. (2000). Job demands, perceptions of effort-reward fairness and innovative work behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 73(3), 287-302.
Janssen, O. (2005). The joint impact of perceived influence and supervisor supportiveness on employee innovative behaviour. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 78(4), 573-579.
Jiang, K., Lepak, D.P., Han, K., Hong, Y., Kim, A., & Winkler, A. (2012). Clarifying the construct of human resource systems: relating human resource management to employee performance. *Human Resource Management Review*, 22(2), 73-85.
Jiménez-Jiménez, D., & Sanz-Valle, R. (2008). Could HRM support organizational innovation? *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 19(7), 1208-1221.
Jose G., & Mampilly, S. R. (2012). Satisfaction with HR practices and employee engagement: A social exchange perspective. *Journal of Economics and Behavioral Studies*, 4(7), 423-430.

Kruglanski, A.W., & Fishman, S. (2009). Psychological factors in terrorism and counterterrorism: Individual, group, and organizational levels of analysis. *Social Issues and Policy Review*, 3(1), 1-44.
Kimberly, J. R., & Evanisko, M. J. (1981). Organizational innovation: the influence of individual, organizational, and contextual factors on hospital Adoption of technological and administrative innovations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 24(4), 689-713.
Kleysen, R., & Street, C. T. (2001). Toward a multi-dimensional measure of individual innovative behavior. *Journal of Intellectual Capital*, 2(3), 284-296.
Laursen, K., & Foss, N. J. (2003). New human resource management practices, complementarities, and the impact on innovation performance. *Cambridge Journal of Economics*, 27(2), 243-263.
Li, Y., Wang, M., Van Jaarsveld, D. D., Lee, G. K., & Ma, D. G. (2018). From employee-experienced high-involvement work system to innovation: an emergence-based human resource management framework. *Academy of Management Journal*, 61(5), 2000-2019.
Li-Hua, R., Wilson. J., & Aouad, G. (2010). Strategic aspects of innovation and internationalization in higher education: the Salford PM12 experience. *Journal of Chinese Entrepreneurship*, 3(1), 8-23.
Lindgardt, Z., Reeves, M., & Stalk, G. (2015). *Business Model Innovation-When the Game Gets Tough, Change the Game*. Boston, MA: Boston Consulting Group.
Madjar, N. (2005). The contributions of different groups of individuals to employees' creativity. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 7(2), 182-206.
Mclean, L. D. (2005). Organizational culture's influence on creativity and innovation: a review of the literature and implications for human resource development. *Advances in Developing Human Resources*, 7(2), 226-246.
Messersmith, J. G., & Guthrie, J. P. (2010). High performance work systems in emergent organizations: Implications for firm performance. *Human Resource Management*, 49(2), 241-264.
Ny, I., Prieto, M., & Pérez-Santana, M. P. (2014). Managing innovative work behavior: The role of human resource practices. *Personnel Review*, 43(2), 184 – 208.
Parker, S. W., Williams, H. M., & Turner, N. (2006). Modeling the antecedents of proactive behavior at work. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(3), 636-652.
Patterson, M. G., West, M. A., Shackleton, V. J., Dawson, J. F., Lawthom, R., Maitlis, S., & Robinson, D. L. (2005). Validating the organizational climate measure: links to managerial practices, productivity, and innovation. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(4), 379-408.
Prieto, I. M., & Perez-Santana, M. P. (2014). Managing innovative work behavior: The role of human resource practices. *Personnel Review*, 43(2), 184-208.
Rogers, E. M. (1962). *Diffusion of Innovation Theory*. New York: Free Press.
Sabherwal, R., & Becerra-Fernandez, I. (2003). An empirical study of the effect of knowledge management processes at individual, group, and organizational levels. *Decision Science*, 34(2), 225-260.
Schumpeter, J. A. (1934). The theory of economic development: an inquiry into profits, capital, credit, interest, and the business cycle. In Urbana-Champaign's Academy for Entrepreneurial Leadership Historical Research Reference in Entrepreneurship, University of Illinois. Available at: SSRN: https://ssrn. com/abstract¼1496199 (accessed 06 March 2018).
Scott, S. G., & Bruce, R. A. (1994). Determinants of innovative behavior: A path model of individual innovation in the workplace. *Academy of Management Journal*, 37(3), 580-607.
Shalley, C. E., Zhou, J., & Oldham, G. R. (2004). The effects of personal and contextual characteristics on creativity: Where should we go from here? *Journal of Management*, 30(6), 933-958.
Shipton, H., West, M. A., Dawson, J., Birdi, K., & Patterson, M. (2006). HRM as a predictor of innovation. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 16(1), 3-27.
Sun, L., Aryee, S., & Law, K. S. (2007). High-performance human resource practices, citizenship behavior and organizational performance: A relational perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 50(3), 558-577.
Stevenson, H. H., & Jarillo, J. C. (1990). A paradigm of entrepreneurship: entrepreneurial management. *Strategic Management Journal*, 11(5), 17-27.
Svensson, P. G., & Hambrick, M. E. (2019). Exploring how external stakeholders shape social innovation in sport for development and peace. *Sport Management Review*, 22(4), 540-552.
Talukder, M. (2016). *Managing innovation adoption. From Innovation to Implementation*. New York: Routledge

Van Der Merwe, S. P., & Oosthuizen, J. H. (2011). A proposed instrument to measure organizational-based factors affecting corporate entrepreneurship. *Journal of Contemporary Management*, 8, 540-566.

Van Der Merwe, S. P., & Ellis, S. M. (2007). An exploratory study of some of the determinants of harmonious family relationships in small and medium-sized family businesses. *Management Dynamics*, 16(4), 24-35.

Van Wijk, J., Zietsma, C., & Dorado, S. (2018). Social innovation: integrating micro, meso, and macro level insights from institutional theory. *Business & Society*, 58(5), 887-918.

Vogus, T. J., & Welbourne, T. M. (2003). Structuring for high reliability: HR practices and mindful processes in reliability-seeking organizations. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24(7), 877-903.

Wang, T., & Zatzick, C. D. (2019). Human capital acquisition and organizational innovation: A temporal perspective. *Academy of Management Journal*, 62(1) 99.

Wright, P. M., & Kehoe, R. R. (2008). Human resource practices and organizational commitment: A deeper examination. *Asia Pacific Journal of Human Resources*, 46(1), 6-20.

Yuan, F., & Woodman, R. W. (2010). Innovative behavior in the workplace: The role of performance and image outcome expectations. *Academy of Management Journal*, 53(2), 323-342.

4.3. Exploring the mediating role of team resilience in the relationship between team characteristics (potency, creativity and psychological safety) and team effectiveness

Tom Kuypers | Hotel Management School Maastricht, The Netherlands
Jenny Sok | Hotelschool The Hague, The Netherlands

Abstract
The goal of this paper was two-fold: first, it answers to the call to shed light on the antecedents of team resilience; in this paper team potency, creativity and psychological safety were included. Second, it investigates the mediating role of team resilience in the relationship between team characteristics and team effectiveness. With the outcomes we hoped to find leads to enhance team resilience in hospitality educational teams. The outcomes suggest that team characteristic relate to team effectiveness, with team resilience as a mediator. To enhance team resilience in hospitality educational teams, we suggest to work on strengthening team characteristics.

Keywords: Team resilience; Team potency; Team creativity; Team psychological safety; Team effectiveness

Introduction

In general, team resilience is defined as a team's capacity to bounce back from adversity-induced process loss (Stoverink et al., 2020). Resilience research is well-established at the individual and organizational level, whereas team resilience is an upcoming topic in this field of research. However, first, many organizations nowadays have a team-approach when it comes to dealing with complex tasks (Mathieu et al, 2017). Teams allow members to share workload, monitor the work behaviors of other members, and develop and contribute expertise on subtasks (Mathieu et al., 2000). Second, in our fast-changing business environment, where many disruptions take place, work teams often face adversity and need a lot of resilience (King, Newman, & Luthans, 2015). Team adversity can be chronic (i.e., long-standing, cumulative) or acute (i.e., sudden, often with high intensity). Both types of adversities can weigh heavily on team effectiveness (Sims & Salas, 2007).

In earlier studies, resilience was measured either at the individual level (e.g., Stoltz, 2000), or organizational level (Weick, 2001). The measurement of team resilience, however, is still underdeveloped. Moreover, most studies on team resilience are performed in settings such as nursing, police, and IT. To our knowledge, team resilience has not been researched within a (hospitality) educational setting. After the COVID-19 crisis, the importance of more focus on teams in hospitality education is obvious (Ancona, Bresman & Mortensen, 2021). Emerging research on work team resilience from the past few years (see e.g., Gucciardi et al., 2018; Chapman et al., 2020; Hartwig et al., 2020) has begun to highlight the phenomenon in which teams succeed (e.g., teams are effective), despite facing significant adversity. This idea of positive team-dynamics can in part be explained by looking at team resilience as an important component of team success, leading to positive outcomes such as team performance and team effectiveness (Dórdio Dimas et al., 2018; West et al., 2009; Meneghel et al., 2016; Salanova et al., 2012).

The main research question was about the mediating role of team resilience, in a hospitality educational setting, in the relationship between three antecedents and team effectiveness. This study answers to the call of understanding the antecedents of team resilience, or the processes through which teams bounce back from adversity (e.g., Stoverink et al., 2020). Moreover, it can shed light on the resulting improved team effectiveness (Dórdio Dimas et al., 2018). The outcomes can help educational teams, who work interdependently, to build more team resilience which, in turn can lead to more working more effectively as a team.

Research approach

Three independent variables that show most potential regarding positively influencing team resilience were selected: team potency, team psychological safety and team creativity (Stoverink et al., 2020). According to Dórdio Dimas et al. (2018), team resilience can serve as a mediator between team resources and team effectiveness. The conservation of resources (COR; Hobfoll, 1989) theory, the crossover model of Westman (2001) and the Broaden-and-Build theory (BnB; Fredrickson, 2001) can be integrated with resilience and team effectiveness research to develop the theoretical model. COR theory suggests that the conservation of resources can go via resources passageways, in teams (Hartmann et al, 2019), and that teams will invest critical resources to recover from adversity (Dórdio Dimas et al., 2018). The crossover model highlights how resources cross over from one team member to another via interpersonal exchange (Westman, 2001). Moreover, the BnB theory can be used to explain how the exchange of team resources can not only be used to coping with adversity, but also to build durable social and cognitive resources that are essential for growing from adversity (Hartmann et al., 2021), leading to improved effectiveness.

Hypotheses

First, the relations between team resources and the mediator, team resilience, were hypothesized. Team potency, psychological safety and team creativity were expected to relate positively to team resilience. Team potency refers to the shared belief in a team that it can be effective at achieving assigned results (Guzzo et al., 1993). Team psychological safety is defined as a shared belief that the team is safe for interpersonal risk taking (Edmondson, 1999). Team creativity refers to the production of novel and useful ideas by a team of employees working together (Farh, Lee & Farh, 2010). Based on the COR theory, combined with the BnB model and the crossover model, we expect that teams that view themselves as 'potent' will be able to bounce back more effectively from adversity. The accumulation of collective experiences will enable teams to develop a shared perception of the team regarding their capability to resist, bounce back and recover from adverse events (Gucciardi et al., 2018).

H1: Team potency will be positively related to team resilience

In a similar vein, when teams feel they can produce novel and useful ideas to improve products, services, processes and procedures together, it can be expected that, through the processes induced by the BnB model and crossover theory, they will also be able to recover from setbacks in resourceful ways (Guzzo et al., 1993).

H2: Team creativity will be positively related to team resilience

In a positive emotional team climate, where individuals can easily express their emotions, we expect reflexivity to work as a resource pathway creating psychological safety, lowering barriers to ask for help and enabling individuals to learn from each other (Brykman & King, 2021; Hartmann et al., 2021).

H3: Team psychological safety will be positively related to team resilience

Several scholars have found that team resilience is related to team cohesion, cooperation and coordination (West et al., 2009) and team performance (Meneghel et al., 2016; Salanova et al., 2012); reasonably because the teams come up with more flexible and adaptive responses to adversity, and additionally they tend to use setbacks as challenges or opportunities for growth (Carmeli et al., 2013). Although team effectiveness is more than performance, team performance is seen as a critical component of team effectiveness, since effective teams are (also) better at task performance (Kim & Park, 2021). Dórdio Dimas et al. (2018) indeed found a positive relationship between team resilience and team effectiveness. We hypothesize, therefore:

H4: Team resilience is positively related to team effectiveness

Team resilience was expected to follow from the antecedents and, in turn, have an impact on team effectiveness, as a mediator. Accordingly with the COR theory proposed above, we propose that a team accumulates resources through exchange processes (Westman, 2001), broaden and build their capacities towards growth. This could mean that they don't only cope with adversity well, but they can even improve their performance in order to meet their goals, i.e. work more effectively. Although research is scarce, Dórdio Dimas et al. (2018) indeed found that team resilience served as a positive moderator in the relationship between team resources and team effectiveness. Therefore, we propose the following:

H5: Team resilience is a (positive) mediator in the relationship between the three team characteristics and team effectiveness.

Hypotheses are summarized in the following model:

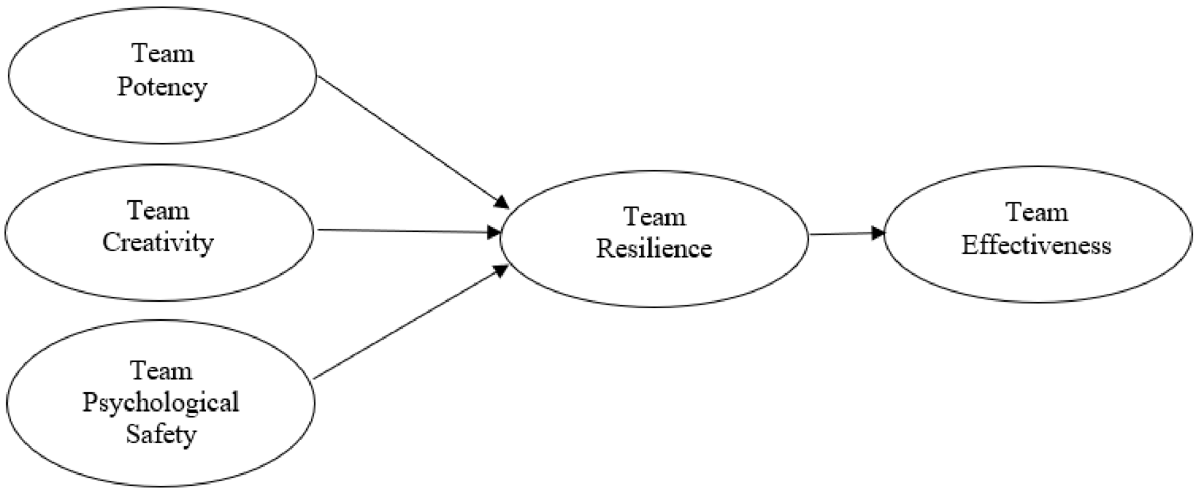


Figure 1: Research Model

Methods

Sampling

For the purpose of this study, data was collected from employees involved in education at Hotelschools in The Neterhlands. The employees either worked directly in education, or supported the primary educational processes. We targeted all five Dutch Hotelschools for this study. To be included in the sample, participants were: (a) involved in hospitality education during COVID-19, and (b) working in a team. A request to fill in the questionnaire was published on the intranets of the schools, sent via email, and distributed in working areas via QR code. Participation was completely voluntary. After excluding non-filled in questionnaires (i.e., opened but not started), the final sample consists of 116 respondents. Instead of deleting individuals with a certain percentage of missing values, all available data is included in the analysis. Of the full sample, 31% were female, 20% were male, 2% were non-binary, and remaining respondents did not want to disclose their gender. The average age of the respondents was 47.02 years old (SD = 11.9). The educational background of the individuals, based on the Dutch scholarly system, included 10% with a Bachelor education, 33.6% with a Master education, 8.6% with a Post-academic (PhD) education, and the remaining respondents not willing to disclose their educational level.

Data handling and analysis

Our target sample had access to the questionnaire, via the online data collection software Enalyzer, hosted by the Hotel Management School Maastricht. The questionnaire was filled in anonymously, and extracted from Enalyzer upon finalizing data collection. Data were stored in the safe data environment of the Research Centre of Hotelschool The Hague. Only the researchers have access to the data, with a protected password. Data were analyzed using Multiple Regression. We examined a mediation model to test our hypotheses. For mediation analysis, the multistep method by Baron and Kenny (1986) is the most widely used approach. To support mediation, this approach first suggests that the direct effect of the initial independent variable must be significantly related to the dependent variable. However, this view has been criticized by methodologists questioning whether it is necessary to demonstrate that this initial relationship is significant (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). As the initial relationship itself becomes more complex (as in our case with multiple independent variables), the impact of the independent variable on the dependent variable tends to get smaller as it is more likely to be "(a) transmitted through additional links in a causal chain, (b) affected by competing causes, and (c) affected by random factors" (Shrout & Bolger, 2002). Therefore, other methodologists recommend alternative approaches for mediation analysis (MacKinnon et al., 2002; Edwards & Lambert, 2007; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). Following these suggestions, we tested the mediation hypothesis using the PROCESS application for SPSS provided by Hayes (2012).

Measuring instruments

All scales were derived from existing instruments with only minor changes of wording necessary to adjust items to the context of the study. Responses were given on a five-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (e.g., strongly disagree) to 5 (e.g., strongly agree), or a seven-point Likert-type scale with similar anchor ranges. To measure team potency, we used a five-item scale from Guzzo, Yost, Campbell and Shea (1993). A sample item reads "This team has confidence it itself", and the Cronbach's Alpha (α) for scale reliability is .89 for team potency. Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale.

Team creativity was measured using a four-item scale from Shin and Zhou (2007). A sample item reads "The output of our team is original", with a Cronbach's Alpha (α) of .91. Responses were measured on a seven-point Likert scale. Team Psychological Safety was measured with the seven-item scale from Edmondson (1999). An example item for these scale is "It is safe to take a risk on this team". Three items were reverse coded, after which reliability analysis showed a Cronbach's Alpha (α) of .88. Responses were measured on a seven-point Likert scale.

For measuring Team Resilience, we opted for the six-item scale from Carmeli, Friedman and Tishler (2013). This resilience scale consists of both effective beliefs and adaptive beliefs. Sample items are "When encountering a new and difficult task my team can do it successfully" (effective) and "My team doesn't stick to their old ways and do adjust to the changing circumstances around us" (adaptive). This scale has a Cronbach's Alpha (α) of .94 for reliability. Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale.

Finally, Team Effectiveness was measured using the seven-item scale from Van der Hoek, Groeneveld and Kuipers (2018). A sample item for this scale reads "my team meets its goals", and the Cronbach's Alpha (α) for scale reliability is .94. Responses were measured on a five-point Likert scale.

Results

Table 1 below provides an overview of the means, standard deviations and correlations for all the variables.

Table 1. Means, Standard Deviations and Correlations among the Study Variables

	M	SD	Range	1	2	3	4	5
1. Team Potency	3.72	0.72	1-5	--				
2. Task Creativity	5.05	1.16	1-7	.69**	--			
3. Team Psychological Safety	5.25	1.24	1-7	.68**	.54**	--		
4. Team Resilience	3.82	0.86	1-5	.80**	.72**	.68**	--	
5. Team Effectiveness	3.36	0.79	1-5	.74**	.57**	.67**	.77**	--

N = 116 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Inspection of the table shows that all three independent variables in our study, positively correlate with our dependent variable. Thus, team potency ($r = .74$, $p < .01$), team creativity ($r = .57$, $p < .01$), and team psychological safety ($r = .67$, $p < .01$), are positively related to team effectiveness. Results also show that team resilience is positively related to team effectiveness ($r = .77$, $p < .01$). Moreover, team potency, team creativity, and team psychological safety, are positively correlated to our mediating variable team resilience ($r = .80$, $r = .72$, and $r = .68$ respectively, all at $p < .01$).

Tests of Mediation

This study assessed the mediating role of team resilience on the relationship between three team characteristics and team effectiveness. Table 2 presents the results for hypothesis 1-5. For the independent variable team potency, the results revealed a significant impact of team potency on team resilience ($B = .63$, $SE = .15$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H1. For team creativity, results revealed a significant impact on team resilience ($B = .28$, $SE = .08$, $p < 0.01$), in support of H2. And likewise, results showed a significant impact of team psychological safety on team resilience ($B = .20$, $SE = .07$, $p < 0.01$), supporting H3.

Table 2. Regression Results for Mediation

Variable	Effect	SE	P
Direct effects model			
Team Resilience regressed on Team Potency (H1)	.41	.15	.008**
Team Resilience regressed on Team Creativity (H3)	.28	.08	.001**
Team Resilience regressed on Team Psychological Safety (H3)	.20	.07	.004**
Direct effects model			
Team Effectiveness regressed on Team Resilience controlling for independent variables (H4)	.43	.13	.001**
Mediation effects model - Team Potency (controlling for other IV's)			
Direct effect of Team Potency on Team Effectiveness	.36	.16	.026*
Bootstrap results for indirect effects	Effect	SE	[95% CI]
Team Resilience on Team Effectiveness	.17	.09	[.008; .373]
Mediation effects model - Team Creativity (controlling for other IV's)			
Direct effect of Team Creativity on Team Effectiveness	-.08	.09	.395
Bootstrap results for indirect effects	Effect	SE	[95% CI]
Team Resilience on Team Effectiveness	.12	.06	[.010; .255]
Mediation effects model - Team Psych. Safety (contr. for other IV's)			
Direct effect of Team Psych. Safety on Team Effectiveness	.10	.07	.163
Bootstrap results for indirect effects	Effect	SE	[95% CI]
Team Resilience on Team Effectiveness	.09	.05	[.005; .194]

N=116 + $p<0.1$ * $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$
Note. Unstandardized regression coefficients are reported. Bootstrap sample size = 5,000.
CI = confidence interval; significant if "0" is not present in the interval (Hayes, 2012).

Furthermore, when controlling for the three team characteristics, the direct effects model shows support for H4, revealing a positive association between team resilience and team effectiveness (B = .43, SE = .13, $p < 0.01$).

Moving further, following the mediation analysis, results revealed a significant direct effect of team potency on team effectiveness (B = .36, SE = .16, $p < 0.05$), combined with a significant indirect effect in presence of the mediator (B = .17, Boot SE = .09, p = [.008; .373]). Hence, team resilience partially mediated the relationship between team potency and team effectiveness. For team creativity, results show no significant direct effect on team effectiveness (B = -.08, SE = .09, $p > 0.1$), but do show a significant indirect effect in presence of the mediator (B = .12, Boot SE = .06, p = [.010; .255]), indicating full mediation. Similarly, for team psychological safety, results reveal no significant direct effect on team effectiveness (B = .10, SE = .07, $p > 0.1$), but do show a significant indirect effect in presence of the mediator (B = .09, Boot SE = .05, p = [.005; .194]), indicating full mediation as well. In support of H5, results show a partial mediation between team potency and team effectiveness via team resilience, and full mediation for team creativity and team psychological safety.

Discussion

This study examined the influence of team characteristics on team effectiveness, and the mediating impact of team resilience. We found that team resilience fully mediates the relationship between team creativity and team effectiveness, and also fully mediates the relationship between team psychological safety and team effectiveness. Furthermore, we found evidence for the partial mediating role of team resilience, on the relationship between team potency and team effectiveness. Our results show that team resilience acts as a mediating mechanism in the relationship between team characteristics and team effectiveness.

Theoretical Contributions

The results of our study contribute to the literature by confirming and extending the findings of prior studies in several ways. First, answering the call by among others Stoverink et al. (2020), we highlight three important team characteristics that act as antecedents of team resilience. Second, we add to the existing body of literature by focusing on team resilience as mediating mechanism linking team characteristics (i.e. team potency, team creativity, and team psychological safety) to team effectiveness. Third, all results support the theory used in earlier studies, the COR theory, the crossover model and the BnB theory.

Practical Implications

As organizational success will continue to be predominantly based on team effectiveness, our results have some implications for practice. First, the findings highlight the importance of considering the impact of team characteristics on team effectiveness. Facilitating teams in their creativity and ensuring psychological safety in teams, will make these team more resilient and subsequently will make teams more effective in their work. Managers might thus focus their efforts in fostering a creative work environment, which also creates a more psychologically safe workplace. Moreover, a team that considers itself has having more confidence or being more potent (i.e. high team potency), will consider itself as being more resilient, and those highly potent teams will also be more effective in a direct sense.

Limitations and Future Research

Our study has some limitations, firstly the cross-sectional nature of our study. Taking a longitudinal approach to assess the effects of changes in team characteristics would proof beneficial for advancing team resilience research. Still, the fact that we measured multiple team characteristics in relation to team resilience and team effectiveness, is a notable strength of this study. Moreover, in our analysis, we included all three team characteristics as controls for every mediation analysis. A second related limitation of our study is that we mainly relied on self-reports which may introduce common-method biases. This risk thus calls for future research, using objective performance measures important to substantiate our findings further. Lastly, sample size was limited.

Nonetheless, future research appears necessary to fully understand team antecedents to team resilience, since bringing together a set of resilient employees will not necessarily generate a resilient team. Future research could investigate the mediating mechanism of team resilience on team outcomes such as team effectiveness. The relation between team resilience and team effectiveness further, by including learning behavior as a mediator, or leadership as a moderator. The capacity of employees and organizations to generate a specific response to crises has become particularly relevant, emerging as a competitive asset. Learning more about the antecedents, as well as outcomes, for teams as well as organisations, is therefore paramount, in a complex and ever-changing environment.

Conclusion

Our study contributes team resilience research, in showing how team resilience acts as a mediator linking team characteristics (e.g. team potency, team creativity, and team psychological safety) to team effectiveness. Furthermore, we found team potency to be only partially mediated by team resilience, showing the importance of team potency as an antecedent to team resilience, as well as having a direct impact on team effectiveness.

References

Ancona, D., Bresman, H. & Mortensen, M. (2021). Shifting Team Research after COVID-19: Evolutionary and Revolutionary Change. *Journal of Management Studies*, 58, 289-293.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator–mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of personality and social psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.

Brykman, K. M., & King, D. D. (2021). A Resource Model of Team Resilience Capacity and Learning. *Group & Organization Management*, 46, 737-772.

Carmeli, A., Friedman, Y., & Tishler, A. (2013). Cultivating a resilient top management team: the importance of relational connections and strategic decision comprehensiveness. *Safety Science*, 5(1), 148-159.

Chapman, M. T., Lines, R. L. J., Crane, M., Ducker, K. J., Ntoumanis, N., Peeling, P., Parker, S. K., Quested, E., Temby, P., Thøgersen-Ntoumani, C., & Gucciardi, D. F. (2020). Team resilience: A scoping review of conceptual and empirical work. *Work & Stress*, 34(1), 57-81.

Dórdio Dimas, I., Rebelo, T., Renato Lourenço, P., & Pereira Pessoa, C. I. (2018). Bouncing Back from Setbacks: On the Mediating Role of Team Resilience in the Relationship Between Transformational Leadership and Team Effectiveness. *The Journal of Psychology*, 152, 358-372.

Edmondson, A. (1999). Psychological Safety and Learning Behavior in Work Teams. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 44, 2, 350-38.

Edwards, J. R., & Lambert, L. S. (2007). Methods for integrating moderation and mediation: A general analytical framework using moderated path analysis. *Psychological methods*, 12(1), 1-22.

Farh, J.-L., Lee, C., & Farh, C. I. C. (2010). Task conflict and team creativity: A question of how much and when. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 95, 1173–1180.

Gucciardi, D. F., Crane, M., Ntoumanis, N., Parker, S. K., Thøgersen-Ntoumani, C., Ducker, K. J., Peeling, P., Chapman, M. T., Quested, E., & Temby, P. (2018). The emergence of team resilience: A multilevel conceptual model of facilitating factors. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 91(4), 729-768.

Guzzo, R. A., Yost, P. R., Campbell, R. J., & Shea, G. P. (1993). Potency in groups: Articulating a construct. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 32, 1, 87-106.

Hartmann, S., Weiss, M., Hoegl, M., & Carmeli, A. (2021). How does an emotional culture of joy cultivate team resilience? A sociocognitive perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 42, 3, 313–331.

Hartwig, A., Clarke, S., Johnson, S., & Willis, S. (2020). Workplace team resilience: A systematic review and conceptual development. *Organizational Psychology Review*, 10(3-4), 169-200.

Hayes, A. F. (2012). PROCESS: A versatile computational tool for observed variable mediation, moderation, and conditional process modeling [White paper]. Retrieved from http://www.afhayes.com/ public/process2012.pdf

Hobfoll, S. E. (1989). Conservation of resources: A new attempt at conceptualizing stress. *American Psychologist*, 44(3), 513–524.
Kim, D. H., & Park, J. G. (2021). Teamwork and task performance: A meta-analysis. International *Journal of Hospitality Management*, 94, 102860.
King, D. D., Newman, A., & Luthans, F. (2016). Not if, but when we need resilience in the workplace. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 37(5), 782–786.
MacKinnon, D. P., Lockwood, C. M., Hoffman, J. M., West, S. G., & Sheets, V. (2002). A comparison of methods to test mediation and other intervening variable effects. *Psychological methods*, 7(1), 83-104.
Mathieu, J. E., Heffner, T. S., Goodwin, G. F., Salas, E., & Cannon-Bowers, J. A. (2000). The influence of shared mental models on team process and performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 85(2), 273.
Mathieu, J. E., Hollenbeck, J. R., van Knippenberg, D., & Ilgen, D. R. (2017). A century of work teams in the Journal of Applied Psychology. *Journal of applied psychology*, 102(3), 452.
Meneghel, I., Salanova, M., & Martínez, I. M. (2016). Feeling good makes Us stronger: How team resilience mediates the effect of positive emotions on team performance. *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 17(1), 239–255.
Preacher, K. J., Rucker, D. D., & Hayes, A. F. (2007). Addressing moderated mediation hypotheses: Theory, methods, and prescriptions. *Multivariate behavioral research*, 42(1), 185-227.
Salanova, M., Llorens, S., Cifre, E., & Martínez, I. M. (2012). We need a hero! Toward a validation of the Healthy and Resilient Organization (HERO) model. *Group and Organization Management*, 37(6), 785–822.
Shin, S. J., & Zhou, J. (2007). When is educational specialization heterogeneity related to creativity in research and development teams? Transformational leadership as a moderator. *Journal of applied Psychology*, 92(6), 1709-1721.
Shrout, P. E., & Bolger, N. (2002). Mediation in experimental and nonexperimental studies: new procedures and recommendations. *Psychological methods*, 7(4), 422-445.
Sims, D. E., & Salas, E. (2007). When teams fail in organizations: What creates teamwork breakdowns? In J. Langan-Fox, C. L. Cooper, & R. J. Klimoski (Eds.), *Research companion to the dysfunctional workplace: Management challenges and symptoms* (pp. 302–318). Edward Elgar Publishing.
Stoltz, P. G. (2000). *Adversity quotient at work: Finding your hidden capacity for getting things done*. New York: HarperCollins Publishers Inc.
Stoverink, A. C., Kirkman, B. L., Mistry, S., & Rosen, B. (2020). Bouncing back together: Toward rhetorical model of work team resilience. *The Academy of Management Review*, 45(2), 395–422.
Van der Hoek, M., Groeneveld, S., & Kuipers, B. (2018). Goal setting in teams: Goal clarity and team performance in the public sector. *Review of public personnel administration*, 38(4), 472-493.
Weick, K. E., & Sutcliffe, K. M. (2001). *Managing the unexpected* (Vol. 9). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.
West, B. J., Patera, J. L., & Carsten, M. K. (2009). Team level positivity: Investigating positive psychological capacities and team level outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(2), 249–267.
Westman, M. (2001). Stress and strain crossover. *Human Relations*, 54, 557–591.

4.4. The temporal and spatial Impact of the 2016 Great Smoky Mountains wildfire disaster on short-term rentals

Yang Zhou | Texas Tech University, USA
Radesh Palakurthi | University of Memphis, USA
Rui Qi | University of Memphis, USA

Abstract
This study mainly investigates wildfires' short-term and long-term impact on short-term rentals across different regions. Based on the time series data regarding short-term rentals in the Great Smoky Mountains, this study applies anomaly detection to outline the trends, seasonality, and abnormal performance of short-term rentals using the monthly data of Airbnb and Vrbo from 2014 to 2019. The results reveal the wildfire disaster's positive impacts on the revenue of short-term rentals during the disaster. For the post-disaster period, the short-term rental performance shows the complex changes that first occurred in seasonal drops and holds a similar trend with the local tourism business. In addition, the findings unveil that the proximity of short-term rentals to the wildfire areas increased the impact of the wildfire disaster.

Keywords: Natural disaster; Short-term rentals; Time-series analysis; Geographic information systems

Introduction

According to the World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) report, the COVID-19 pandemic caused a massive decline in international tourism, with estimates ranging from 60% to 80% in 2020, leading to a loss of $80 billion in exports from tourism during the first quarter of 2020 (World Tourism Organization, 2020). Hall, Scott, and Gössling (2020) and Krishnan et al. (2020) hold a pessimistic view regarding the impact of COVID-19 on the hotel and tourism industries, predicting a more extended recovery period. In contrast, the short-term rental market showed growth in demand and remarkable resilience, even though it suffered a significant hit during the COVID-19 pandemic (Bosa, 2020). Natural disasters, including cyclones, floods, earthquakes, drought, and others, have historically caused billions of dollars in economic losses worldwide, with increasing frequency (Dilley, 2005). The tourism industry and its sub-industries have been impacted by natural disasters, with their influence gradually rising in recent years (Faulkner, 2001).

This study investigates the temporal effects of the Great Smoky Mountains National Park fires on short- term rentals in Tennessee, the geography of short-term rentals in Tennessee, and their relationship to wildfire disaster areas. The study is motivated by the need to understand the impact of the 2016 Great Smoky Mountains Wildfire Disaster on the short-term rental industry. The study poses two research questions: (1) How long did short-term rental businesses in the affected region return to regular supply, demand, and revenue performance after the disaster? (2) Does proximity to the disaster zone affect the normalization of the short-term rental industry? This study is designed to analyze the impact of the wildfire disaster on short-term rentals and to evaluate the recovery of supply and demand in the affected area while considering geographical factors.

Literature review

Previous studies have shown mixed results regarding the impact of natural disasters on the tourism and hospitality industries. Some research suggests that frequent natural disasters can have positive effects on long- term economic growth and recovery in disaster regions, providing opportunities to improve productivity and update capital investments and technologies in some developing countries and regions (Crespo Cuaresma, Hlouskova, & Obersteiner, 2008; Skidmore & Toya, 2002). On the other hand, Coffman and Noy (2012) found that natural disasters negatively impact the local economy in the long run and make it difficult to recover to its original condition.

One example of a natural disaster that significantly impacted the hospitality industry is Hurricane Katrina, which caused a decline of 31% in hotel revenue in New Orleans in the two years following the disaster (Lange et al., 2016). Coffman and Noy (2012) also found that natural disasters negatively impact the local economy in the long run, studying Hurricane Iniki, which struck Hawaii. Similarly, Liu (2014) argued that the attractiveness of tourist resources after a natural disaster is decreased, reducing tourism demand. In the case of the 2016 Great Smoky Mountains Wildfire Disaster, the tourism industry in the affected region, including the hospitality sector, was significantly impacted (Gatlinburg Convention and Visitors Bureau, 2017). The disaster led to a decrease in hotel occupancy rates, cancellations, and reduced bookings. Short-term rentals, such as those offered through Airbnb, also experienced a decline in bookings and revenue in the weeks following the disaster (Roberts, 2016). However, as the region began to rebuild and recover, some short-term rental hosts were able to capitalize on the increased demand for lodging from disaster relief workers, volunteers, and displaced residents (Hemmerling, 2018).

Several studies have explored the effects of natural disasters on traditional tourism and hotel industries and their subsequent recovery. Bauman et al. (2020) found that natural disasters directly influence tourists' attitudes toward destinations. Henderson (2005) reported that during a disaster, the areas surrounding hotels are initially negatively affected by employee shortages, leading to safety issues. Ritchie et al. (2014) observed increased demand and revenue for hotels in nearby coastal regions following the 2010 Gulf Coast oil spill catastrophe.

The 2016 wildfire in the Great Smoky Mountains, which destroyed over 100 private homes and 2,460 buildings and threatened a theme park, provides a clear example of the potential impact of natural disasters on the tourism and lodging industries (Kearney & Whitcomb, 2016). According to a news article by The Tennessean, the wildfires significantly impacted tourism in the Gatlinburg and Pigeon Forge areas, leading to a decline in demand for short-term rental properties in the immediate aftermath of the disaster (Williams, 2017). However, the local community and government quickly mobilized to support recovery efforts, including promoting the area as a tourist destination. By the summer of 2017, tourism in the region had recovered mainly, with short-term rental properties back in demand (Grossman, 2017).

Methodology

This study employed time series analysis and spatial analysis methods to investigate the impact of the 2016 Great Smoky Mountain Wildfire on short-term rentals. The findings suggest that the effects of the wildfire on short-term rentals differ depending on their location and distance from the disaster area. Time series analysis is used to identify patterns over time, while spatial analysis is used to examine how the proximity of rental properties to the disaster area affects the impact of the disaster. The study utilizes two software applications, R and ArcGIS, to facilitate the analysis. The study investigated the impact of the 2016 Great Smoky Mountain Wildfire in Tennessee, and we mainly focus on the short-term rentals distributed in the Great Smoky Mountain area. According to the National Park

Service in 2017, the Great Smoky Mountain National Park was the most frequented national park in the United States, with 22,528,017 visitors in 2016 (National Park Service, 2017). The area known as the Great Smoky Mountains, which includes Sevier County, Cocke County, and Blount County, is contiguous with the Great Smoky Mountains National Park according to our classification (Figure 1).

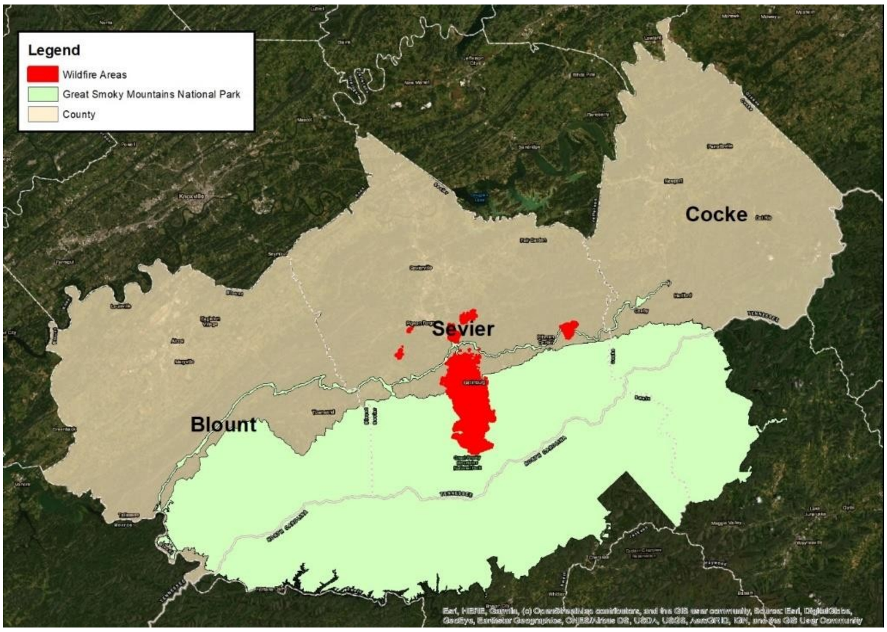


Figure 1. Detailed map of wildfire areas, research areas, and the Great Smoky Mountains National Park

The research focuses on short-term rentals in the Great Smoky Mountain area, which includes Sevier County, Cocke County, and Blount County, contiguous with the Great Smoky Mountains National Park (National Park Service, 2017). According to AirDNA, a third-party data provider, short-term rental properties in the area are concentrated in Sevierville, Gatlinburg, and Pigeon Forge. The study categorizes short-term rentals based on their proximity to the wildfire areas, using a classification scheme of 10km, 25km, and 50km distances.

The study uses secondary data analysis through a comprehensive research process. Daily and monthly data on short-term rentals are obtained from AirDNA (https://www.airdna.co/) from October 2014 through December 2019. The data provide information on revenue, occupancy rate, geospatial coordinates, and other pertinent characteristics. Monthly tourism metrics for Gatlinburg (https://www.gatlinburg.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/10/2018_Gatlinburg_Directory_RelocationGuide.pdf) and Pigeon Forge (http://www.pigeonforgedevelopment.com/) were obtained from their destination marketing organizations for the six years spanning 2013 to 2018. The data from the National Park Service website was also utilized to assess seasonal fluctuations in visitation, lodging, and various camping accommodations. The National Park Service website, available at https://irma.nps.gov/STATS/Reports/Park, provided indispensable data to evaluate seasonal changes in visitation between 2014 and 2019. This information encompasses a range of pertinent tourism and lodging indices, including counts of recreational and non-recreational visitors, stays at concession-based lodging facilities, and various camping accommodations.

Data analysis

The current study employed Time Series Anomaly Detection, a data science technique that identifies anomalies impacting natural disasters from the database by analyzing seasonal patterns and underlying trends in the target datasets (AbdulMajedRaja, 2019; Kotu & Deshpande, 2019). The application of the anomalies R package enables the identification of abnormal periods within the data, which allows for the determination of both short-term and long-term effects of the wildfire. The anomalize R package incorporates the Seasonal Hybrid Extreme Studentized Deviate (S-H-ESD) test algorithm, which is an extension of the ESD algorithm used for detecting anomalies in time series data with seasonal patterns (Hochenbaum, Vallis, & Kejariwal, 2017; Schmidt, 2021; Taylor et al., 2018). The S-H-ESD algorithm identifies anomalies in the dataset by normalizing the deviation of each data point from the mean by the variability of the data within the seasonal window. The anomalies R package is widely used across various fields, such as finance, economics, environmental studies, and public health (Merkle, 2021). The equation for the studentized residual r_i is given by:

$$r_i = (x_i - \mu_i) / \sigma_i$$

where, x_i is the observed value of the i-th data point, μ_i is the mean of the seasonal window in which the i-th data point occurs, and σ_i is the standard deviation of the seasonal window in which the i-th data point occurs. This equation normalizes the deviation of the data point from the mean by the variability of the data within the seasonal window. The equation for the test statistic T_k is given by:

$$T_k = \max(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_k) / s_k$$

where $\max(r_1, r_2, \ldots, r_k)$ is the maximum studentized residual among the k potential anomalies, and s_k is the estimated standard deviation of the residuals after removing the k potential anomalies. This equation normalizes the maximum variation among the possible anomalies by the variability of the data after removing the potential anomalies. By isolating and representing seasonality and trend, the package can aid in evaluating short-term and long-term impacts of various phenomena, such as natural disasters or market fluctuations (Gunn, 2020). The package is widely used in multiple fields, including finance, economics, environmental studies, and public health (Merkle, 2021).

The study focused on the dependent variables of demand, revenue, and ADR, with the independent variables of location and time. The demand variable was measured by reservation days, representing the total number of booked nights, while revenue represented the total income generated over the specified period. ADR, the new dependent variable developed in this study, refers to the average income each occupied room generates within a specific time frame. Moreover, this study utilized ArcGIS software to categorize Airbnb properties based on their proximity to wildfires using distance thresholds of 10km, 25km, and 50km. The examination involved measuring the distance between each Airbnb property and the affected wildfire areas, subsequently classifying the properties into four distance groups: properties within 10km, properties situated more than 10km but within 25km, properties located beyond 25km but less than 50km, and properties positioned beyond 50km.

Results

The 2016 wildfire in the Great Smoky Mountain region caused significant damage to the local tourism sector. However, the impact on short-term rentals differed from other forms of accommodation. According to data from the National Park Service (2021), there was a substantial decline in total visits and overnight stays in the national park following the disaster, with a reduction of 43.09% and 43.44%, respectively, compared to the same period in the previous year. Furthermore, the local destination marketing organizations' data indicates that the nearby towns of Gatlinburg and Pigeon Forge have experienced a significant decline in their respective tourism industries, providing relevant information for assessing the disaster's impact. Especially the declines of revenue in Gatlinburg, as a tourism town covered by the wildfire, the figures illustrated that lodging (-51.15%), restaurant (-32.25%), attractions (-23.93%), and other revenue (-30.11%) are all detected anomalies in December 2016 by the anomaly detection model, and the data also showed that revenue dropped sharply after November 2016. The abnormal revenue performance continued to the following summer in Gatlinburg. The wildfire did not damage Pigeon Forge near Gatlinburg, similar to Gatlinburg. Comparing the same month last year, retail and service revenue (-7.27%), restaurant revenue (-6.28%), and theater revenue (-3.75%) of Pigeon Forge reduced in December 2016. Nonetheless, our analysis reveals a notable increase of 21.1% and 6.47% in revenue generated by short-term rental accommodations and amusement activities. Figure 2 shows that short-term rentals have shown a positive trend during wildfires.

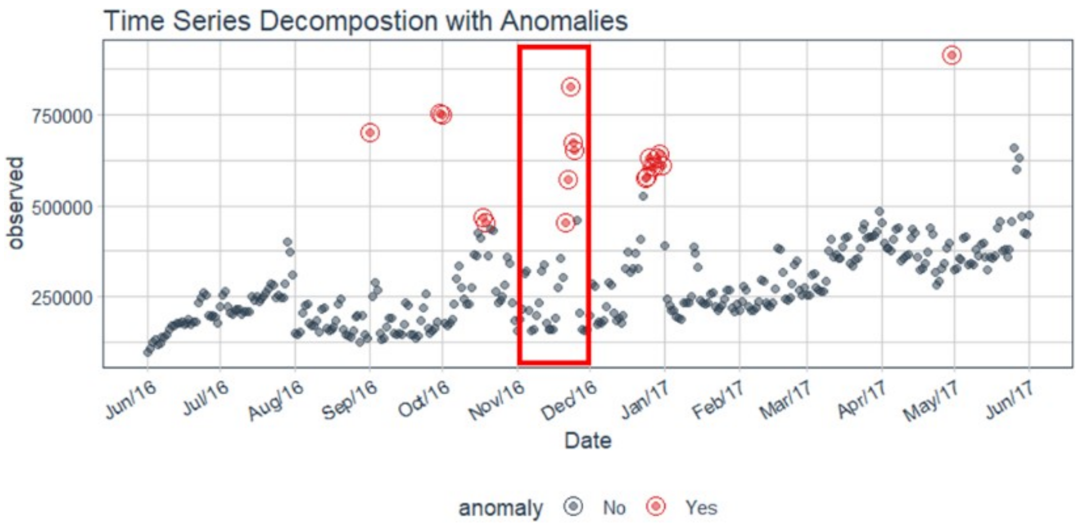


Figure 2. The result of Anomalies Detection in the Great Smoky Mountains area

In addition, the research delineated the impacted regions of wildfires solely within the Great Smoky Mountains region, as depicted in Figure 3, by examining three key Airbnb distribution areas in Tennessee. In the analysis of the three regions, the number of reservation days and revenue did not indicate a significant statistical anomaly from November 23, 2016, to December 22, 2016, in Memphis and Nashville areas. However, a positive anomaly was observed in the number of reservation days and revenue for the Great Smoky Mountains region, which includes Sevier County, Cocke County, and Blount County.

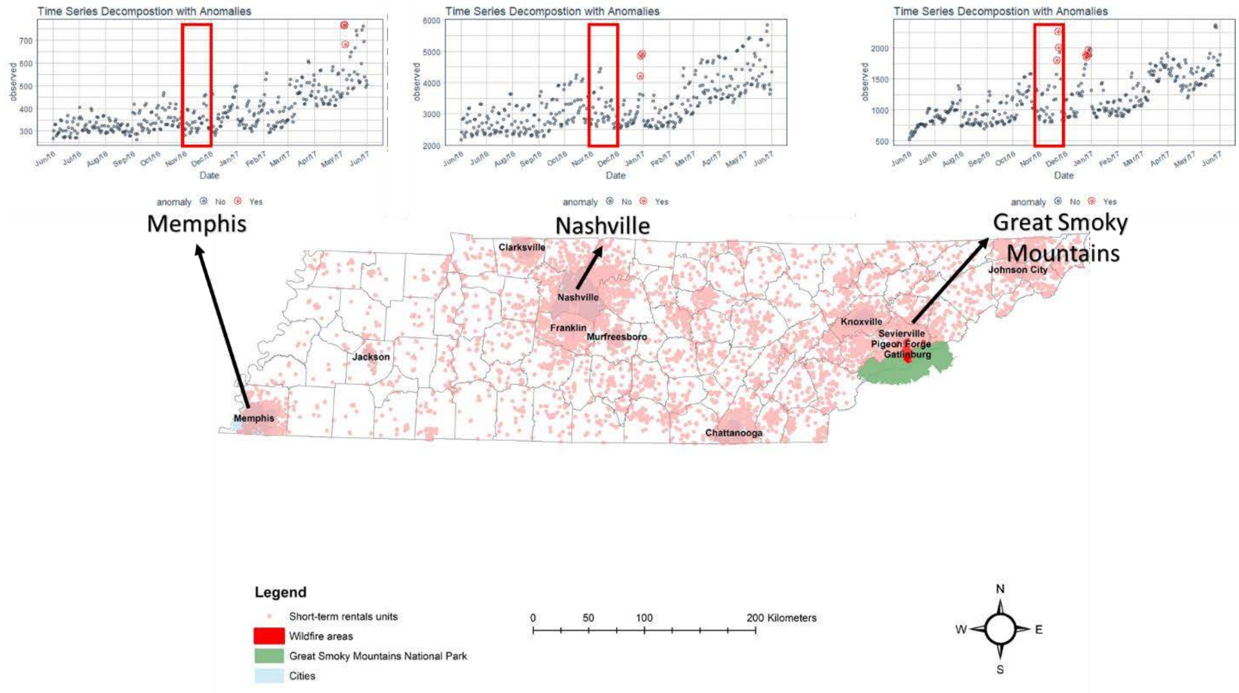


Figure 3. Anomaly detection of three areas in Tennessee

Furthermore, based on the previous step's results, the study narrows its focus to the Great Smoky Mountains area. Figure 4 shows the anomaly detection of the average revenue of short-term rentals in the Great Smoky Mountains area. Based on the outcomes of anomaly detection, it was determined that revenue exhibited superior performance in December 2016. During this period, each short-term rental property not only refrained from incurring losses but also earned higher than projected revenues. Nonetheless, this exceptional performance was short-lived, and the average income promptly reverted to the standard level post-December 2016. The version of supply and demand (reservation days) did not show any anomaly in our model around November and December 2016. Furthermore, the extent of the wildfire's impact is restricted to a radius of 50 kilometers from the wildfire areas, with a more pronounced effect observed in closer proximity.

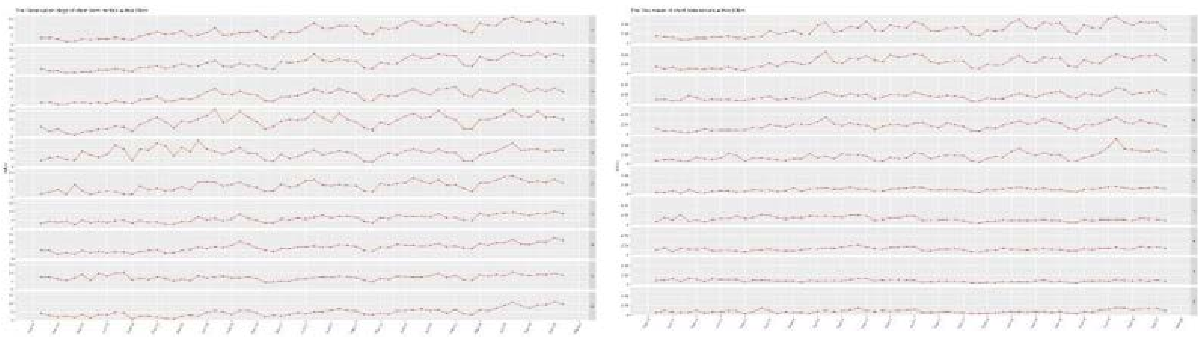


Figure 4. The comparison of reservation days (left) and revenue (right) of short-term rentals in the Great Smoky Mountains area (within 50km)

In terms of short-term performance, the wildfire provided a beneficial effect, leading to increased reservations and revenue. Furthermore, the disaster did not generate any adverse impacts. Looking at long-term performance, short-term rentals experienced a slight decline for one to two months after the wildfire but still maintained an upward trend. Analysis revealed that distance was a significant independent variable affecting the degree of impact of the natural disaster. Regions closer to the disaster were subject to more pronounced effects, resulting in substantial changes during the event, whereas areas further away experienced less impact and fewer variations. It is expected that the study results will be helpful for destination marketing organizations to understand better the effects of natural disasters on the local hospitality and tourism industries and create a plan for their recovery.

Limitations and future research

The study's limitations include its reliance on data from a third-party provider, AirDNA, and its focus solely on the short-term rental sector, with other tourism and hospitality industry segments not being considered. The reliability of the data may influence the study's findings due to AirDNA's web-scraping techniques. Future research may explore the long-term impact of the wildfire on the local tourism sector and the recovery plan for the affected industries. The study's findings can be helpful for destination marketing organizations in understanding the effects of natural disasters on the local hospitality and tourism industries.

References

Angotti, D. (2017). Gatlinburg wildfire & smoky mountain wildfires. Retrieved from https://smokymountains.com/park/blog/gatlinburg-wildfire-smoky-mountain-wildfires/

Bauman, M. J., Yuan, J., & Williams, H. A. (2020). Developing a measure for assessing tourists' empathy towards natural disasters in the context of wine tourism and the 2017 California wildfires. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 23(189), 2476-2491.

Coffman, M., & Noy, I. (2012). Hurricane iniki: Measuring the long-term economic impact of a natural disaster using synthetic control. *Environment and Development Economics*, 17(2), 187-205.

Crespo Cuaresma, J., Hlouskova, J., & Obersteiner, M. (2008). Natural disasters as creative destruction? Evidence from developing countries. *Economic Inquiry*, 46(2), 214-226.

Dilley, M. (2005). *Natural disaster hotspots: A global risk analysis* (Vol. 5). World Bank Publications.

Faulkner, B., & Vikulov, S. (2001). Katherine, washed out one day, back on track the next: A post-mortem of a tourism disaster. *Tourism Management*, 22(4), 331-344.

Gatlinburg Convention and Visitors Bureau. (2017). Gatlinburg Convention & Visitors Bureau Annual Report: Fiscal Year 2016-2017. Retrieved from https://www.gatlinburg.com/wp-content/uploads/2019/06/GCVB- Annual-Report-FY16-17.pdf.

Gössling, S., Scott, D., & Hall, C. M. (2020). Pandemics, tourism, and global change: a rapid assessment of COVID-19. *Journal of sustainable tourism*, 29(1), 1-20.

Grossman, B. (2017, August 4). Six months after deadly wildfires, Gatlinburg-area businesses are rebounding. USA Today. Retrieved from https://www.usatoday.com/story/travel/destinations/2017/08/04/gatlinburg- tennessee-wildfires-rebound/533119001/

Gunn, J. (2020). Anomaly Detection with anomalize Package. Retrieved from: https://towardsdatascience.com/anomaly- detection-with-anomalize-package-6903a6a3647e

Hemmerling, J. (2018). The aftermath of a natural disaster: How Airbnb hosts are impacted. Retrieved from: https://www.alltherooms.com/blog/airbnb-after-a-natural-disaster/.

Henderson, J. C. (2005). Responding to natural disasters: Managing a hotel in the aftermath of the Indian ocean tsunami. *Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 6(1), 89-96.

Hochenbaum, J., Vallis, O. S., & Kejariwal, A. (2017). Automatic anomaly detection in the cloud via statistical learning. arXiv preprint arXiv:1704.07706.

Kearney, L., & Whitcomb, D. (2016). Great smoky mountains fires leave three dead, 'scene of destruction'. Retrieved from: https://www.reuters.com/article/us-usa-fires-tennessee-idUSKBN13O2E3

Krishnan, V., Mann, R., Seitzman, N., & Wittkamp, N. (2020). Hospitality and COVID-19: How long until 'no vacancy for US hotels? McKinsey & Company. Retrieved from: http://dln.jaipuria.ac.in:8080/jspui/bitstream/123456789/1562/1/Hospitality-and-COVID-19-How-long-until-no-vacancy-for-US-hotels-vF%20%281%29.pdf

Lange, F., List, J. A., Price, M. K., & Rupp, N. G. (2016). The business cycle and the life cycle: Hotel development in New Orleans. *National Bureau of Economic Research*, Working Paper No. 22121. doi: 10.3386/w22121

Liu, T. (2014). Analysis of the economic impact of meteorological disasters on tourism: The typhoon Morakot's impact on the Maolin national scenic area in Taiwan. *Tourism Economics*, 20(1), 143-156.

Merkle, D. (2021). Anomalize: Tidy anomaly detection. *Journal of Open Source Software*, 6(63), 3245.

Migisha, R., Kwesiga, B., Mirembe, B. B., Amanya, G., Kabwama, S. N., Kadobera, D., ... & Ario, A. R. (2020). Early cases of SARS-CoV-2 infection in Uganda: Epidemiology and lessons learned from risk- based testing approaches–March-April 2020. *Globalization and Health*, 16(1), 1-9.

National Park Service. (2017). Park statistics. Retrieved from https://www.nps.gov/grsm/learn/management/statistics.htm

Ritchie, B. W., Crotts, J. C., Zehrer, A., & Volsky, G. T. (2014). Understanding the effects of a tourism crisis: The impact of the BP oil spill on regional lodging demand. *Journal of Travel Research*, 53(1), 12-25.

Roberts, J. (2016, December 7). Tennessee wildfires hurt Gatlinburg's Airbnb industry. Retrieved from: https://www.cnbc.com/2016/12/07/tennessee-wildfires-hurt-gatlinburgs-airbnb-industry.html.

Schmidt, B. (2021). Anomaly Detection with anomalize R Package. *The Journal of Open Source Software*, 6(63), 3244.

Skidmore, M., & Toya, H. (2002). Do natural disasters promote long-run growth? *Economic inquiry*, 40(4), 664-687.

Taylor, J. W., Letham, B., & Wolff, R. W. (2018). Forecasting at scale. *The American Statistician*, 72(1), 37- 45.

Wang, H. (2017). Determinants hindering the intention of tourists to visit disaster-hit destinations. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 20(5), 459-479.

Williams, C. (2017, May 12). Gatlinburg, Pigeon Forge tourism recovering months after the wildfire. The Tennessean. Retrieved from: https://www.tennessean.com/story/news/local/2017/05/12/gatlinburg-pigeon- forge-tourism-recovering-months-after-wildfire/101562248/

4.5. Talent management coopetition networks in hospitality SMEs – Case studies from Germany and Austria

Julia Lenz | Munich University of Applied Sciences, Germany
Ralph Burbach | Technological University Dublin, Ireland

Abstract

Considering the labour intensity, high turnover rate, hard hit by Covid-19 and related exodus of employees in other industries, innovative concepts for new work realities in the hospitality industry are needed. A potential innovative solution in talent management for hospitality SMEs is the establishment and application of a talent management coopetition concept. In cooperation with competitors SMEs bear common talent management practices, like co-attracting, co-developing and co-retaining talent as a new approach determining the continuous staff shortages. This article examines the application of talent management coopetition concepts on the example of talent management coopetition networks (TMCN) in Germany and Austria in hospitality SMEs and reveals the lack of conceptual and empirical research considering operationalised TMCNs. It adds to the body of knowledge about innovative talent management concepts and coopetition in the hospitality industry.

Keywords: Coopetition; Talent management; Network; Innovation; Hospitality industry

Introduction

Generational changes in the workforce and increasing demands by workers for a better work life balance are driving new work patterns, which often present challenges to hospitality businesses (Burbach & Brannon, 2021). This is compounded by the scarcity of highly skilled employees in the industry (Kravariti et al., 2021). These changes, such as the rise of mobility, the demographic changes, diversification of culture, business environments and skills needs of employees, have a critical impact on new work realities (Beechler & Woodward, 2009), emphasising the crucial role of talent management and developing it to one of the most substantial challenges for enterprises of this time (Vaiman et al., 2021). While the hospitality industry appears to be dominated by large multinational hotel enterprises, the reality is that 99.8 percent of firms in the hospitality industry in the European Union are SMEs (Eurostat, 2020), although research in talent management in SMEs remains a neglected area (Gallardo Gallardo & Thunnissen, 2016).

In this paper, we adopt the European Commission (2023) definition of SMEs, according to which these are enterprises with fewer than 250 employees and a turnover of less than or equal to 50 million Euros. One often applied measurement to manage talent in MNEs are talent pools (Jooss et al., 2021). Talent pools in their traditional form are not applicable in SMEs, as they tend to be exclusive and inward-focused, while interorganisational, externally focused talent pools can be used to address the specific characteristics of people management in SMEs (Jooss et al., 2022). These include resource scarcity, high influence of the owner on talent management practices and high vulnerability to the external environment (Harney, 2021; Valverde et al., 2013). To apply talent pools in SMEs, Collings et al. (2022) argue for more innovative approaches, while Jooss et al. (2022) purport the need for empirical research on the topic of interorganisational talent pools in hospitality SMEs. To address this issue, this paper aims to analyse two existing approaches of interorganisational talent pools, which are based on coopetition, through a review of the literature and a secondary data analysis. To the best of our knowledge, there is, as yet no analysis of existing talent management coopetition networks (TMCN) in hospitality SMEs in Germany and Austria. Thus, this paper contributes to the body of knowledge on talent management coopetition concepts and their operationalisation in interorganisational talent pools in SMHEs.

Literature review

Talent Management in SMEs

Research on talent management in hospitality SMEs is scarce (Chung & D'Annunzio-Green, 2018; Kravariti et al., 2021). Especially for SMEs, which suffer from financial, time and managerial resource constraints (Chung & D'Annunzio-Green, 2018; Harney, 2021) and a high vulnerability to environmental changes (Harney et al., 2022), a high degree of informality and reactivity (Chung & D'Annunzio-Green, 2018) and a concentration of power at the level of the owner/CEO and/or HR manager (Harney & Alkhalaf, 2021). In addition, the attraction, development and retention of talent remains one of the most crucial challenges in the hospitality industry (Chang & Eberhardt, 2020). To make matters worse, the industry suffers from a poor reputation (Jooss et al., 2022). Working overtime (Chang & Eberhardt, 2020), the absence of strategic talent management and its effective application (Burbach & Brannon, 2021), low wages and shift work (International Labour Organization [ILO], 2023) often characterise the industry. Additionally, it was one of the hardest hit industries by Covid-19 (Breier et al., 2021) with an exodus of employees to other businesses (Baum et al., 2020) accompanied by intensified health and job security risks, which affect the perception of potential talents and employees of this industry (He et al., 2021).

The term talent has various definitions in talent management and the hospitality literature (Kravariti et al., 2022; McDonnell et al., 2017). For hospitality firms an inclusive view on talent, where all employees are managed as talents seems mostly applicable, enabling all staff to take responsibility and engagement in all functional areas and all positions (Baum, 2019). Considering the above characteristics of SMEs, numerous talent management measures implemented in MNEs, cannot be effectively exploited in SMEs, including the establishment and management of internal talent pools (Jooss et al., 2021). The establishment of shared talent pools, however, could, as we aim to demonstrate on two practical examples, represent a viable solution for SMEs. The conceptual grounding for interorganizational talent pools can be found in the concept of coopetition, which involves the cooperation with competitors. This idea will be further outlined in the next section.

Coopetition in SMEs

The term coopetition is a consolidation of cooperation and competition (Brandenburger & Nalebuff, 1996; Le Roy et al., 2018). Although diverse definitions can be found in literature, all of them combine cooperative and competitive business strategies (Bengtsson & Raza-Ullah, 2016) to achieve individual and mutual benefits, as well as to gain a competitive advantage. We define coopetition as the collaboration between two or more independent companies that are also competitors in order to leverage their combined knowledge and expertise in a particular business domain.

The research findings on coopetition in SMEs suggest that the concept is particularly important in SMEs (Gnyawali & Park, 2009). Factors such as the social network of owners/decision-makers (BarNir & Smith, 2002), scalability opportunities (Kraus et al., 2019), the development of a good coopetition strategy (Bouncken et al., 2020), trust between coopetition partners (Czakon & Czernek, 2016), intense competition (Kallmuenzer et al., 2021), dynamic economic conditions (Gnyawali et al., 2016), clear communication strategy

(Klimas et al., 2023) and legal considerations (Gnyawali & Park, 2009) all play a crucial role. Chang and Eberhardt (2020) argue for more coopetitive solutions in SMHEs and in the course of researching scientific literature on the topic of talent management coopetition networks, it is apparent that this concept is not commonly addressed in the hospitality industry (Kallmuenzer et al., 2021). While there are a limited number of papers discussing coopetition in the broader tourism industry (such as Chim-Miki & Batista-Canino, 2018), there are only a small number of papers specifically focused on talent management coopetition in the hospitality industry (such as van den Broek et al., 2018).

The evidence of coopetition concepts in practice and theory demonstrates the potential for innovative solutions for enterprises with resource constraints, operating in highly competitive markets. By leveraging interorganisational talent pools based on the coopetition concept, SMHEs can overcome the staff shortages, while initiating sustainable talent management practices. This approach not only allows SMHEs to position themselves as attractive employers, showcasing the advantages of working for them, but also enables them to retain their existing employees. An integrative framework for a talent management coopetition concept is presented in the conceptual paper by Jooss et al. (2022) and their results are summarised in the following section.

Talent management coopetition in SMHEs

Based on the conceptual paper by Jooss et al. (2022), SMHEs can strengthen their talent management system, apply systematic and innovative talent management approaches, develop talent thickening pipelines and gain new knowledge and skills though the establishment of interorganisational talent pools. Their (Jooss et al, 2022) framework consists of three distinct components: 1) Coopetition Context, which serves as the input for the framework, 2) Coopetition in Talent Management systems, and 3) Outputs that are directly associated with Talent Management. The framework incorporates input factors, processes, and outputs and provides an understanding of their interdependence. The input factors comprise prerequisites, catalysts, and potential inhibitors in the coopetition context including coordination and trust-orientated preconditions. The coopetition talent management processes involve various activities. In terms of talent attraction, talent development and talent retention, SMHEs, for example, can establish networks with educational institutions, create co-developing training strategies, content, and methods, and co-establish a framework for working conditions. The outputs of talent management coopetition can include satisfying the talent needs of SMHEs, creating stronger talent management systems, designing innovative talent management routines (Bengtsson & Raza-Ullah, 2016), gaining knowledge, strengthening relationships, and improving firm performance. Coopetition also contributes to the attractiveness of the region and the industry as a whole.

Building upon the conceptual framework for talent management in coopetition in SMHEs by Jooss et al. (2022), interorganisational talent pools can be regarded as a potential solution to the challenges that SMHEs face in attracting, developing, and retaining talent. In order to conduct empirical investigations through the use of primary data in the form of case studies, it is necessary to analyse the existing talent management coopetition networks to establish a solid foundation for sampling. Therefore, this paper focuses on examining and analysing two of these networks.

Methodology

To identify talent management coopetition concepts applied in the hospitality industry, a secondary data analysis was conducted from December 2022 until March 2023. The aim was to find examples of talent management cooperation networks (TMCNs) in practice in Germany and Austria, as the basis of a future primary research case study. As secondary

data analysis is suitable and frequently used as grounding for case study analysis (Saunders et al., 2023), this research method was chosen for this paper.
During the analysis, the terms "network," "interorganisational talent pool", "alliance", "cooperation", and "collaboration" were used as search terms in conjunction with "Germany" and "Austria," as well as the terms "Hotellerie" (hotel industry), "Gastronomie" (gastronomy), "Hotelbranche" (hotel sector), and "Gastgewerbe" (hospitality industry) in the German language, in order to obtain results from German companies in the German language in the search engine "google.de". During the data search process, exclusively unstructured data was found and categories were built, based on the assumption that the criteria will be important for the comparability for the further thematic data analysis. Therefore, the categories' location, establishment date, number of participating firms, categorisation of partner enterprises, employee participation, network objectives, degree of coopetition, third-party legitimation, participation fees, and evaluation of the concept, were developed. In the analysis, if data were unavailable, "not applicable" was recorded, indicating the need for further empirical analysis of the concepts.

First, websites of organisations and networks that employ such concepts and related press reports served as a source for the secondary data were analysed. Second, the results were used to create a table summarising the five categories as appropriate to identify talent management coopetition networks with their particular network structure. Third, secondary data was evaluated in terms of measurement validity and coverage (Saunders et al., 2023). Measurement validity was achieved through the focus on the websites of talent management coopetition networks and the coverage through consideration only of concepts engaged in talent management coopetition beyond shared employer branding. In addition to talent attraction, the network must have implemented at least one more measurement for attracting, retaining or developing talent within the talent management coopetition network.

Findings

The study revealed four talent management coopetition networks in Germany and Austria, which will be discussed in greater depth in the following section: Die Kaiserschaft, Nordseekollektiv, meerzukunft[3], Work for us and Der Fläming. Die Kaiserschaft (Oberweger, 2022; Prodinger Consulting & Tourimusverband WILDER KAISER, 2023) is an association of 16 businesses in the alpine region "Kitzbühel Alps" and "Wilder Kaiser" in Austria and was founded in 2018. The network is represented at the website hoteljobs.tirol (Prodinger Consulting & Tourimusverband WILDER KAISER, 2021a) and is operated by the marketing company Prodinger Consulting in close collaboration with the project leader of the tourism association related to the region. Talented employees working for one of the 26 coopetition partners benefit from various incentives, including free accommodation, a fixed set of day offs each week, a maximum of 40 working hours per week, and access to regional perks and discounts. The employment contracts are signed directly with the individual companies, and currently no fees are required from participating firms.

The participating companies are diverse, including accommodation providers, restaurants, leisure companies, and tourism associations. Although talent management is not the sole focus of the network, it is an integral component. Specifically, the network's objective is to establish sustainable tourism practices across the region, benefiting all stakeholders. Along with the project management leader, a feel-good manager has been employed to oversee the well-being of both companies and employees. Success metrics and opportunities for growth are measured through surveys and evaluations conducted in collaboration with universities (Prodinger Consulting & Tourimusverband WILDER KAISER, 2021b). Despite this, the level of coopetition is maintained at a minimum in this concept.

A concept with a higher focus on common talent management measures is meerzukunft[3]. Three firms in Bremerhaven, Germany, combined their resources, training and knowledge to offer vocational trainees a composite learning experience. The "ATLANTIC Hotel Sail City", boarding house "im-jaich" and "THE LIBERTY" offer their vocational training applicants the opportunity to complete their vocational training in three hotels with various concepts (Atlantic Hotel Sail City GmbH et al., 2023). The concept was established in 2023 and is currently addressed solely at trainees and students. Trainees apply for a vocational training position in one of the participating enterprises and select a specific hotel as their training base. From the second year onwards, trainees are able to switch to other hotels for one to two months to gain experience in different departments. Additional training sessions are available upon request at the cooperating hotels, with options to specialise in event management, bartending, various cuisines, and receptions depending on the apprenticeship. External trainers are also available to provide additional training to all trainees, contributing to the development of the new generation of workers. There is currently no information available on the possibility for other hotels to join the coopetition network, nor on how the costs associated with the exchange of trainees are divided among the participating hotels. The innovative and unique concept won the Tourism Award "Tourismus Preis Bremen, Bremerhaven 2022" and was recognised as a top employer with the Hospitality HR Award in 2022.

One of the oldest concepts, established in 2009 and 29 coopetition partners, Work for us (Karin Koenig- Gassner, 2023e) is a TMCN with over 1000 employees (Karin Koenig-Gassner, 2023d). Operating in the regions "Salzburger Land", "Kaprun" and "Zell am See", the TMCN is offering a set of benefits for its employees and the training academy "Skill Factory". The project was initiated and is managed until today by Karin König-Gassner. The Skill Factory offers training for all employees of the 29 participating firms and coaching for trainees and students around two to three times a year with emphasis on social skills, which are supported by a learning app (Karin Koenig-Gassner, 2023d). Furthermore, the TMCN sets up experience days for schools. Students are given the chance to gain practical exposure to different departments and professions within the hospitality industry. In the evenings, teachers and parents also participate in these activities, which helps to reinforce one of the talent pipelines for the region as a whole (Karin Koenig-Gassner, 2023b). Each employee receives a bonus card that entitles them and two accompanying persons to discounted breakfasts and dinners. The card also provides a 50% discount on regular room rates and can be used as proof of employment at any of the companies in the coopetition network. In addition, the card may also provide discounts at other businesses, such as retail stores or spas (Karin Koenig-Gassner, 2023a).

The TMCN consists exclusively of hotels located in nine different areas and villages in Austria, including Bad Gastein, Kaprun, Krimml, Leogang, Neukirchen, Rauris, Saalbach-Hinterglemm, Saalfelden, and Zell am See. The network also includes tourism associations, namely "Zell am See-Kaprun Tourismus", "Work for us", and "Saalfelden Leogang Touristik GmbH", as well as the marketing agency "MTS Austria"(Karin Koenig-Gassner, 2023c). Starting from 2009 with just a few partners under the name "Qualifizierungsverbund Tourismus Pinzgau", the initiative has continuously evolved and today includes 29 companies offering 1000 workplaces.

The most advanced TMCN is the Nordseekollektiv in St. Peter-Ording, located at the North Sea in Germany. The network, established in 2020, comprises three hotel and restaurant owners who own five hotels, bars, and restaurants in the area. Their aim is to improve the working conditions in St. Peter- Ording and to promote the advantages of working at the North Sea. Employees of the network have access to various perks, such as an app, apartments, cinema, sports facilities built by the employees themselves, transportation services, and a networking platform through the app. The network's website provides links to various outlets to get to know the participating enterprises. In addition, the Nordseekollektiv has a podcast that features episodes with different employees from the network (Nordseekollektiv GmbH, 2023d). The coopetition partners include the motel "St. Peter-Ording Beach Motel", hotels "Zweite Heimat Strandhotel" and "Strandgut Resort", restaurants "dii:ke" and "Die Insel", and the recently added hotel "URBAN NATURE" and apartment house "FEWOFLOW". Interested new partners can join by contacting the organisation through the website (Nordseekollektiv GmbH, 2023e). In addition, collaborations with various companies in different industries in the region are offered with discounts (Nordseekollektiv GmbH, 2023a). The network also provides a Crew House with 16 furnished apartments in close proximity to the work places, all-inclusive rent, and community spaces like a terrace and a big kitchen close to the beach and parking spots (Nordseekollektiv GmbH, 2023b).

Job applications can be submitted independently from the final workplace. The CEO of Nordseekollektiv is Diana-Nadine Brammann (Nordseekollektiv GmbH, 2023c). The network has won several awards, including the Hospitality HR Award, the Award for Innovation in Network from the Ministry of Work and Social Life Germany, and funding from the European Union's fund for regional development. One of the future projects of potential TMCN is the initiative Der Fläming in the German region Potsdam, Mittelmark und Teltow Fläming. In cooperation with the chamber of industry and commerce (IHK) Potsdam an employer branding campaign will be started next year. Daniel Sebastian Menzel, CEO at the tourism association Fläming e.V. in cooperation with marketing agency Saint Elmo´s in Munich commenced a study to strengthen the region as an employer in the future (Saint Elmo´s Germay GmbH & Co. KG, 2023). Whetherthe concept will be comparable to and applied as a TMCN has to be examined in the future. Other cooperation networks in Germany like for example "working family" (Industrie- und Handelskammer Trier, 2023) or "Team A" (Oberstdorf Event GmbH, 2023) are other platforms guiding potential employees through an overview of employers sharing similar values and missions in a particular area in the hospitality industry but not a shared talent pool. Therefore, they were not examined in detail in this paper.

Discussion and conclusions

The results reveal the presence of TMCN in German and Austrian SMEs. The findings suggest that these TMCN have been working very successfully in establishing sustainable talent pools for the participating organisations, which could thus serve as solution to the perennial talent woes many SMHES in the sector face. Thus, the findings propound that a more detailed investigation of the catalysts and inhibitors of such coopetition frameworks, as suggested by Jooss et al (2022) are needed. However, aside from readily available information about the geographical location, establishment date, the size of the network, objectives and the degree of coopetition, there remains a lack of knowledge of the process and knowledge needed to establishment a coopetition framework. For example, the entry requirements, the resources needed by participating SMHES before entering the network and the influence on the talent management systems of participating SMHEs remain unknown. Thus, additional empirical research is needed in that regard.

Although offers for employees are clearly emphasized, it remains unclear what the perceived benefits for employees are in their daily working life. Furthermore, there are no data available which consider the challenges and potential disadvantages experienced by participating partners or any other potential benefits for talents beyond the opportunities presented in publications. The secondary data analysis enabled the authors to identify the talent management coopetition networks existing in German and Austrian SMHEs. Although the criteria for the appropriate use of secondary data analysis were met, publicly available documents and reports were used to present the information and interpreted by the authors (Saunders et al., 2023).

Table 1. Talent management coopetition networks in Germany and Austria (secondary data analysis of particular TMCN websites and industry reports March 2023)

Talent Management Coopetition Network (TMCN)	*Die Kaiserschaft*	*Nordsee-kollektiv*	*meerzukunft* [3]	*Work for us*	*Der Fläming*
Geographic location	Austria, Alp region	Germany, St. Peter-Ording	Germany, Bremerhaven	Austria, Zell am See & Kaprun	Germany, Potsdam county
Establishment date	2018	2020	2022	2009	in development (started with marketing and research campaign in 2023)
Number of TMCN partner firms	16	5	3	29	n/a
Categorisation of TMCN partner	touristic firms (inter alia accommodation, restaurant, recreation companies)	hotels, restaurants and bars	hotels	hotels	touristic firms (inter alia accommodation, restaurant, recreation companies)
Number of employees of all partners of TMCN	n/a	n/a	n/a	Over 1000	n/a
Group of employees participating	all	all	vocational trainees and students	all	n/a
Objectives of TMCN	To develop sustainable tourism in the region including regional talent attraction and retention	To make St. Peter-Ording a better workplace; to show privilege to work at North Sea	To offer various vocational training for trainees	to strengthen different talent pipelines; to optimise the development trainings for employees	to make the region as touristic employer more popular and attractive
Degree of coopetition	low	high	mediocre	mediocre	n/a
Third-party legitimation	project leader of tourism organisation and feel-good-manager	project leader	No external legitimation	project leader	n/a
Fees for entering / participating in TMCN for employers	no fees	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a
Evaluation of the concept	through questionnaires in cooperation with universities	n/a	n/a	n/a	n/a

These interpretations may be subjective. For this research, only TMCNs operating in Germany and Austria, which could be determined via internet search and which met certain criteria were considered for analysis. The authors suggest purposive critical case single or multiple case studies to gain empirical evidence about the establishment and the processes in TMCN operationalised in interorganisational talent pools in SMHEs.

References

Atlantic Hotel Sail City GmbH, im-jaich oHG Yachthäfen und Wasserferienwelt, & Liberty Hotel GmbH. (2023). Komm an Bord! https://meerzukunfthochdrei.de/

BarNir, A., & Smith, K. A. (2002). Interfirm alliances in the small business: The role of social networks. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 40(3), 219–232.

Baum, T. (2019). Does the hospitality industry need or deserve talent? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 31(10), 3823–3837.

Baum, T., Mooney, S. K., Robinson, R. N., & Solnet, D. (2020). COVID-19's impact on the hospitality workforce – new crisis or amplification of the norm? *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 32(9), 2813–2829.

Beechler, S., & Woodward, I. C. (2009). The global "war for talent". *Journal of International Management*, 15(3), 273–285.

Bengtsson, M., & Raza-Ullah, T. (2016). A systematic review of research on coopetition: Toward a multilevel understanding. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 57, 23–39.

Bouncken, R. B., Fredrich, V., & Kraus, S. (2020). Configurations of firm-level value capture in coopetition. *Long Range Planning*, 53(1), 101869.

Brandenburger, A., & Nalebuff, B. (1996). *Co-opetition*. Doubleday.

Breier, M., Kallmuenzer, A., Clauss, T., Gast, J., Kraus, S., & Tiberius, V. (2021). The role of business model innovation in the hospitality industry during the COVID-19 crisis. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 92, 102723.

Burbach, R., & Brannon, D. W. (2021). Sustaining hospitality talent pools through a common pool resource lens. In S. Jooss, R. Burbach, & H. Ruel (Eds.), *Talent Management Series. Talent Management Innovations in the International Hospitality Industry* (pp. 53–78). Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Chang, C., & Eberhardt, K. (2020). A regional approach to attracting and retaining employees – a chance for small and medium-sized hotels? In M. A. Gardini, M. Ottenbacher, & M. Schuckert (Eds.), *Routledge Companions in Business, Management and Marketing* (pp. 401–422). Routledge.

Chim-Miki, A. F., & Batista-Canino, R. M. (2018). Development of a tourism coopetition model: A preliminary Delphi study. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 37, 78–88.

Chung, K. L., & D'Annunzio-Green, N. (2018). Talent management practices in small- and medium-sized enterprises in the hospitality sector: An entrepreneural owner-manager perspective. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 10(1), 101–116.

Collings, D., Vaiman, V., & Scullion, H. (2022). Talent Management: A Decade of Developments. In D. Collings, V. Vaiman, & H. Scullion (Eds.), *Talent Management: A Decade of Developments* (pp. 1–18). Emerald Publishing Limited.

Czakon, W., & Czernek, K. (2016). The role of trust-building mechanisms in entering into network coopetition: The case of tourism networks in Poland. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 57, 64–74.

The European Commission. (2023). SME definition. The European Commission. https://ec.europa.eu/growth/smes/sme-definition_de

Eurostat. (2020). Small- and medium-sized enterprises: An overview. https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/de/web/products-eurostat-news/-/ddn-20200514-1

Gallardo-Gallardo, E., & Thunnissen, M. (2016). Standing on the shoulders of giants? A critical review of empirical talent management research. *Employee Relations*, 38(1), 31–56.

Gnyawali, D. R., Madhavan, R., He, J [Jinyu], & Bengtsson, M. (2016). The competition–cooperation paradox in inter-firm relationships: A conceptual framework. *Industrial Marketing Management*, 53, 7–18.

Gnyawali, D. R., & Park, B.-J. (2009). Co-opetition and technological innovation in small and medium-sized enterprises: a multilevel conceptual model. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 47(3), 308–330.
Harney, B. (2021). Accommodating HRM in small and sedium-sized enterprises (SMEs): A critical review. *Economic and Business Review*, 23(2), 72–85.
Harney, B., & Alkhalaf, H. (2021). A quarter-century review of HRM in small and medium-sized enterprises: Capturing what we know, exploring where we need to go. *Human Resource Management*, 60(1), 5–29.
Harney, B., Gilman, M., Mayson, S., & Raby, S. (2022). Advancing understanding of HRM in small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs): critical questions and future prospects. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 33(16), 3175–3196.
He, J [Jie], Mao, Y., Morrison, A. M., & Coca-Stefaniak, J. A. (2021). On being warm and friendly: The effect of socially responsible human resource management on employee fears of the threats of COVID-19. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 33(1), 346–366.
Industrie- und Handelskammer Trier. (2023). working family. Arbeitgeber mit Persönlichkeit. https://www.working-family.de/
International Labour Organization (Ed.). (2023). Hotels, catering and tourism sector. https://www.ilo.org/global/industries-and-sectors/hotels-catering-tourism/lang--en/index.htm
Jooss, S., Burbach, R., & Ruël, H. (2021). Examining talent pools as a core talent management practice in multinational corporations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 32(11), 2321–2352.
Jooss, S., Lenz, J., & Burbach, R. (2022). Beyond competing for talent: an integrative framework for coopetition in talent management in SMEs. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*. Advance online publication.
Kallmuenzer, A., Zach, F. J., Wachter, T., Kraus, S., & Salner, P. (2021). Antecedents of coopetition in small and medium-sized hospitality firms. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 99.
Karin Koenig-Gassner (Ed.). (2023a). Work for us im Tourimus: Bonus Card - Vergünstigungen. https://www.workforus.at/ueber-uns/bonuscard/
Karin Koenig-Gassner (Ed.). (2023b). Work for us im Tourimus: Lehrlingstage & Schulprojekte. https://www.workforus.at/ueber-uns/lehrlingstage/
Karin Koenig-Gassner (Ed.). (2023c). Work for us im Tourimus: Mitgliedsbetriebe und Standorte. https://www.workforus.at/mitglieder/?kat=hotel
Karin Koenig-Gassner (Ed.). (2023d). Work for us im Tourimus: Skill Factory. https://www.workforus.at/ueber-uns/skill-factory/
Karin Koenig-Gassner (Ed.). (2023e). Work for us im Tourismus. https://www.workforus.at/ Klimas, P., Ahmadian, A. A., Soltani, M., Shahbazi, M., & Hamidizadeh, A. (2023). Coopetition, where do you come from? Identification, categorization, and configuration of theoretical roots of coopetition. *SAGE Open*, 13(1).
Kraus, S., Klimas, P., Gast, J., & Stephan, T. (2019). Sleeping with competitors. *International Journal of Entrepreneurial Behavior & Research*, 25(1), 50–66.
Kravariti, F., Oruh, E. S., Dibia, C., Tasoulis, K., Scullion, H., & Mamman, A. (2021). Weathering the storm: talent management in internationally oriented Greek small and medium-sized enterprises. Journal of Organizational Effectiveness: *People and Performance*, 8(4), 444–463.
Kravariti, F., Voutsina, K., Tasoulis, K., Dibia, C., & Johnston, K. (2022). Talent management in hospitality and tourism: a systematic literature review and research agenda. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 34(1), 321–360.
Le Roy, F., Chiambaretto, P., & Fernandez, A.-S. (2018). From strategizing coopetition to managing coopetition. In A.-S. Fernandez, F. Le Roy, P. Chiambaretto, & W. Czakon (Eds.) *The Routledge companion to coopetition strategies* (pp. 36–46). Routledge.
McDonnell, A., Collings, D., Mellahi, K., & Schuler, R. (2017). Talent management: a systematic review and future prospects. *European Journal of International Management*, 11(1), Article 81253, 86–128.
Nordseekollektiv GmbH. (2023a). Benefits. https://www.nordsee-kollektiv.de/das-kollektiv/benefits/ Nordseekollektiv GmbH. (2023b). Crew House. https://www.nordsee-kollektiv.de/das-kollektiv/crew-house/
Nordseekollektiv GmbH. (2023c). Deine Reise beginnt hier. https://jobs.nordsee-kollektiv.de/ Nordseekollektiv GmbH. (2023d). Meer als ein Job. https://www.nordsee-kollektiv.de/ Nordseekollektiv GmbH. (2023e). Partner. https://www.nordsee-kollektiv.de/partner/

Oberstdorf Event GmbH. (2023). Team A. Komm ins Team, komm in die Alpen. https://www.team-alpen.com/

Oberweger, K. (2022). Die Kaiserschaft - Mitarbeiter:innen - Bindung durch regionales Employer Branding. Österreichische Hoteliervereinigung. https://www.oehv.at/themen-recht/arbeit-fachkraefte/mitarbeiter-bindung-am-beispiel-kaiserschaft/

Prodinger Consulting, & Tourimusverband WILDER KAISER (Eds.). (2021a). Hoteljob.tirol: Die besten Gastro- und Hoteljobs in Tirol. https://www.hoteljob.tirol/

Prodinger Consulting, & Tourimusverband WILDER KAISER (Eds.). (2021b). Hoteljob.tirol: Partner werden. https://www.hoteljob.tirol/de/partner-werden.html

Prodinger Consulting, & Tourimusverband WILDER KAISER. (2023). Die Kaiserschaft: Touristische Musketiere für den Wilden Kaiser. https://www.hoteljob.tirol/de/arbeitgeber.html

Saint Elmo´s Germay GmbH & Co. KG. (2023). Saint elmo´s tourismusmarketing: About us. https://www.saint-elmos.com/tourismusmarketing

Saunders, M., Lewis, P., & Thornhill, A. (2023). *Research methods for business students* (9th ed.). Pearson Education Limited.

Vaiman, V., Cascio, W. F., Collings, D., & Swider, B. W. (2021). The shifting boundaries of talent management. *Human Resource Management*, 60(2), 253–257.

Valverde, M., Scullion, H., & Ryan, G. (2013). Talent management in Spanish medium-sized organisations. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 24(9), 1832–1852.

van den Broek, J., Boselie, P., & Paauwe, J. (2018). Cooperative innovation through a talent management pool: A qualitative study on coopetition in healthcare. *European Management Journal*, 36(1), 135–144.

4.6. Re-imaging Irish food and beverage operations post covid-19

Detta M. Melia | Technological University Dublin, Ireland

Abstract

The outbreak and spread of Covid-19 have had a devastating impact on the tourism industry in Ireland and across the world. The hospitality sector, in particular the food and beverage sector has proved it is resilient, resourceful, and ready to thrive in the future. This paper will evaluate the literature on the impacts of Covid-19 and provide some concepts that can be adapted by food and beverage operators in Ireland and internationally on changes post Covid-19, changes that may influence and help operators survive and improve and meet the challenges of the industry. Elements of ethnographical analysis was carried out. Operational concepts were identified that were considered to be of benefit to food and beverage operations. In addition, the need to consider sustainability and in-house training programmes are recommendations for food and beverage operators and the limitations of the research are highlighted.

Keywords: Operational concepts; Food and Beverage Operations; Post-covid-19; Reimaging

Introduction and context

This paper will report on some initiatives for Irish food and beverage operations post Covid-19. The paper provides examples of concepts to use to help benefit operations and their businesses to meet the challenges of the industry going forward. The paper looks at the literature for an understanding of what food and beverage operations are doing post Covid-19 and presents a snapshot of a number of initiatives in the sector in Ireland through ethnographical research.

Tourism has proven to be a vital industry in Ireland that sustains communities and drives regional development in a manner that other sectors cannot match (Failte Ireland, 2023). One of the major attractions of travel has always been the exposure to the various components that makes up the accommodation and provides the entertainment. Food, beverage, accommodation, leisure centres, spas and architecture are all elements of what is broadly called the 'hotel' (Melia & Hackett, 2012). According to an OECD (2012) study, food and tourism play a major part in the contemporary experience economy. Food is a key part of all cultures, a major element of global intangible heritage and an increasingly important attraction for tourists (OECD, 2021). The link between food and tourism also provides a platform for local economic development and food experiences, helps to brand and market destinations, as well as supporting the local culture that is so attractive for tourist (Conway, Hussey & Melia, 2022). According to Bord Bia (2022) there are nine critical factors that will shape the future of food service in Ireland and they include: energy prices, inflationary pressures, an unsettled workforce, labour shortages, new consumer behaviours, tourism and economic growth, menu tensions, consumers feeling the pressures, and sustainability.

Apart from its economic value, tourism also plays an important role in promoting Ireland's image abroad, generating a positive impression of Irish people, our landscape and culture for our visitors (Sinead Eireann Debate, 2022). The tourism landscape has changed drastically in the past two years. The outbreak and spread of Covid-19 have had a devastating impact on the tourism industry in Ireland and across the world (Failte Ireland, 2023). The pandemic struck Irish tourism towards the end of the first quarter of 2020 by which stage only 10% to 15% of annual overseas spending would have accrued. After the first quarter, there was a collapse in overseas travel and the OECD estimates that international tourism worldwide fell by 80% overall that year. (OECD 2021; Sinead Eireann Debate, 2022; Failte Ireland, 2023).

Failte Ireland (2023) have highlighted that 68% of businesses have had more visitors in 2022 compared to 2021, and 11% have had the same level; while 21% report that their visitor numbers are down. The highest proportions reporting to be up on last year are found among the following, Dublin businesses (91%), tour / coach operators and DMCs (89%) and hotels and guesthouses (88%). According to the research (Failte Ireland 2023), the domestic market remains key. The domestic market became much more prominent during times of international travel restrictions, and it has remained important in 2023. The North American market is returning faster with its strong dollar (Failte Ireland, 2023).

Following the massive decline in 2019, driven by Covid 19 restrictions, the food service industry in Ireland has been on the rebound. In 2021, the food service industry on the Island of Ireland grew by 24.1% and in 2022; they grew by 61% to a value of 8.2 billion across the republic of Ireland and Northern Ireland. (Technomic, 2022). This growth is because of pent-up demand as Covid-19 restrictions were lifted (Bord Bia, 2022). However, the industry faces significant challenges, which include food inflation, wage inflation and energy and other inflation and cost of living increases. These include margin compressions and the war in Ukraine (Technomic, 2022; Bord Bia 2022). So, what does the future hold?

The Irish food and beverage market is diverse and significant to the exchequer. Tourism itself is one of the two biggest indigenous industries along with the Agri-business / farming. Ireland has an exceptional Agri base for good, sought-after products and a tourism base that is already well developed (Conway, Hussey & Melia, 2022). A number of key initiatives both small and more strategic-focused will determine that success. According to Smith (2022) Ireland has responded quickly with more interest in healthy products and services.

The industry now faces a challenge of innovation and survival as businesses grapple with a new reality and do everything they can to support their own staff members and reassure their customer base. The hospitality sector, in particular the food and beverage sector has proved that it is resilient, resourceful, and ready to thrive in the future. Covid-19 has also brought about opportunities for enhanced performance and new ways of working for the sector (Grant Thornton, 2021). The key is not to stay stagnant in everyday operations and adapt to new trends that matter to customers. What a restaurant does next is what will really determine its success.

Literature review

This section examines the literature in the food and beverage sector since the Covid-19 pandemic which suggests that there is a different perspective on the sector which has changed the landscape completely. Customers will need reassurance about personal safety and food hygiene where transparent communication about safety standards can boost sales (Williams, 2021; Bord Bia, 2022). Consumers are still wary of eating out in confined spaces, therefore, operators need to assure consumers that cleaning, sanitising, table layouts, and trained staff are in place to increase footfall. This will go a long way in reassuring customers, building up their confidence in an operation, which can directly affect customer loyalty and repeat business (Bord Bia, 2022; Lee & Ham, 2021). It would appear from the research that consumers are glad to be back eating out and socialising again but many are noticing the rising costs of eating out and getting more take-out food (Bord Bia, 2022). However, with eating out, informality, variances, and value for money being consumer drivers, there are more dietary options available which include potato milk, kombucha, keto diets and plant-based dishes (Bord Bia, 2022). Reto appears to be popular; the traditional with a modern twist (Bord Bia, 2022).

The literature suggests that consumers trends which include time, health, tradition and obesity are of interest (Bord Bia, 2022). The need to be aware that there are issues in terms of customer choice in particular to unhealthy food and obesity as social media highlights the issues. A move away from unhealthy food, food high in salts, sugars and fats are being replaced by healthy options that make consumers feel comfortable when eating out (Conway, Hussey & Melia, 2022; Williams, 2021; Norris, Taylor & Taylor, 202; Bord Bia, 2022, Failte Ireland, 2023; Nielsen IQ, 2022). In addition, according to Bord Bia (2022) value creation trends, early bird, mid-week offers are key to attracting consumers to an operation. The priorities that have been highlighted are that consumers want great meal deals and offers (70%), that they are more likely to choose a low-cost option (66%) and that there are lots of options to choose from 63%. In addition, the increase of drive through, on-line ordering and pick up, which reduces the need for human contact, has grown exponentially with these operators increasing business to the detriment of the traditional operator (Lee and Ham, 2021; Williams, 2020).

According to O'Conghaile (2023), the key is not to stay stagnant in everyday operations but adapt to new trends that matter to customers. The impact of reviews – one bad one and the whole world knows and there is nothing you can do about it, therefore, do not let it happen as poor reviews impact negatively on consumers. Innovative practices saw food and beverage operations become more creative and innovative with the driving force to think outside the box in order to survive and create different revenue streams (Norris, Taylor & Taylor, 2021).

Food and beverage operators did get out of their comfort zone and did embrace the changes to their business outlets with creativity and innovation that caught the attention of staff, customers, newspapers and social media (Failte Ireland, 2023). The advances in technology has aided the Irish market to adapt facilitating pick-up options and home delivery (Out of Home Eating National Survey, 2022). This has enabled fine dining operations to join the market of eating in and dining at home which has allowed these operations to turn their offerings around to service a different market base (Williams, 2021). This has allowed consumer convenience by allowing people to enjoy restaurant quality meals at home, providing benefits to the operation where a reduced number of staff are required (Out of Home Eating National Survey, 2022).

In terms of demographics it would appear that 35-54-year olds will spend more but 25- 34-year olds spend more time in restaurants. These re-emerging socialisers are more likely to be ABC1 adults aged 45+ in the post family lifestyle (Bord Bia, 2022) with food service champions being the ABC1 adults aged under 45 in the pre and young family lifestyle living in Dublin (Bord Bia, 2022). Families tend not to overspend on eating out; they will pay more in one go but go out less frequently. However, on-line ordering and delivery with on-line platforms have provided more accessibility to restaurant-quality food at home (Norris, Taylor & Taylor, 2021). Price rises are happening with menus themselves shrinking (Williams, 2021). There is also a trend of flavours less travelled which meets with consumers responsibilities and sustainability. Live fire cooking is rising in popularity along with drinks with less alcohol bearing in mind that non-alcoholic drinks when eating out has risen by over 9%.

Education levels have an impact when eating out, the fact that 3rd level consumers have a better education, therefore, have better paying jobs and eating out is part of the social demographic of those 3rd level educated. Introducing home economics at a very early stage in schools so that people learn to feed themselves and reduce waste is considered (O'Conghaile, 2023). Health and wellness have seen its own growth where the hotel is the holiday destination providing unique innovative products and infrastructure for the consumer to spend their full break in the one destination (Melia & Hackett, 2012). In addition, the growth of resort hotels offering specialist packages has added to the business models of health and wellness (Corrigan, Conway & Melia, 2021).

Food traceability is a big draw to some establishments where consumers know where the food comes from, and supporting local encourages consumers to stay local when eating out (Food Safety Authority of Ireland, 2023). Local produce – not just 100% Irish, name the farmer and the vegetable producers ensures the authenticity of the dishes and provides support from local producers. These collaborations are developing more and more because of the need to communicate with competitors and suppliers developed thought 2020 and 2021 (Norris, Taylor & Taylor, 2021). Climate impact labels are making an appearance where the dish you choose comes with information on what impact the dish has on the climate (Horton, 2020), how much water is used to produce the dish, where ingredients in the dish travelled from? The main focus here will be on beef as it takes more to produce beef than any other protein, thus pushing the sustainability argument. Consumer dietary trends limitations and opportunities, the need to be aware, therefore, that not all operations can answer all consumer requirements and trends / fads. Locally sourced alcoholic such as vodka, gins, beers and whiskeys, to go cocktails, beers and wines and the growing non-alcoholic trends has seen growth that will not change drastically (Norris, Taylor & Taylor, 2021). The difficulty is to get people to embrace the concept of sustainability when eating out or travelling which will always remain a challenge for the sector (O'Conghaile, 2023).

The literature suggests that flexibility is important where operators believe that they have to be flexible with their offerings and their opening times, however, with the shortages of staff, the ability to be flexible is proving very difficult to follow through (Failte Ireland, 2023). Operators managing their own ability to run the business by limiting the number of tables seated at any one time so that the kitchens can cope with the shortage of staff. One operator in Dublin which is a classic styled restaurant with an open kitchen, allows two to three tables of four or less to be seated at the same time with half hour breaks in seating the next tables so that service is pleasant, efficient and so that staff can cope. Generally, there is plenty creativity and choices for those consumers who are experimental with their food as the choices are unlimited. Meal kits have taken over as another opportunity for consumers as covid-19 gave people back the opportunity to be more creative cooking at home (Ham & Lee, 2021). Removing and modifying touch- points, rethinking restaurant spaces and rooms, gaining clean certification for food safety are suggested by Awasthi and Awasthi (2021).

Technology will play a crucial part in the future-proof restaurant with the acceleration of food tech, robotics and artificial intelligence (Lee & Ham, 2021; Linder, 2021; Heather, 2020; Lee, 2020). Technology is also playing a strong role in terms of customer service, systems to drive back of house and administration is leaving some time for customer front facing services despite the shortage of staff. Automation is also playing a role where the speed of production has lent the operator the ability to use automation and or buying in prepared / with the growth of ghost kitchens, what was once knows as production kitchens (Williams, 2021; Norris, Taylor & Taylor, 202; Bord Bia, 2022; Failte Ireland, 2023; Nielsen IQ, 2022).

As highlighted by the literature research covid-19 had a dramatic impact on the eating out worldwide, more dining has shifted to on-line ordering and delivery. Big restaurant chains are thriving over small family owner operations, fine dining is proving to be expensive and a less travelled choice for eating out. Menus are being rethought and re-engineered (Williams. 2021) with seating spaces reorganised and socially distanced seating (Williams, 2021) and the communal or sharing tables with strangers is being phased out. Technology that minimises interactions is moving into the industry at speeds not considered before covid-19. There is a recognition in the sector that post covid-19 there is a new normal (Lee & Ham, 2021) and that take-out and entertaining at home is on the rise generally stemming from this development during Covid lockdown (Bord Bia, 2022).

Research methodology

Since an analysis of all the food and beverage operators worldwide or Ireland was not possible, the methodology used for this paper began with some exploratory research in the form of a literature review. Following this, some elements of ethnography (Getz, 2012) was carried out using a number of key headings to focus the research. The focus was on Ireland with a particular emphasis on firstly scanning for operational concepts and ideas, that were being used to manage operations to meet the needs of re-imaging operations post covid-19 based on the literature review.

Findings

Following a scan of some of the food and beverage operations in Ireland, one of the concepts that has grown is outdoor dining, something that before Covid-19 would not have been seen. During Covid lockdown operators had to reconsider their offerings and serving food and drink outdoors was the only option to remaining open. This led to the growth of a myriad of vans, caravans, trucks, train carriages, busses, farm trucks, station wagons, forty-foot containers, sheds, cabins, lodges turned into street food operators, everything from Asian, pancakes, steak sandwiches, coffee al fresco, cake stands, sandwich bar, BBQ, grills, hot dogs, pop-up markets, WOK stations and others opening on footpaths, beaches, parks and carparks. The pre-packages gourmet take-out meals have grown and taken substantial market share from sit-in operations which concurs with the research of Failte Ireland (2023) and of Norris, Taylor and Taylor (2021) and has shown a growth of people cooking at home (Williams, 2020).

A number of food concepts have assisted the sector in Ireland and include the growth of chicken sandwich bars, charcutier boards for individuals, comfort food, flatbreads and healthy wraps, menu streamlining – smaller menus, Sriracha (hot sauce) variations, globally inspired salads, zero waste and sustainability and the growth of Southeast Asian flavours (e.g., Singapore /Vietnam). One example case study includes the farm to fork strategy and the sustainable food system employed by the Donkey Shed Restaurant in County Meath (2023). Fresh products come from the farm, and any waste food goes back to the farm to feed the animals as part of their monitored nutritional diet. This concurs with the literature research of Conway, Hussey and Melia (2022), Williams (2021), Norris, Taylor and Taylor (2022), Bord Bia (2022), Failte Ireland (2023) and Nielsen IQ (2022).

Research from the Food, Retail and Hospitality Expo 2022 at their workshops for the Irish Food and Beverage sector along with Williams (2021), Norris, Taylor and Taylor (2022), Bord Bia (2020), Failte Ireland (2023) and Nielsen IQ (2022) have highlighted a number of key initiatives that will assist the Food and Beverage Operations sector and are presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Key initiatives to assist food and beverage operators

• Using light to disinfect surfaces • Magnetic fuel conditioning to lower gas costs Revitalising water system (Grander Wasser) • Reimaging food waste such as peelings to be used to make chutneys, coffee grounds to be used in brownie recipes. • Technology to track waste • Using see through bins at each chef station to watch waste • Explain food waste in terms of meals wasted instead of costs (400 meals as opposed to €200 in costs) • Scaling of operations through menu engineering, digitalisation, managing risk (highest risk is product quality) and training in-house because of the global shortage of staff • Nano-grease to provide longevity to equipment is use Menu engineering is key to staying in the game. • Smaller menus save costs and are easier to execute. • Limiting / new / rotating menu items along with a reduced workforce has prompted a re-think on menus and menu items • Dietary-focused menus Lean menus • A variety of menu options appealing to a wider dietary based consumer • A restaurant's ability to train unskilled workers quickly and efficiently has become a competitive advantage as turnover of staff is at an all-time high

Recommendations

This paper considered the literature and the ethnographical research carried out and has highlighted that there are clear initiatives that food and beverage operators embraced in re-imagining their business in Ireland post Covid-19. It is recommended that sustainability is important with the need for further education and development on the subject. Food and beverage operators are using quality products to produce healthier dining experiences that are more sustainable. Appropriate education at an early age will educate people on sustainability, therefore, food and beverage operators will be dealing with consumers who are culinary literate and have the choice of dining out in those organisations that are sustainable and not just saying it. Sustainability is discussed worldwide but the practice needs to follow through. However, the difficulty is to get people to embrace the concept of sustainability when eating out or travelling which will always remain a challenge for the sector which agrees with the literature of O'Conghaile (2023). Food waste management appears to be a focus that operators need to manage to reduce their cost base.

Trends that were highlighted in the research include dietary-focused menus, lean menus and a variety of menu options appealing to a wider dietary based consumer. Many operators are demonstrating agility and are adapting to the needs of the consumers but they need to manage the offerings so that there is a profit at the end of the day. Operators need to consider their market segments and focus on those segments. Trying to be all things to all consumers is not going to work. It is recommended that in order to be able to manage the issue of staff shortages in the sector, operators are looking at opening times, can cut back on earlier in the week openings and limiting their customer numbers by scheduling consumers booking to a particular time and duration and only taking a small number at any one time with half hour intervals for seating.

One area that did not appear to be highlighted in the research was the need for training in-house. This is an opportunity for all food and beverage operators to train staff. If an organisation cannot afford to hire a trainer then make sure that staff are trained trainers. Indeed, the whole gambit of staff shortages and the need to be innovative in terms of staff retention was not addressed by this research, which makes it a key research stream post Covid-19. Staying local is what consumers want, buying local will encourage consumer to become repeat business buyers and will support the operator if the operator is supporting local. Value for money, meal deals with the cost of living crisis is one of the areas the consumer will focus on and operators need to provide that value.

Food and beverage operators struggle to keep ahead of the curve but in order to survive there is a need to improve in re-imaging its operations to take advantage of what is happening worldwide and consider them opportunities for growth. The industry did raise to the challenge and did think outside the box to reengineer operations to meet the challenges of lockdown. That will continue for the benefit of the sector. There is also a need for the impact a forced change can make on the sector and the need for universities and hospitality lecturers to continuously carry out research in the sector to inform industry and students.

Limitations and future research

This research was based on scanning a small number of Irish food and beverage operations to identify operational concepts that helped them re-imagine their operations during a very difficult time. The possibility of focusing on a short number of case studies was considered limiting for this paper. The focus will now be on looking at case studies that have emerged successful and inform the sector going forward. The limitations are clear that additional research from a myriad of streams is necessary to get a picture of the sector post Covid-19. There are many opportunities for further research. Numerous research streams have been highlighted in the research that can focus on future trends to glean a more in-depth analysis of the developments in operations. The possibility of analysing new concepts and cases of re-imagined food and beverage operations is necessary.

References

Awasthi, A., & Awasthi, S. (2021). Post Covid-19: Hospitality and F and B Operations Adapting to a new Reality. 5th International Conference i-Host. "New Normal in Hospitality and Tourism: Skills, Innovation and Technology. Eureka Publication.

Bord Bia (2022). *Irish Food Service Sector Report*. Bord Bia. Dublin. November.

Conway, A. T., Hussey, J., & Melia, D. M. (2022). Food Tourism from Food Tourism: Cases from Food Tourism Providers' Networks. EuroCHRIE conference Paper. Appledorn. 2022.

Corrigan, L., Conway, A. T., & Melia, D. M. (2021). The Growth and Development of Resort Hotels in Ireland. EuroCHRIE Conference. October 2021

Failte Ireland (2022). Industry Report (2022). Failte Ireland. Dublin Failte Ireland (2023). Industry Report (2023). Failte Ireland. Dublin Food, Retail and Hospitality Expo. (2022) Seminar. Dublin 2022.

Getz, D. (2012). Finding and Sustaining Competitive advantages in Event Tourism. International Conference on Tourism and Events: Opportunities, Impacts and Change. University of Ulster, Belfast. June.

Grant Thornton Ireland (2021). Covid-19 Impact on the Food Industry in Ireland. Grant Thornton, Dublin Ireland.

Heather, B. (2020). DaVinci Kitchen is building a robotic pasta-making Kiosk. Verizon Media. 2020. Sept 15.

Horton, H. (2022, December 22). Climate Impact Labels could help People to eat less Red Meat. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from: https://www.theguardian.com/environment/2022/dec/27/climate-impact-labels-could-help-people-eat-less-red-meat

Lee, J. (2020, July 12). Food Tech. Following by lounge X Café and Hand-Drip Bar. A Drive-Through Store. *Food News*. Retrieved from: https://www.foodnews.news/mobile/article.html?no=123357

Lee, S., & Ham, S. (2021). Food Service Industry in the era of Covid-19: Trends and Research Implications. *Nutrition Research and Practice*, 15(1), 22-31. Retrieved from: https.//www.ncbi.nlm.gov/pmc/articles/PMC8636391

Linder, C. A. (2020, July 26). A Robot might Cook your next White Castle Burger. *Popular Mechanics*. Retrieved from: https://www.popularmechanics.com/technology/robots/a33314615/white-castle-fry-cook-robot-flippy-miso-robotics/

Melia, D. M., & Hackett. G. (2012). The Hotel as the Stay Destination. EuroCHRIE conference Dubrovnik. Croatia.

Nielsen IQ (2022). http://nielseniq.com/global/en/insights/analysis/2022/top/7food-and-beverage-industry-trends-2022/

Norris, C. L., Taylor, S., & Taylor D. C. (2021). Pivot: How the Restaurant Industry adapted During Covid-19 Restrictions. *International Hospitality Review*, 35(2), 132-155.

O'Conghaile, P. (2023, January 28). Tackling the "Stay - Go Gap" when we Travel. *Irish Independent Weekender*. Dublin.

Out of Home Eating National Survey (2022). Combined Quantitative and Qualitative Report.

Failte Ireland. Irish Tourism Trade Support / National Tourism Development Authority. Retrieved from: https://failteireland.ie/

Seanad Eireann Debate April (2022). Seanad Eireann Report. Vol 284: No 4. Dublin.

Smith, L. (2022). Irelands on Premises. Six Big Trends to Track. CGA. http://cgastrategy.com/irelands-on-premises-six-big-trends-to-track/

The Donkey Shed Restaurant (2023). www.thedonkeyshedrestaurant.ie Accessed 26th of February 2023.

Williams, C. (2020). How Hotel F&B Pivoted in Response to Covid-19 and what the Future Holds. HVS. New York.

TRACK 5 – Urban Realities

5.1. Overview of Macedonian legal requirements for providing accessible tourism services and facilities

Risto Rechkoski | University St.Kliment Ohridski-Bitola, North Macedonia

Abstract

This paper will be focused on many relevant documents that are in relation to the universal accessibility of people, in different levels and different aspects. Accessibility of tourism services and facilities is one of the key aspects of modern time and research in tourism and hospitality. Methodologically, the based approach is to analyze significant documents, beginning on higher world level, from the most important organization in the world – United Nations and its different organizations and bodies, its commitment to the topic, then on continentally-European level, different instruments of the EU, then, the most important ISO standards that are related to the accessibility in tourism, and the last but not least, on Macedonian level, where much of these standards are accepted and some of them implemented, but more should be done in the future.

Keywords: Accessible tourism; Legal requirements; Standards; Implementation

Introduction

Initial findings for the researching of the paper targets, are many relevant documents, collected in relation to the universal accessibility of people, in different levels and different aspects. Methodologically, the approach was based to analyze significant documents beginning on highest world level, from the most important organization in the world– United Nations-UN, and its different organizations and bodies, mainly World Tourism Organization-WTO, and its commitment to the topic, then on continentally, European level, different instruments of the European Union-EU and Council of Europe, then, the most important ISO standards that are related to the accessibility in tourism, and the last but not least, on Macedonian level, where much of these standards are accepted and some of them implemented, but more should be done in the future.

The focus was placed on different significant legal documents and instruments regarding accessibility measures in tourist facilities, which are undertaken on different levels. The target groups, which can use the findings, conclusions and recommendation of the paper, are Managers of tourist facilities-hotels, restaurants, museums, cultural facilities, sport facilities, tourist sites, Tourist agencies, Tour operators, National and local authorities responsible for development of tourism and for social welfare of persons with disabilities, Organizations and associations of persons with disabilities. As in the past, different authors mentioned (Gillovic & McIntosh, 2020) that accessibility like sustainability, is a contemporary tourism issue (Darcy & Buhalis, 2011). In its broadest sense, accessibility ensures the development of products and services that allow everyone to use and get benefit from them. Good example is universal design principles, which enable usability by people with disabilities without the need for adaptation. It is important to underline that accessibility and tourism to match in the broader sustainability agenda, as well as the need for inclusion in tourism (Biddulph & Scheyvens, 2018).

Concept of the paper

Regarding the process of collecting data, and its progress, it should be stated that it was done using wide range of theoretical desk research, statistical data, different internet references, and this process was not easy at all, because there are lot of documents relating to this issue, but the dexterity is to find, correlate and analyze of the most important and significant documents and references on different levels, and connected in one logical and useful framework. The research question of the paper is in which manner Macedonian legislation for accessibility in tourism is in with relation of global world legislation of this field, and how is implemented in the practice. There were some surveys done as research in Macedonia for implementing these accessibility regulation and standards.
The most significant documents which were used and analyzed during preparation of the paper were divided in four levels, i.e. Global level, European level, Standards, and Macedonian level.

The World system of accessibility assurance, presented through documents of the UN and its specialized organizations. For this purpose, the relevant documents and different Recommendations on Accessible Tourism from WTO were analyzed. Among all, the main relevant and basic document on global level for accessibility in tourism is: UN Convention on the rights of persons with disabilities and Optional Protocol, adopted in New York on 13th December 2006, and in the new times, The UN Agenda 2030, adopted by UN.

European system of accessibility assurance is presented through many significant documents, beginning with different conventions passed by Council of Europe, to Directives and Acts from European Commission and Parliament. The main focus is placed on European Accessibility Act, adopted in 2019, and the other Strategy-Union of Equality: Strategy for the Rights of Persons with Disabilities EU (2021-2030)
There are several relevant ISO Standards related to the accessibility, from which the newest is ISO 21902:2021, Tourism and related services-Accessible tourism for all-Requirements and recommendations (2021). And the fourth level is the comprehensive Macedonian legislation in the field of accessibility and relevant regulations for accessibility in tourism. It is consisted of different documents and legal acts with different hierarchy, from constitutional, laws, bylaws, to strategies, reports and plans.

According to the legal hierarchy, that starts with analyze of Macedonian constitutional provisions and relation to accessibility. Then National Strategy for equalization of the rights of persons with disabilities 2010-2018 is analyzed. Concluding remarks on the initial report of the Republic of Macedonia, UN Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities, 2018, was covered, and in relation with that, the main provisions from Annual Report on the Work of the Macedonian National Coordinating Body for the Implementation of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities for 2019 were processed and Action plan for implementation of the measures of the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities for 2021, and several laws and related bylaws.

Results

The data analysis has led to the following findings:

Importance of accessible tourism

The importance of tourism as a branch of the economy at the micro and macro level is significant. The concept of "accessible tourism" and concept of "Tourism for all" should be developed. Global crises arisen nowadays, caused by various factors-a global pandemic caused by COVID19, economic crises, and even global military threats, are all reasons for the world to look for ways to overcome them. Tourism is a great opportunity for that.

Relevant data indicate the great power for the development of the segment of the tourism market for people with disabilities (Statista data):

- 1 billion people live with some form of disability, which is almost 13% of the world's population.
- By 2050, globally, 17% will be over 65 years old, and in Europe and North America 25% will be over 65 years old. (https://www.who.int/health-topics/ageing#tab=tab_1)
- More than 46% of the elderly, over 60, already have a disability.
- More than 250 million older people have moderate to severe disabilities.
- Passengers with disabilities tend to travel accompanied by 2 to 3 people.
- The potential market for people with disabilities in the EU is more than 80 million people, i.e. 130 million, the elderly citizens and their associates are added, which is really a great, huge potential for the development of tourism in general, and tourism in particular such persons.
- 70% of people with disabilities in the EU have the financial and physical ability to travel, which is a huge potential, unlike other parts of the world.

UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities

From the international documents, the most important document is the UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities from 2006 (https://social.desa.un.org/issues/disability/crpd/convention-on-the-rights-of-persons-with-disabilities-crpd), which emphasizes the importance of integrating disability issues into regular processes as an integral part of relevant sustainable development strategies. It reaffirms the position that discrimination against any person on the basis of disability, and a violation of the inherent dignity and worth of human beings, that promoting the full enjoyment of the human rights and fundamental freedoms of persons with disabilities and their full participation will contribute to their increased sense of existence. Accessibility is one of the eight basic principles of the Convention, which requires everyone to take appropriate measures to develop, disseminate and monitor the implementation of minimum standards and guidelines for accessibility of facilities and services open or provided to the public.

UN Agenda 2030

The UN Agenda 2030 is an agenda for global action and was adopted with a Resolution of the UN General Assembly in 2015. It promotes 17 main goals for sustainable development, developed through 169 sub-goals and measures, which demonstrate the scale and ambitions of this new universal agenda. The goals are integrated and indivisible and balance the 3 dimensions of sustainable development: economic, social and environmental. There can be no sustainable development without peace and there can be no peace without sustainable development. UN member-states want to create the conditions for sustainable, inclusive and sustainable economic growth, mutual prosperity and decent work for all, taking into account the different levels of national development and capacities. This means that providing the conditions for all people equally, including people with disabilities for their inclusion in all spheres, and of course in tourism and its related branches.

EU Policy Documents

On European field in terms of accessibility, the most important documents are: EU Directive on accessibility requirements for products and services, i.e. European Accessibility Act, adopted in 2019 and the EU Strategy for Persons with Disabilities 2021-2030. The purpose of the European Accessibility Act is to contribute to the proper functioning of the internal market, by approximating the laws, regulations and administrative provisions of the EU Member States regarding accessibility requirements for certain products and services, in particular by eliminating and preventing barriers. This will increase the accessibility of available products and services in the internal market and improve the availability of relevant information. The demand for available products and services is high and it is predicted that the number of people with disabilities will increase significantly. Union of Equality: The Strategy for the Rights of Persons with Disabilities in the EU 2021-2030, focuses on several aspects of the issue of accessibility, as follows:

- Accessibility;
- Enjoying EU rights;
- Decent quality of life and independent living;
- Equal access and non-discrimination;
- Promoting the rights of people with disabilities globally;
- Effective implementation of the Strategy;
- Leading through examples;
- Awareness, management and measurement of progress.

To make the EU barrier-free, member states need to include accessibility in all relevant policies and activities, and professionals need to receive accessibility training. At EU level, great attention will be paid to the proper implementation and evaluation of all EU rules for accessibility, and gaps and the need for further normative action will be identified. The action at EU level will include further work on standardization and technical specifications.

International Standards (ISO)

There is a wide range of international standards for this issue, all important from different aspects, but, of course, the most relevant standard is the new standard from 2021, ISO 21902: 2021 Tourism and related services-Affordable tourism for all-Requirements and recommendations. This standard ends with 8 Annexes. It is a standard that provides appropriate guidance and recommendations to help accessibility provisions, covering information on a wide range of policy, strategy, infrastructure, products and services, relevant to the entire tourism supply chain. It is applicable to all types of stakeholders in tourism. The standard includes:

- Basic requirements;
- Policies and strategies;
- Transport;
- Urban and rural tourist areas;
- Free activities;
- Meetings, initiatives, conventions and exhibitions;
- Accommodation;
- Food and beverage services;
- Tour operators and travel agencies

In particular, this standard must be promoted to the various stakeholders for this activity in Macedonia, and they must be told the benefits of its implementation and familiarity with its provisions. Its application is on a voluntary basis, which allows the perception of the most positive aspects of its use, only from those entities that are most willing to implement its standards, and to help themselves and their business to give a chance, through the application of globally recognizable standards and policies, to open their fields of attraction to a larger number of visitors and tourists, because the adaptation, design and implementation of accessibility in tourism not only provides opportunities for people with disabilities, but also greatly expands the scope and quality of services and products for all people regardless of their characteristics.

Macedonian regulations

The Macedonian regulation regarding accessibility is composed of a multitude of regulations and acts. In all documents and acts without exception, there is a commitment to equality, non-discrimination, respect for human rights and freedoms to the fullest extent possible, care for all persons is equal and persons with disabilities are treated as a great potential of the country. The most specific provisions for those persons and the right of accessibility are given in the bylaws, which are derived from the relevant laws. Analyzing the situation in this area, 6 bylaws were taken into account and in terms of accessibility, 3 rulebooks are fully dedicated to the most specific needs and requirements for accessibility of persons with disabilities, as follows:

- Rulebook on technical characteristics and dimensions of the movement path of persons with physical disabilities and persons with impaired vision (2015);
- Rulebook on the manner of providing unobstructed access, movement (horizontal and vertical), residence and work of persons with disabilities, up to and in, buildings with public and business purposes, residential buildings in residential buildings, as well as buildings with residential and business purposes (2015);
- Rulebook on urban planning (2020).

From the analysis of the provisions of the rulebooks, it can be concluded that the Macedonian regulation de jure is very comprehensive, consistent, and compatible with world and European regulations. There is a lack of better implementation, and more funds for that, as well as consistency in the implementation of the provisions and standards that are prescribed, so that it can be said that Macedonian standards are closer and that the world standards for accessibility of people with disabilities have been reached. Results showed that in Macedonia, business entities are implementing standards for accessibility but not in a satisfied level, and expressed with numbers there are 30% of facilities in which some of the standards are implemented, and because of that, more should be done in educating and training of the stakeholders for the importance of introducing the accessibility in their objects and offers.

Conclusions and recommendation

From all above it can be concluded and recommended that:

1. the entire Macedonian legislation, in general, *de lege* and *de jure*, offers a good framework for improving accessibility; however, as it has been mentioned, attention must be paid to proper and consistent implementation. All relevant stakeholders must insist on the full implementation of regulations because accessibility is one of the basic principles in many of the aforementioned documents at national, European and global levels. There are many people with disabilities, who present a significant potential internationally. There must be no discrimination, on the contrary, it must be seen as an opportunity for greater growth and development. More money and intellectual efforts must be invested in the promotion of accessibility in tourism and of its benefits.
2. It would be valuable to propose measures by which the state or local self-government could provide some kind of assistance to all tourism stakeholders in performing certain processes to increase accessibility to facilities, services and products for people with disabilities, whether in the form of subsidizing, in the form of reducing certain fiscal charges for such interventions, or simply by properly promoting such good practices and recognizing them appropriately by the wider community, in order to raise awareness of the importance of increased accessibility for all.

3. For the realization of these highly humane and civilized ideas, it is necessary that a variety of stakeholders get involved in that process. It is also necessary that all entities, namely legal entities, institutions, academic community, organizations, citizens' associations, non-governmental sector, as well as everyone individually contribute to the achievement of greater accessibility for people with disabilities.

References

Biddulph, R., & Scheyvens, R. (2018). Introducing inclusive tourism. *Tourism Geographies*, 20, 583–588.

Constitution of the Republic of N. Macedonia, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 6 (2019). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/ustav-na-republika-makedonija

Committee on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities of the UN, (2018). Concluding observations on the initial report of the Former Yugoslav Republic of Macedonia. Retrieved from Macedonian Government website: https://vlada.mk/sites/default/files/dokumenti/preporaki_2018_komitet_za_pravata_na_licata_so_poprecenost.pdf

Darcy, S., & Buhalis, D. (2011). Conceptualising disability. In D. Buhalis & S. Darcy (Eds.), *Accessible Tourism: Concepts and Issues* (pp. 21-45). Bristol, UK: Channel View.

Edgell, D. L. (2019). *Managing Sustainable Tourism: A Legacy for the Future*. New York: Routledge.

European Convention on human rights, (1950). Retrieved from Council of Europe website: https://www.coe.int/en/web/human-rights-convention/the-convention-in-1950#:~:text=The%20Convention%20for%20the%20Protection,force%20on%203%20September%201953

European Social Charter (1961). Retrieved from Council of Europe website: https://rm.coe.int/168006b642

EU Charter of Fundamental Rights, (2000/C 364/01). Retrieved from European Parliament website: https://www.europarl.europa.eu/charter/pdf/text_en.pdf

EU Directive, 2000/78/EC, establishing a general framework for equal treatment in employment and occupation,(2000). Retrieved from EU website: https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=celex%3A32000L0078

EU Treaty (2007). Retrieved from EU website: https://eur-lex.europa.eu/legal-content/EN/TXT/?uri=celex%3A12007L%2FTXT

EU Directive 2016/2102 for access to the websites and mobile applications of public sector bodies, (2016). Retrieved from eumonitor.eu website: https://www.eumonitor.eu/9353000/1/j4nvk6yhcbpeywk_j9vvik7m1c3gyxp/vk9pdf7297zs#:~:text=Summary%20of%20Legislation,-SUMMARY%20OF%3A&text=EU%20countries%20must%20ensure%20that,in%20a%20harmonised%20European%20standard

European Disability Strategy 2010-2020: A Renewed Commitment to a Barrier-Free Europe, EU, (2010-2020). Retrieved from cedefop.europa.eu website:(https://www.cedefop.europa.eu/en/news/european-disability-strategy-2010-2020-renewed-commitment-barrier-free-europe#:~:text=The%20overall%20aim%20of%20this,notably%20through%20the%20Single%20market

EU Directive 2019/882 for accessibility requirements for products and services, i.e. (The European Accessibility Act, 2019, https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1202&intPageId=5581&langId=en#:~:text=The%20European%20Accessibility%20Act%20(Directive,accessible%20for%20persons%20with%20disabilities

European Commission, Union of Equality (2021). Strategy for the Rights of Persons with Disabilities 2021-2030. Retrieved from European Commission website: https://ec.europa.eu/social/main.jsp?catId=1484&langId=en

Gillovic, B., & McIntosh, A. (2020). Accessibility and Inclusive Tourism Development: Current State and Future Agenda. *Sustainability*, 12(22), 9722.

ISO 14785:2014, Tourism information offices-Tourist information and reception services-Requirements, (2014). Retrieved from ISO website: https://www.iso.org/standard/55038.html
ISO 13009:2015, Tourism and related services-Requirements and recommendations for beach operation (2015). Retrieved from ISO website: https://www.iso.org/standard/52329.html
ISO 17049:2013, Accessible design-Application of Braille on signage, equipment and appliances (2013). Retrieved from ISO website: https://www.iso.org/standard/58086.html
ISO 23599:2019, Assistive products for blind and vision-impaired persons-Tactile walking surface indicators (2019). Retrieved from ISO website: (https://www.iso.org/standard/76106.html
ISO 21902:2021, Tourism and related services-Accessible tourism for all-Requirements and recommendations (2021). Retrieved from ISO website: https://www.iso.org/standard/72126.html#:~:text=This%20document%20establishes%20requirements%20and,of%20all%20ages%20and%20abilities
Law on construction, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 130/2009, 124/10, 18/11, 36/11, 54/11, 13/12, 144/12, 25/13, 79/13, 137/13, 163/13, 27/14, 28/14, 42/14, 115/14, 149/14, 187/14, 44/15, 129/15, 217/15, 226/15, 30/16, 31/16, 39/16, 71/16, 132/16, 35/18, 64/18, 168/18, 244/19, 18/20, 279/20, (2009-2020). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-gradenje
Law on urban planning, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 32 (2020). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-urbanistichko-planiranje-i-opshti-odredbi-1-predmet-na-zakonot
Law on social protection, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 104/19, 146/19, 275/19, 302/20, 311/20, 163/21, 294/21, (2019-2021). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-socijalnata-zashtita-1
Law on child protection, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 23/13, 12/14, 44/14, 144/14, 10/15, 25/15, 150/15, 192/15, 27/16, 163/17, 21/18, 198/18, 104/19, 146/19, 275/19, 311/20, 294/21, (2013-2021). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-zashtita-na-decata
Law on prevention and protection of discrimination, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N.258, (2020). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-sprechuvanje-i-zashtita-od-diskriminacija-1
Law on tourism activity, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 2/2004, 89/2008, 12/2009, 17/11, 47/11, 53/11, 123/12, 164/13, 27/14, 116/15, 192/15, 53/16, 31/20, (2004-2020). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-turistichkata-dejnost
Law on hospitality activity, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 62/04, 89/08, 115/10, 53/11, 141/12, 164/13, 187/13, 166/14, 199/14, 129/15, 192/15, 39/16, 53/16, 71/16, 31/20, 154/20, (2004-2020). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-ugostitelskata-dejnost
Law on family, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 80/1992, 9/1996, 38/2004, 33/2006, 84/2008, 67/10, 156/10, 39/12, 44/12, 38/14, 115/14, 104/15, 150/15, 53/21, (1992-2020). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-semejstvoto
Law on primary education, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N.161/19, 229/20, (2019-2020). Retrieved from Ministry of education website: https://mon.gov.mk/stored/document/Zakon%20za%20osnovnoto%20obrazovanie%20-%20nov_1.pdf
Law on secondary education, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 4/95, 24/96, 34/96, 35/97, 82/99, 29/2002, 40/2003, 42/2003, 67/2004, 55/2005, 113/2005, 35/2006, 30/2007, 49/2007, 81/2008, 92/2008, 33/10, 116/10, 156/10, 18/11, 51/11, 6/12, 100/12, 24/13, 41/14, 116/14, 135/14, 10/15, 98/15, 145/15, 30/16, 127/16, 67/17, 64/18, 229/20, (199-2020). Retrieved from Ministry of education website: https://mon.gov.mk/stored/document/Zakon%20za%20srednoto%20obrazovanie.pdf
Law for professional education and training, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 71/2006, 117/2008, 148/2009, 17/11, 24/13, 137/13, 41/14, 145/15, 55/16, 64/18, 275/19, (2006-2019). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-struchno-obrazovanie-i-obuka
Law on higher education, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 82/18, 178/21, (2018-2021). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-visokoto-obrazovanie
Law on mental health, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 71/07, 150/15, (2007-2015). Retrieved from Ministry of health website: https://zdravstvo.gov.mk/zakon-za-mentalno-zdravje/
41. Law on health protection, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 43/12, 145/12, 87/13, 164/13, 39/14, 43/14, 132/14, 188/14, 10/15, 61/15, 154/15, 192/15, 17/16, 37/16, 20/19, 101/19, 153/19,

180/19, 275/19, 77/21, 122/21, 178/21, (2012-2021). Retrieved from Ministry of health website: https://zdravstvo.gov.mk/zakon-za-zdravstvenata-zashtita/

Law on health insurance, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 25/2000, 34/2000, 96/2000, 50/2001, 11/2002, 31/2003, 84/2005, 37/2006, 18/2007, 36/2007, 82/2008, 98/2008, 6/2009, 67/2009, 50/10, 156/10, 53/11, 26/12, 16/13, 91/13, 187/13, 43/14, 44/14, 97/14, 112/14, 113/14, 188/14, 20/15, 61/15, 98/15, 129/15, 150/15, 154/15, 192/15, 217/15, 27/16, 37/16, 120/16, 142/16, 171/17, 275/19, 77/21, 285/21. (2000-2021). Retrieved from Ministry of health website: https://zdravstvo.gov.mk/zakon-za-zdravstvenoto-osiguruvanje/

Law on employment of people with disabilities, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 44/2000, 16/2004, 62/2005, 113/2005, 29/2007, 88/2008, 161/2008, 99/2009, 136/11, 129/15, 147/15, 27/16, 99/18, 103/21, (2000-2021). Retrieved from Ministry of labor and social policy website: https://www.mtsp.gov.mk/content/pdf/zakoni/%D0%97%D0%B0%D0%BA%D0%BE%D0%BD%20%D0%B7%D0%B0%20%D0%B2%D1%80%D0%B0%D0%B1%D0%BE%D1%82%D1%83%D0%B2%D0%B0%D1%9A%D0%B5%20%D0%BD%D0%B0%20%D0%B8%D0%BD%D0%B2%D0%B0%D0%BB%D0%B8%D0%B4%D0%BD%D0%B8%20%D0%BB%D0%B8%D1%86%D0%B0%20%D0%B1%D1%80.%2044%20%D0%BE%D0%B4%202000%20%D0%B3%D0%BE%D0%B4%D0%B8%D0%BD%D0%B0..pdf

Law on employment relations, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 62/2005, 106/2008, 161/2008, 114/2009, 130/2009, 50/10, 52/10, 124/10, 47/11, 11/12, 39/12, 13/13, 25/13, 170/13, 187/13, 113/14, 20/15, 33/15, 72/15, 129/15, 27/16, 120/18, 110/19, 267/20, 151/21, 288/21, (2005-2021) Retrieved from Ministry of labor and social policy website: https://www.mtsp.gov.mk/content/pdf/2021/trud/Izmeni%20ZRO%20(288-2021)%20MKD.pdf

Law on disability organizations, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 89/2008, 59/12, 23/13, 150/15, 27/16, 317/20, (2008-2020). Retrieved from Ministry of labor and social policy website:

Law on the use of sign language, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 105/2009, 150/15, 30/16, 103/21 Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://mtsp.gov.mk/WBStorage/Files/invorganizacii_konsolidiran.pdf

Law on culture, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 31/1998, 49/2003, 82/2005, 24/2007, 116/10, 47/11, 51/11, 136/12, 23/13, 187/13, 44/14, 61/15, 154/15, 39/16, 11/18, (2009-2018). Retrieved from Ministry of culture website: https://kultura.gov.mk/zakoni/

Law on museums, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N.66/2004, 89/2008, 116/10, 51/11, 88/15, 152/15, 39/16, 103/21, (2004-2021). Retrieved from Ministry of dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-muzeite

Law on protection of cultural heritage, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N.20/2004, 71/2004, 115/2007, 18/11, 148/11, 23/13, 137/13, 164/13, 38/14, 44/14, 199/14, 104/15, 154/15, 192/15, 39/16, 11/18, 20/19, (2004-2019). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/zakon-za-zashtita-na-kulturnoto-nasledstvo

Macedonian National Coordination Body for the implementation of UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities for 2019, (2020). Annual Working Report. Retrieved from Macedonian Government website: https://vlada.mk/KoordinativnoTelo/PravaNaLicaSoPoprechenost

Macedonian National Coordination Body for the implementation of the UN Convention, (2021). Action Plan for 2021 of implementation of measures form UN Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities. Retrieved from Macedonian Government website: https://vlada.mk/sites/default/files/dokumenti/akciski_plan_za_2021_godina_za_implementacija_na_konvencijata.pdf

Ministry for labor and social policy. National Strategy for equalization of people with disabilities in Macedonia for 2010-2018, (2010).. Retrieved from Ministry of labor and social policy website: https://mtsp.gov.mk/WBStorage/Files/FINALNA%20Revidirana%20Nacionalna%20Strategija.pdf

Recommendation 1592: Towards full social inclusion of persons with disabilities (2003). Retrieved from Council of Europe website: https://rm.coe.int/09000016807a07f9

Recommendation 2064: Equality and Inclusion for Persons with Disabilities (2015). Retrieved from Parliamentary Assembly of Council of Europe website: https://assembly.coe.int/nw/xml/XRef/Xref-XML2HTML-en.asp?fileid=21554&lang=en

Rulebook for minimum-technical conditions for performing of tourist activity, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N16 (2006). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/pravilnik-za-minimalno-tehnichkite-uslovi-na-objektite-za-vrshenje-na-turistichka-dejnost

Rulebook for minimum-technical conditions for performing of hospitality activity, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N. 16/2006, 44/2013, (2006-2013). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/pravilnik-za-minimalno-tehnichkite-uslovi-za-vrshenje-na-ugostitelskata-dejnost

Rulebook on conditions for categorization of facilities for performing hospitality activity, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N.16/2006, 87/12, 41/13, (2006-2013). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon-izmena/pravilnik-za-izmenuvanje-na-pravilnikot-za-uslovi-za-kategorizacija-na-objektite-za-vrshenje-na-ugostitelska-dejnost-1

Rulebook on the technical characteristics and dimensions of the movement path of persons with body disabilities and persons with damaged vision, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N.17, (2015). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/pravilnik-za-tehnichkite-karakteristiki-i-dimenziite-na-patekata-za-dvizhenje-na-lica-so-telesen-hendikep-i-lica-so-oshteten-vid

Rulebook on the manner of providing unobstructed access, movement (horizontal and vertical), stay and work of people with disabilities, to and in, buildings with public and business purposes, housing buildings in residential buildings, as well as buildings with residential-business purpose, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N.17, (2015). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/pravilnik-za-nachinot-na-obezbeduvanje-na-neprechen-pristap-dvizhenje-horizontalno-i-vertikalno-prestoj-i-rabota-na-lica-so-invalidnost-do-i-vo-gradbi

Rulebook on urban planning, Official Gazette of Macedonia, N.225, (2020). Retrieved from dejure.mk website: https://dejure.mk/zakon/pravilnik-za-urbanistichko-planiranje

UN International Covenant on Civil and Political Rights and Freedoms, (1966). Retrieved from equalityhumanrights.com website: https://www.equalityhumanrights.com/en/our-human-rights-work/monitoring-and-promoting-un-treaties/international-covenant-civil-and#:~:text=ICCPR%20is%20an%20international%20human,or%20degrading%20treatment%20or%20punishment

UN International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, (1966). Retrieved from Office of the UN High Commissioner for Human Rights website: https://www.ohchr.org/en/instruments-mechanisms/instruments/international-covenant-economic-social-and-cultural-rights

UN: Transforming our world: Agenda for Sustainable Development 2030, (2015). Retrieved from UN website: https://sdgs.un.org/2030agenda

World Tourism Organization. (2013). Recommendations on Accessible Tourism, UNWTO: Madrid. Retrieved from UNWTO website: https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284415984

World Tourism Organization. (2016). Recommendations on Accessible information in Tourism, UNWTO: Madrid. Retrieved from UNWTO website: https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284417896

World Tourism Organization. (2016). Accessible Tourism for All: An Opportunity within Our Reach, UNWTO: Madrid. Retrieved from UNWTO website: https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284417919

World Tourism Organization. (2020). Framework Convention on Tourism Ethics, UNWTO: Madrid. Retrieved from UNWTO website: https://www.unwto.org/ethics-convention

World Tourism Organization. (2020). UNWTO Inclusive Recovery Guide – Socio-cultural Impacts of Covid-19, Issue I: Persons with Disabilities, UNWTO: Madrid. Retrieved from UNWTO website: https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284422296

5.2. Evaluating the complexity of street event co-creation: The case of Patras carnival

Nikolaos Pappas | University of Sunderland, UK
Kyriaki Glyptou | Leeds Beckett University, UK
Eleni Michopoulou | University of Derby, UK
Christina Karadimitriou | University of Patras, Greece

Abstract

Major street events substantially influence the image of the host destination. In several cases, a specific destination is mostly recognisable and known because of the organisation of a street event, which is something that it is also related with the co-creational aspects of the event. Drawing from a sample of 400 street event adult participants, this research examines the complexity aspects of co-creation in the carnival of Patras and its influence upon the destination image of the host city. The complexity aspects are examined through the employment of fuzzy-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis. The findings revealed three sufficient configurations (co-creational involvement and satisfaction; co-creational event image; experience-satisfaction nexus) that can affect the host city's (Patras) destination image. The paper also discusses a number of managerial implications and contributes to both theoretical and methodological domains.

Keywords: fsQCA; Co-creation; Destination image; Carnival; Complexity

Introduction

Carnivals include several activities, and are considered as cultural street events, since they are organised in city streets and engage a substantial amount of people to attend and/or participate on them (Batty et al., 2003). For the moment that the number of cities organising such events exponentially increases, the competition becomes more intense as the organisers try to reach larger audiences of potential attendants and participants for their carnival (Koukopoulos & Koukopoulos, 2017). Considering that tourism and events are characterised by high levels of complexity (Pappas, 2019), such efforts include substantial difficulties, whilst the organisers need to have a sufficient and well-informed decision-making able to effectively evaluate all the related complexities.

The literature is not extensive concerning the exploration of experience and co-creation of event participants and attendees (Ziakas & Boukas, 2013). With special reference to street events and their derived complexity, the literature is predominantly silent (Karadimitriou et al., 2023), whist their co-creational complexity aspects are rarely investigated. Following Vianna et al. (2018) it is imperative for street events (with special reference to carnivals) to be further studied, and provide the organisers the opportunity to better and more efficiently apply their practices and operations, through the proposal of new and innovative methodologies able to safeguard and optimise the innovative, managerial and promotional aspects of the event.

This research is based on the examination of complexity using as a case study one of the largest carnivals worldwide, the Patras carnival. More specifically, the aim of this study is to examine the co-creational complexity of Patras carnival and its impact upon the destination image of the city of Patras, Greece. In doing so, it investigates the perceptions of the carnival participants and examines the complex configurations of co-creation (event; brand; experience; degree) and satisfaction, also including three participants' socio-demographics (gender; age; level of education). The complexity is exmined through the use of fuzzy-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis (fsQCA) a method which has recently started to be applied in the tourism and events domain. The contribution of the study is both theoretical and methodological. From a theoretical perspective it provides us a better understanding concerning the co-creation complexity aspects of street events and their impact upon the destination image. With respect to the methodology, the research employs a relatively new method (fsQCA) in tourism and events for examining the induced complexity of the carnival's participants.

Patras carnival

The carnival of Patras (commonly known as Patrino Carnavali) is an annual event organised for nearly two centuries. It has its roots in a carnival ball organised in 1829 in the house of a very famous merchant (at the time) from Patras (Athens Voice, 2022). Nowadays, it is a sum of carnival celebrations starting on 17th January and ending up at the end of "apokria" period (end of February/beginning of March) with the big carnival parade (Roditis, 2023). In 2023 the carnival has restarted after two years of absence due to the COVID-19 travel and gathering restrictions, whilst the participants have exceeded 60000 people and the attendants were more than half a million (only the last three days of the celebrations the attendants have reached a quarter of a million) (Skai, 2023). The carnival of Patras is considered as one of the largest carnivals in the world (Bournazi, n.d.). It is the largest event held in the city of Patras in an annual basis, and it is heavily connected with the destination image of the city as well as the whole region (Achaia) (Charitopoulos, 2014).

Events and destination image

Contemporarily, many cities and governments use the organisation of events as one of their main strategies in order to strengthen the brand image of the destination, as well as the country (Kenyon & Bodet, 2018). If those events are well managed and promoted, they can substantially contribute to the infrastructural upgrade, the improvement of attractiveness, the visualisation of local (and sometimes national) culture, and the enhancement of the competitiveness and reputation of the host destination (Getz & Page, 2015). A major influential impact of those events is the considerable strengthening and enhancement of destination image, since they extensively influence the behavioural patterns of tourists before, during and after they visit the destination (Chen, 2012; Walker et al., 2013).
An event affects the destination image twofold (Beerli & Martin, 2004): (i) indirect influence upon destination image through the production of onsite event experiences, and (ii) direct influence upon destination image through the generation of mental constructs (e.g.: attitude; perception; image) related with the event. This means that the event image is directly connected at a fundamental level with the destination image, and the former directly affects the latter (Lai, 2018).

Event complexity and destination image

The chaos theory was first introduced in 1963 (Lawrence et al., 2003) and "proposes a broad set of loosely related theoretical and meta-theoretical orientations to the behaviour of complex non-linear systems" (Seeger, 2002, p.329). Complexity theory evolved trough the theory of chaos and concerns research with complex characteristics, since it "deals with systems that have many interacting agents and although hard to predict, these systems have structure and permit improvement" (Zahra & Ryan, 2007, p.855). According to

Fitzerland and Eijnatten (2002), the systemic patterns that concern behaviour are less amenable when the degree of complexity increases.

The decision-making of both event organisers and participants is characterised by high levels of complexity (Fotiadis et al., 2016). As a result, the event organisers should be able to investigate the decision-making of the event participants, and accordingly plan and develop the managerial, operational and promotional aspects of the event in such manner able to respond to the event complexities (Ivaldi & Whitehead, 2021). Hence, the event organisation should carefully increase the potential of its success by analytically considering the complex decision-making of its participants (Karadimitriou et al., 2023).

Accordingly, the destination image is considerably influenced by the success of the events organised in the destination (Pappas, 2019). As in events, the formulation of the destination image is also a complex aspect, since it is based on the high levels of tourism complexity and the related travel and tourism decision-making (Zenker & Kock, 2020). As a result, the destination managers should better comprehend the image destination complexity and progress to a more sufficient development of strategies concerning brand architecture which is also based on the perceptions of visitors (Datzira-Masip & Poluzzi, 2014). Considering that the organisation of events has substantial tangible and intangible effects upon the destination image (Arnegger & Hertz, 2016) the uniqueness of street events and their considerable embedment of cultural aspects deeply connected with the location can operate as a crucial basis for destination marketing and development (Hernández-Mogollón, 2018).

Methods

Participants

The study was contacted in Patras from 20th January till 26th February 2023 to the participants of the carnival of Patras. All the participants had to be adults, registered in one of the carnival groups. The respondents were randomly selected, and asked to fill in a self-assessed questionnaire, which average completion duration was less than 10 minutes. For the partially completed questionnaires, list-wise deletion was followed (the entire questionnaire was excluded from further analysis), since it is considered as the most appropriate method for missing data handling (Raghunathan, 2020).

Sampling

Following Akis et al. (1996) since the proportion of the respondents' perspectives were unknown, the study has selected the most conservative response (50/50), with a minimum 95% level of confidence and a subsequent maximum statistical error of 5%. The calculation of the sample is as follows:

$$N = \frac{\mathrm{Z}^2(\text{hypothesis})}{\mathrm{S}^2} \Rightarrow N = \frac{1.96^2(0.5)(0.5)}{0.05^2} \Rightarrow N = 384.16 \text{ rounded to } 400$$

In total, 476 carnival participants were asked to participate in the study, setting the response rate at 84.03%.

Measures

The questionnaire consists of 37 Likert Scale (1: Strongly disagree; 5: Strongly agree) statements derived from previous studies (Akhmedova et al., 2020; Dimitrovski et al., 2022; Grissemann & Stokburger-Sauer, 2012; Karadimitriou, 2023; Kim et al., 2022; Lam et al., 2020; Shugla & Busser, 2020; Sung & Lee, 2023). It also includes the examination of three socio-demographics (gender; age; level of education).

In order to decide whether the research had to be progressed through parametric or non-parametric analysis, the research has evaluated correlations between the examined simple conditions. In all cases, the correlations were lower than .6 (Table 1), meaning that the research is characterized by general asymmetry (hence the progression to non-parametric analysis) (Skarmeas et al., 2014). The derived complex configurations were examined through the use of fsQCA (fuzzy-set Qualitative Comparative Analysis), since it is considered as the most appropriate method for complexity examination (Olya & Al-Ansi, 2018). fsQCA is considered as a mixed method, since it based on quantitative data and progresses to qualitative inductive reasoning (Longest & Vaisey, 2008).

Table 1. Correlation matrix

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1	Destination image	1					
2	Satisfaction	.017	1				
3	Degree of co-creation	-.013	-.064	1			
4	Experience of co-creation	.075	.018	.048	1		
5	Brand of co-creation	.001	-.045	-.081	.043	1	
6	Event co-creation	-.080	-.038	.002	-.069	-.018	1

Results

Table 2 presents the socio-demographic characteristics of the sample. Since the items were adopted from previous studies, Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was followed. The research also examined the consistency (A: Cronbach's Alpha), validity (AVE: Average Variance Explained) and reliability (CR: Composite Reliability). As it is illustrated in Table 3, in all cases A was higher than the minimum acceptable level (0.7), Ave was higher than .5, and CR was higher than AVE. These findings showcase that the research generates acceptable consistency, validity and reliability.

Table 2. Sample socio-demographics

	Gender		Age			Level of Education	
	Men	Women	18-35	36-50	Over 50	Prim. & Sec.	Higher
N	225	175	238	121	41	244	156
Percent (%)	56.3	43.8	59.5	30.3	10.3	61.0	39.0

Table 3. Consistency, validity and reliability metrics

	CR	AVE	A
Destination image	.950	.733	.939
Satisfaction	.962	.835	.947
Degree of co-creation	.920	.744	.879
Experience of co-creation	.936	.682	.895
Brand of co-creation	.948	.723	.924
Event co-creation	.933	.670	.912

The analysis through fsQCA has generated three sufficient complex configurations. The first one focuses on the carnival's co-creational involvement and satisfaction, since it generates high outcome scores to the simple conditions of satisfaction, degree of co-creation, and event co-creation, and also including two socio-demographics (age; education). The second solution concerns the co-creational image of the event and includes the socio-demographics of age and gender, and generates high scores of outcome to the antecedents of experience, brand co-creation, and event co-creation. The third sufficient pathway deals with the generated satisfaction through the gained experience (experience-satisfaction nexus), it includes the 'age' socio-demographic and the simple conditions of satisfaction and experience co-creation.

Discussion

The findings showcase that the co-creational aspects of the carnival of Patras affect the destination image of the city through three different pathways: (i) co-creational involvement and satisfaction (ii) co-creational event image (iii) experience-satisfaction nexus. The decision-makers of both, Patras (destination) and the carnival can further strengthen the image of the city and the related destination brand, by selecting the most appropriate of the three generated solutions (or a combination of them), and appropriately formulate their brand architecture with the subsequent promotional and advertising strategies. As it is apparent, a complexity analysis can provide alternative pathways that can be used in order to reach the desired outcome (in our case the image of the selected destination). In such case, the beneficial impact substantially affects the host destination, as well as the organised street event (Patras' carnival), since the former can add value to the latter and vice versa.

Conclusion

Despite the contribution of the study, several study limitations need to be mentioned. First, the currently limited use of fsQCA hinders its full potential for the examination of complexity aspects in tourism and events. Therefore, it is recommended that fsQCA should be further used in relevant research. Second, this research was held to the participants at the carnival of Patras. However, the perceptions of the street event's attendants were not evaluated. Joint research between the carnival's participants and attendants may provide further insights concerning the effect of the carnival upon the destination image. Finally, this study concerns a specific street event (carnival) in a specific destination (Patras). A similar study in some other street event is likely to generate different findings. Hence, any generalisation of the findings should be made with caution.

References

Akhmedova, A., Mas-Machuca, M., & Marimon, F. (2020). Value co-creation in the sharing economy: The role of quality of service provided by peer. *Journal of Cleaner Production*, 266, 121736.

Akis, S., Peristianis, N., & Warner, J. (1996). Residents' attitudes to tourism development: the case of Cyprus. *Tourism Management*, 17(7), 481-494.

Arnegger, J., & Hertz, M. (2016). Economic and destination image impacts of mega-events in emerging tourist destinations. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 5, 76-85.

Athens Voice (2022, April 4). Carnival of Patras: A history that accounts 190 years. *Athens Voice*. Retrieved from: https://www.athensvoice.gr/epikairotita/ellada/748426/karnavali-patras-mia-istoria-poy-metra-190-hronia/

Batty, M., Desyllas, J., & Duxbury, E. (2003) The discrete dynamics of small-scale spatial events: Agent-based models of mobility in carnivals and street parades. *International Journal of Geographical Information Science*, 17, 673-697.

Beerli, A., & Martin, J. D. (2004). Factors influencing destination image. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 31(3), 657–681.

Bournazi, S. (n.d.) Hidden glimpses behind the masks. Retrieved from: http://www.pass2greece.gr/afieroma_det.asp?afieroma_id=64&nid=33 (Accessed 15/03/2023)

Charitopoulos, A. (2014). Hosting large events: The carnival of Patras as a tool for local tourism development. Athens: National School of Public Governance and Local Governance.

Chen, N. (2012). Branding national images: The 2008 Beijing Summer Olympics, 2010 Shanghai World Expo, and 2010 Guangzhou Asian Games. *Public Relations Review*, 38, 731-745.

Datzira-Masip, J., & Poluzzi, A. (2014). Brand architecture management: The case of four tourist destinations in Catalonia. *Journal of Destination Marketing Management*, 3(1), 48-58.

Dimitrovski, D., Duradevic, M., Senic, V., & Kostic, M. (2022). A joyful river ride: A transformative event experience. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 39, 100502.

Fitzgerald, L. A., & Eijnatten, F. M. (2002). Chaos speaks: A glossary of chaordic terms and phrases. *Journal of Organizational Change Management*, 15(4), 412-423.

Fotiadis, A., Xie, L., Li, Y., & Huan, T. C. (2016). Attracting athletes to small-scale sports events using motivational decision-making factors. *Journal of Business Research*, 69(11), 5467-5472.

Getz, D., & Page, S.J. (2015). Progress and prospects for event tourism research. *Tourism Management*, 52(4-5), 287-305.

Grissemann, U.S., & Stokburger-Sauer N.E. (2012). Customer co-creation of travel services: The role of company support and customer satisfaction with the co-creation performance. *Tourism Management*, 33, 1483-1492.

Hernández-Mogollón, J. M., Duarte, P. A., & Folgado-Fernández, J. A. (2018). The contribution of cultural events to the formation of the cognitive and affective images of a tourist destination. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 8, 170-178.

Ivaldi, A., & Whitehead, M. (2021). Re-thinking the nature of decision making in outdoor extreme situations: Lessons from Britain's National Three Peaks Challenge. *Journal of Outdoor Recreation and Tourism*, 35, 100403.

Karadimitriou, C. (2023). Event co-creation in street events. Evidence from Athens Pride. *Event Management*, 27(2). 253-267.

Karadimitriou, C., Panagopoulos, A., Poulaki, I., & Pappas, N. (2023). Restarting Athens Marathon during COVID-19 uncertainty. *Event Management*, 27(4), 577-590.

Kenyon, J. A., & Bodet, G. (2018). Exploring the domestic relationship between mega-events and destination image: The image impact of hosting the 2012 Olympic Games for the city of London. *Sport Management Review*, 21(3), 232-249.

Kim, M., Kim, H., & Kim, D. (2022). Volunteers of mega-events as co-creators of host destinations: Volunteers' experience, value, and satisfaction toward host destination. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 44, 101044.

Koukopoulos, Z., & Koukoloulos, D. (2017). Smart dissemination and exploitation mobile services for carnival events. *Procedia Computer Science*, 110, 24-31.

Lai, K. (2018). Influence of event image on destination image: The case of the 2008 Beijing Olympic Games. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 7, 153-163.

Lam, J. M. S., Ismail, H., & Lee, S. (2020). From desktop to destination: User-generated content platforms, co-created online experiences, destination image and satisfaction. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 18, Article 100490.

Lawrence, W. L., Feng, Y. L., & Huang, Y. C. (2003). Diagnosis of Freeway traffic incidents with chaos theory. *Journal of the Eastern Asia Society for Transportation Studies*, 5, 2025-2038.

Longest, K., & Vaisey, S. (2008). Fuzzy: A Program for performing Qualitative Comparative Analyses (QCA) in STATA. *The STATA Journal*, 8(1), 79-104.

Olya, H., & Al-Ansi, A. (2018). Risk assessment of halal products and services: Implication for tourism industry. *Tourism Management*, 65, 279-291.

Pappas, N. (2019). Crisis management communications for popular culture events. *Event Management*, 23(4-5), 655-667.

Raghunathan, T. (2020). *Missing data analysis in practice - Chapman and Hall/CRC interdisciplinary statistics series*. CPC Press: Boca Raton.

Roditis, A. (2023, February 15). Patrino Karnavali…. 194 years old. Achaiki Politeia. Retrieved from: https://politeianews.gr/patrino-karnavali-194-chronia-istoria/

Seeger, M. (2002). Chaos and crisis: Propositions for a general theory of crisis communication. *Public Relations Review*, 28(4), 329-337.

Shulga, L. V., & Busser, J. A. (2020). Hospitality employee and customer role in value co-creation: Personal, organizational and collaborative outcomes. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 91, 102648.

Skai (2023, February 26). Patrino Karnavali 2023: at 14:00 the great parade with 150 chariots and 60000 carnival participants. *Skai*. Retrieved from: https://www.skai.gr/news/greece/patra-stis-1400-i-megali-parelasi-me-150-armata-kai-60000-karnavalistes

Skarmeas, D., Leonidou, C. N., Saridakis, C. (2014). Examining the role of CSR skepticism using fuzzy-set qualitative comparative analysis. *Journal of Business Research*, 67, 1796-1805.

Sung, K. S., & Lee, S. (2023). Customer brand co-creation behavior and brand sincerity through CSR interactivity: The role of psychological implications in service-dominant logic. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 108, Article 103388.

Vianna, D. S., Soares, C. V., & Cardoso, E. (2018). Hybrid VNS Heuristics for the production scheduling of costumes for Brazilian carnival samba schools. *Electronic Notes in Discrete Mathematics*, 66, 31-38.

Walker, M., Kaplanidou, K., Gibson, H., Thapa, B., Geldenhuys, S., & Coetzee, W. (2013). 'Win in Africa, With Africa': Social responsibility, event image, and destination benefits. *Tourism Management*, 34, 80-90.

Zahra, A., & Ryan, C. (2007). From chaos to cohesion - Complexity in tourism structures: An analysis of New Zealand's regional tourism organizations. *Tourism Management*, 28(3), 854-862.

Zenker, S., & Kock, F. (2020). The coronavirus pandemic- a critical discussion of a tourism research agenda. *Tourism Management*, 81, 104164.

Ziakas, V., & Boukas, N. (2013). Extracting meanings of event tourist experiences: A phenomenological exploration of Limassol carnival. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 2, 94-107.

5.3. A framework for tourism driven resident benefits, towards a better understanding of how tourism can benefit local residents

Karoline Wiegerink | Hotelschool The Hague, The Netherlands
Jeroen Klijs | Breda University of Applied Sciences, CELTH, The Netherlands
Daniek Nijland | HZ University of Applied Sciences, CELTH, The Netherlands
Evelien Visser | NBTC | Nederlands Bureau voor Tourisme en Congressen
Jan Huizing | Hotelschool The Hague, The Netherlands

Abstract
This paper examines how tourism can drive resident benefits. It aims to develop a conceptual framework that outlines the various ways in which local residents can benefit from tourism. It focuses on resident benefits as a goal in itself rather than support for tourism and aims to provide a comprehensive framework rather than measuring specific types of benefits. A literature review is used to define resident benefits and to identify key dimensions and determining factors. The proposed framework encompasses three main value dimensions: economic, living environment and social; furthermore, the framework allows for distinguishing between perceived or actual; and between individual or collective. The framework contributes to further conceptualisation of resident benefits and how tourism can be a positive contributor to a destination or community. It assists tourism policymakers in demonstrating the value of tourism-driven resident benefits and creating effective interventions that can influence perceived value.

Keywords: Resident benefits; Framework; Sustainable tourism; Experience; Positive Impacts

Introduction

Worldwide, attention is growing for sustainable tourism, taking into account the current and future environmental, social, and economic impact of tourism and focusing on the needs of visitors, industry, the environment, and the local population (UNWTO, 2019). This fits within the broader framework of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Tourism can and must play a significant role in achieving these goals, directly or indirectly. Sustainable destination development implies that tourism actions need to be more inclusive and based on an understanding, integration, and engagement of local communities – balancing the interests of all stakeholders (Koens et al., 2021; Oskam & Wiegerink, 2021). A multi-actor approach, with all stakeholders involved in 'making' the place, is desired (Koens, 2021; Lugosi, 2021).

In doing so, there should be (and increasingly is) attention for one specific group of stakeholders: the residents of a destination. On the one hand, tourism can have an important influence (either positive or negative) on the daily lives of residents; on the other hand, residents play an important role in welcoming visitors and in the atmosphere of a place, thus co-creating the visitor experience (Wiegerink & Huizing, 2020). There is an increasing awareness that the attractiveness, competitiveness, and sustainability of destinations depend on a harmonious relationship between its residents and visitors

(UNWTO, 2019; Prasad, & Kumar, 2022). This reflects the growing attention for residents as, arguably, the most important group of stakeholders in the development of sustainable tourism (Yu, Chia-Pin. et al., 2018; Prasad & Kumar, 2022, Salee et al., 2022).

Therefore, policymakers across the globe are actively seeking effective interventions to promote long-term sustainable (urban) tourism, with a focus on restoring and balancing the interests of stakeholders, including local residents. The Dutch non-governmental organization for tourism development has developed a national vision called "Perspective 2030" (NBTC, 2019) to achieve sustainable development of the Netherlands as a tourist destination. It contains a shifting perspective viewing tourism not as an end goal but as a means of addressing social issues and challenges that affect prosperity and welfare. The formulated goal "every Dutch person benefits from tourism in 2030" highlights the importance of conceptualising the benefits for residents.

To achieve this goal, several questions need to be answered, such as what constitutes resident benefits, what are key determining factors, and how are these related? Additionally, how can benefits be measured, monitored, and enhanced? Addressing these questions can assist destinations in maximizing the benefits of tourism for their local communities.

The aim of this paper is to develop a conceptual framework that outlines the various ways in which local residents can benefit from tourism: to assist tourism policymakers in demonstrating the value of tourism-driven resident benefits, as well as engaging with these benefits and creating interventions that can influence their perceived value. To establish a common classification for researchers to use when examining the tourism-driven resident benefits and its cause-effect relationships.

Tourism-driven resident benefits

Resident benefit from tourism refers to the (perceived) positive impacts on the quality of life of the local residents of a destination, resulting from tourism activity in that destination. Tourism is broadly defined in this definition. It includes tourists, day visitors, but also other residents visiting a place within the destination. Many scholars have studied the impacts of tourism on local communities. Prominent works in this area include the well-known publication by Mathieson and Wall (1982), as well as scholarly articles authored by Andereck, Boley, Gursov, Uysal, Jurowski, Kim, Lankford, Perdue, Nunkoo, Ramkissoon, Sirgy, Stylidis, Vogt, and Woosnam. In their systematic review of the literature Salee et al. (2022) found that the majority of studies relate to economic, socio-cultural, and environmental dimensions, and to a lesser extent political and technological elements. In addition, the majority of studies refer to tourism impacts on the stakeholder group, residents. Finally, the theoretical basis underlying much of this research is the exchange theory models proposed by Perdue et al (1990) and Ap (1992), that distinguish between (perceived) positive and negative influences of tourism. In this paper, we (1) use dimensions comparable to the economic, socio-cultural, and environmental subdivision; (2) also focus on residents; (3) focus on the subsection of impacts that can be regarded as resident benefits.

For the categorization of benefits into dimensions we follow Klijs et al. (2021). They conducted an extensive literature review, a survey of entrepreneurs, and case descriptions to comprehensively examine the societal value of tourism and categorize the impacts of tourism along the dimensions economic, living environment (or environmental), and socio-cultural. These identified dimensions provide a valuable way to classify, describe, and link impacts and for developing indicators to measure these.

Firstly, the economic value of tourism encompasses various dimensions: Employment, which refers to the impact that tourism has on the ability of residents to provide for their livelihood can include factors like job security and career prospects for residents. Both direct and indirect employment opportunities can be considered, as well as the quality of jobs available, and the degree to which they are year-round rather than seasonal. Additionally, the business climate, property value, and direct revenues generated from visitors can be viewed as indicators of economic value creation.

The second dimension relates to the quality of the living environment. It includes the influence of tourism on the availability and quality of facilities, such as retail facilities, health services, and facilities that promote a sense of security for residents (Kim, Uysal & Sirgy, 2013; Nunkoo & Ramkisson, 2011; Andereck & Nyaupane, 2011). Another subcategory is tourist offerings, which refers to the quality, quantity, accessibility, and diversity of tourism-related services and products, also used by residents (Jeffres & Dobos, 1993; Konovalov, Murphy, Moscardo, 2019; Haley, Snaith & Miller, 2005). Mobility is another subcategory that includes infrastructure for and accessibility of a range of mobility offerings. The design of social spaces, specifically public spaces, that are multifunctional and serve the diverse needs of residents is also an important subcategory. Additionally, the preservation and experience of heritage, including cultural and natural heritage, can contribute to the well-being of residents (Wang et al., 2006; Huh & Vogt, 2007). Tourism can contribute positively to the atmosphere or vibe of a place, the overall ambiance or character, which can contribute to the quality of life of residents. But of course, it is not all positive; tourism can also negatively influence the quality of the living environment (e.g. when tourists cause traffic problems or attract criminality).

The third dimension pertains to social processes; the impacts that tourism can have on the socio-cultural aspects of residents' lives, including strengthened social networks, increased social cohesion, and enhanced local community identity and pride (McGehee & Andereck, 2004). Meaningful encounters, which refer to the opportunities for residents to engage with visitors in ways that are personally meaningful and fulfilling, can also be a source of value creation (Stylidis, 2016; Andereck, et al., 2005; Williams & Lawson, 2001). Additionally, residents can benefit from tourism-related opportunities to participate in decision-making processes. Finally, psychological empowerment can be considered as another social process influenced by tourism: Residents can experience increased feeling of pride and ownership over the local community, which can be fostered by tourism-driven activities. See for example the work of Moghavvemi et al. (2017), Aleshinloye et al. (2020) and Zheng et al. (2021). A practical example is that of the Green Hotel Club (GHC) in Amsterdam, The Netherlands, that stimulates cooperation in the field of (social) sustainability. Hotels serve as a meeting place for residents, ensure a safer neighbourhood for residents through several security methods and provide energy for the neighbourhood.

Support for tourism

A well-known construct in tourism literature is "Support for (additional) tourism (development)", which is considered essential for the sustainable development of tourism (Prasad & Kumar, 2022; Perdue et al, 1990). For this paper it is important to identify the relationships between “Support for tourism” and “Resident benefits”. Numerous scholars have conducted research on residents' support for tourism, examining a range of explanatory factors (Choi et al., 2010; Erul et al., 2022; Gerritsma, 2019; Gursoy et al., 2010; Huh et al., 2007; Jurowski et al. 2004; Koens et al., 2021; Langford, 1994; Lin et al., 2017; Long et al., 1990; Nunkoo et al., (2013); Ribeiro et al., 2017; Shen et al., 2022; Woosnam, 2012). An overarching conclusion from these papers is that the extent to which residents experience benefits from tourism is one of the determining factors of support for tourism (Boley et al., 2014; Perdue et al, 1990). Reasoning further, the level of support for tourism among residents affects their behaviour towards tourists, and consequently, resident and tourist experience (Rong et al., 2019; Aleshinloye et al., 2022).

In light of the changing tourism discourse, with a focus on using tourism as a means to address local issues and contribute to community well-being, the concept of support for tourism is losing relevance. It no longer is the ‘Holy grail’ (Segota et al, 2022). Instead, the ultimate goal should be to optimize the impact experienced by residents, thus reduce negative impacts, increase positive impacts (or resident benefits), rather than emphasizing support for tourism. This will enhance support for tourism and benefit both visitors and tourism businesses. This aligns with a recent study conducted in the Dutch province Zeeland (Kusttoerisme Zeeland, 2019), which found that experienced positive impact has the strongest relationship with support for tourism. It also found that enhancing support for tourism requires not only reducing negative impacts but especially increasing the (experienced) positive impact, or benefits. Investing into creating benefits can lead to a win-win situation for both residents and the tourism industry. The remainder of this paper will therefore focus on resident benefits rather than support for tourism.

Towards a framework

Following on from the findings earlier explained, we propose a new framework (Figure 1) for resident benefits. While realizing the complexity of the process through which benefits are created, experienced and responded to (Segota et al, 2022; Sharpley, 2014; Wang & Pfister, 2008; McKercher et al, 2015; Martin et al., 2018; Carmichael, 2000; Cardoso & Silva, 2018) the goal was still to develop a relatively simple framework, that is easily understood by practitioners and that is useful as a basis for measurement and in developing and explaining policies aimed at increasing resident benefits from tourism. Furthermore, in line with the previous section and in contrast with other frameworks found in literature, resident benefit (and not support for tourism) is seen as the central concept.

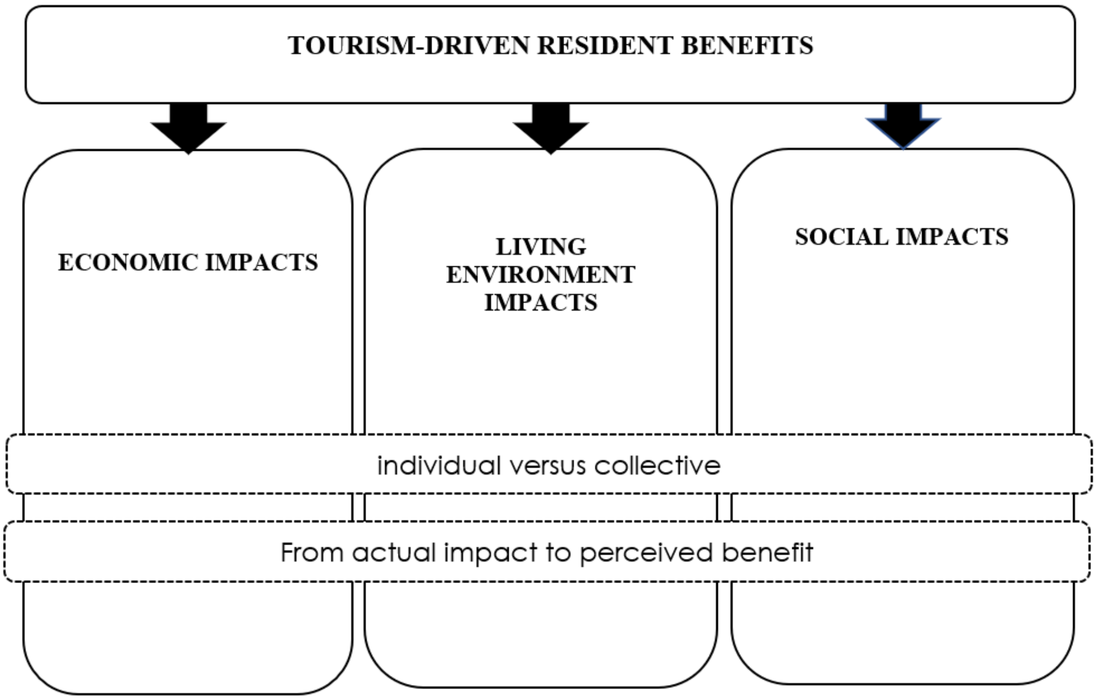


Figure 1. Framework for tourism-driven resident benefits

Three types of resident benefits

The proposed framework for tourism-driven benefits for residents is primarily built upon the trichotomy of dimensions found in Klijs et al. (2021): economic impacts, living environment impacts, and social impacts. Taking the step towards measurement, these impacts can be translated in indicators. Economic impacts can, for example, be measured by looking at (the development of) tourism taxes, destination income, the number of tourism jobs, and the revenue/income for tourists- related businesses. Impacts on the living environment can be measured by, for example, the number of recreational/tourism or public facilities and investments in cultural heritage and in nature areas. Measuring the psychological empowerment of residents and social cohesion can be examples of measuring social impacts. In line with the discussion below, resident benefits would require understanding and measuring how these impacts are perceived.

Individual versus collective

As emphasised by Segota et al. (2022), (perceived) resident benefits from tourism can be on individual or collective/community level. There can be differences between residents in how they experience impacts of tourism for themselves and their direct family (does it contribute to their quality of life?), compared to the benefits for their town and community (Andereck & Jurowski, 2006; Bramston, 2002; Jurowski et al., 1997; Ross, 1999). Frameworks like the Tourism Acceptance Score, developed by German Institute for Tourism Research (Eisenstein & Seeler, 2022) also distinguish between individual and collective benefits.

Economic impacts can be experienced at both levels. Tourism can increase turnover for individual entrepreneurs or work/income for specific residents – while also to an increase of tax income (re-invested in the local community), available jobs and an improvement of the business climate. Living environmental and social impacts are typically collective yet elements of it can still be perceived as personal benefits by individual residents. For example, a resident personally benefiting from a public transport facility, which can only remain operational because it is (also) used by tourists (McKercher et al., 2015).

From actual to perceived impacts

When we consider "actual" impacts of tourism as all changes in a tourism destination caused by the presence and activities of tourists, then only a part of those can be considered as resident benefits. How impacts are perceived by residents is key here. For example, when the presence of tourists leads to more retail facilities, it depends on the awareness and interpretation/evaluation of the residents to what degree that change can be considered as a resident benefit. When retail facilities only cater to tourists (e.g., souvenir shops) residents might not regard this as a positive development. For certain impacts the translation to benefits appears more straightforward, e.g. when tourism leads to an increase in personal income of some residents without a decrease for other residents. Yet even in those cases some residents may feel that the region is becoming too economically dependent on tourism.

Besides impacts regarded as resident benefits there are typically other tourism impacts that are regarded as negative (e.g., tourists littering a beach, tourists causing traffic problems) and impacts on which residents do not have a strong opinion, potentially caused by a neutral perception or unawareness of the impact. An example is tourists generating more income for a large international hotel chain, and residents not viewing this relevant for themselves. An example of the second is tourists fostering governmental investments in the public space, but residents not being aware of this. Several models used to measure the consequences of tourism, like the Resident Empowerment through Tourism Scale (Boley et al., 2014) and the Tourism Acceptance Score (Eisenstein & Seeler, 2022) are in line with the above reasoning, and focus on measuring perceived resident benefits.

Valorization of the framework

In order to evaluate the practical relevance of the framework, we asked several Dutch DMOs for their feedback. Is the framework logical? Does it help them to better understand resident benefit and to take action? According to the DMOs the framework helps to view resident benefits from different angles. They see it as a starting point or guideline to work on maximizing resident benefit together with stakeholders like local governments and entrepreneurs. They feel the framework helps them to determine the value of tourism for a destination and to raise awareness about the importance of tourism. The DMOs also mention that the framework still can be enriched. Discussions with the DMOs highlighted that resident benefits from tourism as well as the interventions that can be undertaken, always depend on the local situation of a destination. In line with the above discussion, perceived benefits are generally considered more important than actual impacts, in the sense that how residents experience impacts, determines their attitude towards tourism rather than objectively measured impacts only. Therefore, it is important to firstly gain insight into the specific local context, actual impacts and perceived benefits. Based on this, it can be determined how resident benefits from tourism can be enhanced.

Discussion

Academic contribution and future research

The presented framework offers an instrument to classify various types of resident benefits that result from tourism. As such, it can serve as a guide to structure and strengthen further academic research into the development of indicators, interventions, explanatory variables, and causal relationships. While the framework has outlined the definition of tourism-driven resident benefits and its dimensions, future research can help to on determine key factors and their interrelationships, particularly the connections between resident benefits and quality of life indicators. Additionally, further investigating the interplay between actual impacts and perceived benefits; and individual versus collective (perceived) benefits are promising areas for future research.

Practice contribution and future application

The proposed framework helps policymakers and tourism practitioners to better understand, measure and evaluate the benefits that residents derive from tourism. Moreover, it can help them to identify possible interventions to increase resident benefits. In doing so, the framework stimulates the involvement of residents in tourism policymaking. It can also help to identify the gap between actual impacts and perceived benefits. Moreover, the framework can aid in designing and implementing interventions to improve or sustain resident benefits. Such interventions can be targeted either towards optimizing tourism impacts or the awareness / evaluation of resident benefits by residents.

Limitations

The proposed framework is based on a wide-ranging, yet not exhaustive literature review. For valorization a selection of practitioners is consulted, bringing valuable insights, yet requiring more consultation and co-creation in the further development and application of the framework.

References

Aleshinloye, K. D., Fu, X., Ribeiro, M. A., Woosnam, K. M., & Tasci, A. D. A. (2020). The Influence of Place Attachment on Social Distance: Examining Mediating Effects of Emotional Solidarity and the Moderating Role of Interaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, 59(5), 828–849.

Aleshinloye, K. D., Woosnam, K. M., Tasci, A. D. A., & Ramkissoon, H. (2022). Antecedents and Outcomes of Resident Empowerment through Tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 61(3), 656–673.

Andereck, K. L., & Vogt, C. A. (2000). The relationship between residents' attitudes toward tourism and tourism development options. *Journal of Travel research*, 39(1), 27-36.

Andereck, K. L., Valentine, K. M., Knopf, R. C., & Vogt, C. A. (2005). Residents' perceptions of community tourism impacts. *Annals of tourism research*, 32(4), 1056-1076.

Andereck, K. L., & Jurowski, C. (2006). Tourism and quality of life. In Jennings, G., & Nickerson, N. P. (Eds.), *Quality tourism experiences* (pp. 137–154). Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

Andereck, K. L., & Nyaupane, G. P. (2011). Exploring the nature of tourism and quality of life perceptions among residents. *Journal of Travel research*, 50(3), 248-260.

Ap, J. (1992). Residents' perceptions on tourism impacts. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 19(4), 665–690.

Boley, B. B., McGehee, N., Perdue, R., & Long, P. (2014). Empowerment and Resident Attitudes Toward Tourism: Strengthening the Theoretical Foundation Through a Weberian Lens. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 49, 33–50.

Boley, B. B., & McGhee, N. (2014). Measuring empowerment: Developing and validating the resident empowerment trough Tourism Scale (RETS). *Tourism Management*, 45, 85-94.

Boley, B. B., Strzelecka, M., & Woosnam M. K. (2018). Resident perceptions of the economic benefits of tourism: Toward a common measure. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 42(8), 1294-1314.

Bramston, P., Pretty, G., & Chipuer, H. (2002). Unravelling subjective quality of life: An investigation of individual and community determinants. *Social Indicators Research*, 59(3), 261–274.

Cardoso, C., & Silva, M. (2018). Residents' perceptions and attitudes towards future tourism development: A challenge for tourism planners. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 10(6), 688–697.

Carmichael, B. (2000). A matrix model for resident attitudes and behaviours in a rapidly changing tourist area. *Tourism Management*, 21(6), 601–611.

Carneiro, M. J. (2015). Understanding the residents' perspective on the social impacts of tourism. *Tourism & Management Studies*, 11(1), 15-22.

Choi, H. C., & Murray, I. (2010). Resident attitudes toward sustainable community tourism. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 18(4), 575-594.

Deery, M., Jago, L., & Fredline, L. (2012). Rethinking social impacts of tourism research: A new research agenda. *Tourism management*, 33(1), 64-73.

Eisenstein, B., & Seeler, S. (2022). Tourismusakzeptanz in der Wohnbevölkerung [Tourism acceptance among the resident population]. *Zeitschrift für Tourismuswissenschaft*, 14(1), 81-100.

Erul, E., & Woosnam, K. M. (2022). Explaining Residents' Behavioral Support for Tourism through Two Theoretical Frameworks. *Journal of Travel Research*, 61(2), 362–377.

Gerritsma, R. (2019), Overcrowded Amsterdam: Striving for a balance between trade, tolerance and tourism. In C. Milano, J. M. Cheer & M. Novelli (Eds.), *Overtourism: Excesses, discontents and measures in travel and tourism*. Wallingford; Boston, MA: CAB International.

Gursoy, D., & Rutherford, D. G. (2004). Host attitudes toward tourism: An improved structural model. *Annals of tourism Research*, 31(3), 495-516.

Gursoy, D., & Kendall, K. W. (2006). Hosting mega events: Modeling locals' support. *Annals of tourism research*, 33(3), 603-623.

Gursoy, D., Chi, C. G., & Dyer, P. (2010). Locals' attitudes toward mass and alternative tourism: The case of Sunshine Coast, Australia. *Journal of travel research*, 49(3), 381-394.

Haley, A. J., Snaith, T., & Miller, G. (2005). The social impacts of tourism a case study of Bath, UK. *Annals of tourism research*, 32(3), 647-668.

Huh, C., & Vogt, C. A. (2007). Changes in residents attitudes towards tourism over time: a cohort analytical approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, 46(4), 446-455.

Jeffres, L., & Dobos, J. (1993). Perceptions of leisure opportunities and the quality of life in a metropolitan area. *Journal of Leisure Research*, 25,203–217.

Joo, D., Xu, W., Lee, J., Lee, C. K., & Woosnam, K. M. (2021). Residents’ perceived risk, emotional solidarity, and support for tourism amidst the COVID-19 pandemic. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 19, Article 100553.
Jurowski, C., Uysal, M., & Williams, D. R. (1997). A theoretical analysis of host community resident reactions to tourism. *Journal of travel research*, 36(2), 3-11.
Jurowski, C., & Gursoy, D. (2004). Distance effects on residents’ attitudes toward tourism. *Annals of tourism research*, 31(2), 296-312.
Kenniscentrum Kusttoerisme (2019). De eerste stap richting een (nog meer) bewuste toeristische bestemming. [First step towards an (even more) conscious touristic destination] https://www.kenniscentrumtoerisme.nl/images/6/6f/Rapportage_inwonersonderzoek_Zeeland_LR.pdf
Kim, K., Uysal, M., & Sirgy, M. J. (2013). How does tourism in a community impact the quality of life of community residents? *Tourism management*, 36, 527-540.
Klijs, J., de Groot, E., Ridderhof, JCM., IJben, H., Noordhoek, M., & Heslinga, J. (2021). Maatschappelijke waarde van toerisme en recreatie. [Societal value of tourism and recreation]. CELTH. http://www.gastvrij-nederland.nl/Maatschappelijkewaarde_compressed.pdf
Koens, K. (2021). Reframing urban tourism. Inaugural Lecture: Re-inventing tourism; towards sustainable urban tourism design. Rotterdam: inHolland.
Koens, K., Postma, A., & Papp, B. (2018). Is overtourism overused? Understanding the impact of tourism in city context. *Sustainability*, 10(12), Article 4384.
Konovalov, E. Murphy, L., & Moscardo G. (2019). An exploration of links between levels of tourism development and impacts on the social facet of resident’s quality of life in: A. M. Campón-Cerro et al.. (Eds.) *Best Practices in Hospitality and Tourism Marketing and Management, Applying Quality of Life Research* (pp. 77-107). Switzerland: Springer Nature.
Lankford, S. V. (1994). Attitudes and perceptions toward tourism and rural regional development. *Journal of travel research*, 32(3), 35-43.
Lankford, S. V., & Howard, D. R. (1994). Developing a tourism impact attitude scale. *Annals of tourism research*, 21(1), 121-139.
Lin, Y. H., Huang, S. S., & Chen, Y. C. (2017). Exploring residents' attitudes toward the impact of tourism development on community life. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 25(6), 781-799.
Long, P. T., Perdue, R. R., & Allen, L. (1990). Rural resident tourism perceptions and attitudes by community level of tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 28(3), 3-9.
Lugosi, P. (2021). Exploring the hospitality-tourism nexus: Directions and questions for past and future research. *Tourist Studies*, 21(1), 24-35.
Mathieson, A., & Wall, G. (1982). *Tourism, economic, physical and social impacts*. New York: Longman Scientific & Technical.
Martin, H. S., de los Salmones Sanchez, M. M. G., & Herrero, A. (2018). Residents’ attitudes and behavioural support for tourism in host communities. *Journal of Travel & Tourism Marketing*, 35(2), 231–243.
McGehee, N. G., & Andereck, K. L. (2004). Factors predicting rural residents’ support of tourism. *Journal of travel research*, 43(2), 131-140.
McKercher, B., Wang, D., & Park, E. (2015). Social impacts as a function of place change. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 50, 52–66.
Moghavvemi, S., Woosnam, K. M., Paramanathan, T., Musa, G., & Hamzah, A. (2017). The effect of residents’ personality, emotional solidarity, and community commitment on support for tourism development. *Tourism Management*, 63, 242-254.
NBTC Holland Marketing (2019). Perspectief Bestemming Nederland 2030. Retrieved from https://www.nbtc.nl/nl/site/download/perspectief-bestemming-nl-2030.htm
NBTC, CELTH & CBS (2022). Waardevol toerisme is werken aan balans. Retrieved from https://data.stagingmag.nl/929/issues/39690/496844/downloads/nbtc_ddl_publicatie_v3_def.pdf
Nijland, D. (2022). Toerisme in Zeeland: De mening van de inwoner. [Tourism in Zeeland: The opinion of the resident]. Master's thesis, Hogeschool Zeeland.
Nunkoo, R., & Ramkissoon, H. (2011). Developing a community support model for tourism. *Annals of tourism research*, 38(3), 964-988.
Nunkoo, R., & Ramkissoon, H. (2011). Residents’ satisfaction with community attributes and support for tourism. *Journal of Hospitality & Tourism Research*, 35(2), 171-190.

Nunkoo, R., & Gursoy, D. (2012). Residents' support for tourism: An identity perspective. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 74, 143-155.
Nunkoo, R., Smith, S. L. J., & Ramkissoon, H. (2013). Residents' attitudes to tourism: a longitudinal study of 140 articles from 1984 to 2010. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 21(1), 5-25.
Oskam, J., & Wiegerink, K. (2020). The unhospitable city. Residents' reactions to tourism growth in Amsterdam. In J. Oskam (Ed.), *The Overtourism Debate, NIMBY, Nuisance, Commodification* (pp. 95-118). Emerald Publishing Limited
Perdue, R. R., Long, P. T., & Allen, L. (1987). Rural resident tourism perceptions and attitudes. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 14(3), 420-429.
Perdue, R. R., Long, P. T., & Allen, L. (1990). Resident support for tourism development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(4), 586-599.
Perdue, R. R., & Gustke, L. D. (1991). The effects of tourism development on objective indicators of local quality of life. In Tourism: building credibility for a credible industry. Proceedings of the Travel and Tourism Research Association twenty-second annual conference, Hyatt Regency Hotel, Long Beach, California, June 9-13, 1991. (pp. 191-201). University of Utah.
Prasad, N. S., & Kumar, N. N. (2022). Resident Perceptions of Environment and Economic Impacts of Tourism in Fiji. *Sustainability*, 14(9), Article 4989.
Qi, S., Ye, S., Law, R., & Li, X. (2019). Exploring the role of resident tolerance in the relationship between tourism impacts and support for tourism. *Journal of Travel Research*, 58(5), 868-883.
Ribeiro, M. A., Pinto, P., Silva, J. A., & Woosnam, K. M. (2017). Residents' attitudes and the adoption of pro-tourism behaviours: The case of developing island countries. *Tourism Management*, 61, 523-537.
Ross, G. F. (1992). Resident perceptions of the impact of tourism on an Australian City. *Journal of Travel Research*, 30(3), 13–17.
Salee, A., Rasoolimanesh, S. M., & Kusumo, C. M. L. (2022). Tourism impacts on destinations: Insights from a systematic review of literature. *Asia-Pacific Journal of Innovation in Hospitality and Tourism*, 11(1), 121–148.
Scheyvens, R. (1999). Ecotourism and the empowerment of local communities. *Tourism management*, 20 (2), 245-249.
Schmücker, D., & Eisenstein, B. (2021). Tourismus Akzeptanz in der Wohnbevölkerung – Messmethoden und Ergebnisse. In Berichte: Geographie und Landeskunde.
Šegota, T., Mihalič, T., & Perdue, R. R. (2022). Resident perceptions and responses to tourism: individual vs community level impacts. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*. Ahead of print. doi: 10.1080/09669582.2022.2149759
Sharpley, R. (2014). Host perceptions of tourism: A review of the research. *Tourism Management*, 42, 37–49.
Shen K, Yang J., & Geng C. (2022). How Residents' Attitudes to Tourists and Tourism Affect Their Pro-tourism Behaviours: The Moderating Role of Chinese Traditionality. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 12.
Sirgy, M. J., & Cornwell, T. (2001). Further validation of the Sirgy et al.'s measure of community quality of life. *Social Indicators Research*, 56(2), 125-143.
Stylidis, D. (2016). The role of place image dimensions in residents' support for tourism development. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 18(2), 129-139.
Stylidis, D., Biran, A., Sit, J., & Szivas, E. M. (2014). Residents' support for tourism development: The role of residents' place image and perceived tourism impacts. *Tourism management*, 45, 260-274.
Uysal, M., Sirgy, M. J., Woo, E., & Kim, H. L. (2016). Quality of life (QOL) and well-being research in tourism. *Tourism Management*, 53, 244-261.
Vogt, C. A., Andereck, K. L., & Pham, K. (2020). Designing quality for life and sustainability. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 83, Article 102963.
Wang, Y., & Pfister, R. E. (2008). Residents' attitudes toward tourism and perceived personal benefits in a rural community. *Journal of Travel Research*, 47(1), 84–93.
Wang, S., Fu, Y., Cecil, A. K., & Avgoustis S. (2006). Residents' perceptions of cultural tourism and quality of life: a longitudinal approach. *Tourism Today*, 6, 47-61.
Wiegerink, K., & Huizing, J. (2020). Resident-driven city hospitality design and delivery. In S. K. Dixit (Ed.), *The Routledge Handbook of Tourism Experience Management and Marketing (RHTEMM)* (pp. 183-194). Taylor & Francis Group.
Williams, J., & Lawson, R. (2001). Community issues and resident opinions of tourism. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 28(2), 269-290.

Woo, E., Kim, H., & Uysal, M. (2015). Life satisfaction and support for tourism development. *Annals of tourism research*, 50, 84-97.
Woosnam K., Norman, W., & Ying, T. (2009). Exploring the theoretical framework of emotional solidarity between residents and tourists. *Journal of Travel Research*, 48(2), 245-258.
Woosnam, K. M., & Norman, W. C. (2010). Measuring residents' emotional solidarity with tourists: Scale development of Durkheim's theoretical constructs. *Journal of Travel Research*, 49(3), 365-380.
Woosnam, K. M. (2012). Using emotional solidarity to explain residents' attitudes about tourism and tourism development. *Journal of Travel Research*, 51(3), 315-327.
World Tourism Organization (2019). UNWTO Guidelines for Institutional Strengthening of Destination Management Organizations (DMOs) – Preparing DMOs for new challenges, UNWTO, Madrid, DOI: https://doi.org/10.18111/9789284420841
Yu, C. P., Cole, S. T., & Chancellor, C. (2018). Resident support for tourism development in rural midwestern (USA) communities: Perceived tourism impacts and community quality of Life perspective. *Sustainability*, 10(3), Article 802.
Zheng, X., Ritchie, B. W. & Benckendorff P. J. (2021). Beyond cost-benefit analyses: Resident emotions, appraisals and support toward tourism performing arts developments. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 24(5), 668-684.

TRACK 6 – General

6.1. The experience of pandemic precarity among female tourism and hospitality workers in Macao

Xiaolian Chen | Macao Institute for Tourism Studies, Macau S.A.R., China

Abstract

This research investigates female tourism and hospitality migrant workers' experiences of pandemic precarity. Data were collected through semi-structured phenomenological interviews with 41 female migrant workers in Macao. The results indicated female migrant tourism and hospitality workers experienced more job losses during the pandemic. Furthermore, most of the participants were unable to receive assistance regarding unemployment insurance, medical insurance, childcare, or basic necessities, which are common welfare for local residents. Additionally, two types of pandemic precarity were identified from the data: economic precarity and social precarity. Two themes related to economic precarity developed from the narratives of the female migrant workers: income uncertainty and job unpredictability. Participants attached more importance to the social precarity and its associated themes: the burden of responsibility, geographical prejudices, and insufficient emotional support.

Keywords: Pandemic precarity; Female migrant workers; Covid-19; Macao

Introduction

The COVID-19 pandemic has brought tremendous changes to many socioeconomic sectors, especially to the tourism and hospitality industries that are characterized by their precarious nature (Robinson et al., 2019). Specifically, the lockdown and social distancing impacted many tourism and hospitality practitioners worldwide (Ullah, et al., 2021). Among these practitioners, more adverse effects fell upon the disadvantaged, such as the cross-bordered migrant workers. Migrant workers, regardless of country and industry, faced enormous social, economic, and structural challenges caused by the pandemic and its associated control measures. Moreover, recent studies show that the COVID-19 pandemic amplifies adverse effects and erodes the environments and outcomes of migrant workers, especially those who are low-skilled or unskilled (Che et al., 2020).

Furthermore, the pandemic impacted the lives of female migrant workers tremendously because women are considered to be less productive and are usually engaged in low-skilled jobs (Azeez EP et al., 2021). And they are viewed as a supplement to the local workforce in many contexts. It has been acknowledged that the pandemic aggravates prevalent gender inequalities, vulnerabilities, and precarity (Kim et al., 2021). For instance, David (2020) summarized the COVID-19 impacts as a gendered epidemic with racialized and classed dimensions. In addition, researchers also used the term "precariat" to describe the people who are lacking in predictability, job security, material or psychological welfare. Given that the COVID-19 lockdowns caused disparities in material deprivation and mental anxieties among social groups, the present study uses "pandemic precarity" to describe the COVID-19 induced precarity.

Literature review

The COVID-19 has brought a pervasive impact on people all over the world. Bundles of studies have addressed the effects of COVID-19 on people's livelihood from different contexts. For example, Hebblethwaite, Young, and Martin Rubio (2021) studied how the COVID-19 affected older people's social engagement. The study by Perry, Aronson and Pescosolido (2021) indicated that the COVID-19 caused inequalities among people in the United States and exacerbated more economic shocks and hardships to the younger adults and women. Cairns et al.'s (2021) study found that the pandemic had caused economic vulnerability, widespread stress and anxiety among international students. Moreover, due to globalization, there is a large number of people moving across borders in search of better job opportunities and offers. The closure border policy due to the pandemic has made significant impacts on the lives of migrant workers who are more vulnerable and face multiple deprivations due to poverty and their status as informal and non-local workers. Che, Du, and Chan (2020)'s study found that the pandemic exacerbated social inequalities and has made the already poor migrants even poorer. Despite this, little is known about the experience of the pandemic precarity of female migrant workers who work in the tourism and hospitality industry, in addition to being described as less and having lower social status in some societies in general (Chakraborty, 2020).

In tourism research, Robinson et al. (2019) demonstrated that the employment practices of tourism practitioners sustain precarity while contributing to economic inequalities. Their study maps precarious employment in tourism to Sustainable Development Goals and "suggests that in many contexts, the precarious nature of much tourism work makes a counter-contribution to the achievement of key SDGs" (Robinson, et al., 2019). As a response to calls from Robinson et al. (2019, p.1010) for more evidence-based studies that "locates the consequences of precarity in the tourism workplace in a wider socio-economic context, scaling location-specific studies to the level of the destination or sub-sector within tourism". To address the abovementioned gap, this study aims to examine the lived experience of the pandemic precarity of female migrant workers in tourism and hospitality in Macao. Macao is chosen as the research context, as it is renowned for its tourism, hospitality, and gambling industries with the highest proportion of foreign workers in the world (David, 2020). During the past decades, migrant workers made significant contributions to the local economy, as they account for 40 to 50% of the total employed population in Macao (Choe, et al., 2020). Among them, almost half of the migrant workers are females with low skills. Thus, this study aims to make contributions to the literature on gender equality, social sustainability and such business models, as seen under the conditions imposed by the COVID-19 pandemic, since there is a lack of study on the impacts of the pandemic to the female low-skilled migrant laborers in Macao and their experiences of pandemic precarity (Drier & Flaming, 2018).

Method

To achieve the research aims of this study, a critical, qualitative research design was adopted, underpinned by the sociological concept of precarity, that emerged and has been applied in the workforce context in recent years. The data collection was carried out from March 2020 to March 2021. A total of 41 female immigrant workers who worked in the hospitality and tourism industries in Macao were interviewed. The interview guidelines comprise questions focusing on the experiences of pandemic precarity among female tourism and hospitality migrant workers during and after the nationwide lockdown. As the pandemic and the lockdown restrictions did not permit in-person interviews, all the interviews were conducted by phone. Two pilot interviews were conducted before the data collection process.

A total of 41 interviews were conducted with 28 of them in Mandarin and 13 in English. Each interview lasted between 35–60 minutes. Each interview was audio-recorded and transcribed verbatim in either Mandarin or English with the consent of each participant. The transcripts in Mandarin were then translated into English. A back translation was conducted for accuracy and equivalent meanings for the interviews in Mandarin. All the interview transcripts were managed with Nvivo software. A thematic analysis was then conducted following the steps mentioned by Braun and Clarke (2006). To ensure the reliability and rigor of the study, the qualitative thematic analysis was performed independently among researchers to avoid possible bias. Disagreements among researchers were discussed afterward and then synthesized and resolved by consensus. The final themes were also sent to the participants for review to keep the initial meaning. Pseudonyms were used to keep the confidentiality of the interviewees.

Findings

The participants

In total, 41 women from five provinces in mainland China (see Table 1) who worked in the tourism and hospitality sector in Macao were recruited through social media advertising as well as the referring from existing participants. Online interviews were conducted mostly to reach the respondents who live in different parts of China. As shown in Table 1, more than half (21) of the respondents were in their twenties and 18 were in their thirties or older, and two were in their early forties. It is unclear whether the age profile of the respondents can fully reflect the situation of female migrant workers in Macao or not as such statistics are not available. An interesting finding from the interviewees' profiles is that nearly half of the respondents were married and ten of them have children, and four were in a relationship while seven were single at the time of interviews. Most respondents reported that they did not receive the same anti-epidemic welfare as local employees.

Table 1. The profiles of participants

Age	N
20-29	21
30-39	18
Above 40	2
Marital status	
Married	20
Married with child	10
In relationship	4
Single	7
Workplace	
Hotel	20
Casino	18
Travel agency	3
Place of origin	
Fujian	13
Hunan	11
Hubei	5
Guangdong	10
Jiangxi	2

In terms of place of origin, thirteen of the participants were from Fujian, while eleven were from Hunan and five from Hubei with the remaining twelve respondents from Jiangxi (2) and Guangdong respectively. Nearly half (20) of the participants worked in hotels while the remaining half (18) worked in casinos, and three in travel agencies. At the time of the interview, their average length of employment was one to three years.

Economic precarity

Due to the relatively high wages and earnings in Macao, although its economy is heavily reliant on the tourism and hospitality industry, it attracts many migrant workers from mainland China, Southeast Asia and Europe. The COVID-19 pandemic and the unprecedented lockdown that followed have had significant impacts on the livelihood of female tourism and hospitality migrant laborers. Therefore, the theme of income uncertainty and job unpredictability delineates the female migrant workers' experience of economic precarity in terms of the loss of income and sometimes in debt. All the respondents expressed the experience of income loss and job unpredictability during the lockdown period and after, as most participants used the language of uncertainty and vulnerability to describe the situation throughout the interview. For example, Bella said:

> I used to work as a full-time receptionist in a hotel. When the lockdown was announced, I was told not to come for work. During the first three months, I got half of my monthly income. After that, I got not paid by the hotel. The manager asked me to wait and said he would notify me to go to work immediately once the pandemic eases. However, the waiting period seemed to be an unpredictable wait. Until today, I had not worked for eight months. I still don't know when I can go back to work. I had no income throughout the periods. Unlike the locals who received social welfare and financial assistance from the Macao government, the company did not buy social insurance for us migrant workers. I had to borrow money from my parent for a living. (30- year-old woman from mainland China, worked in a casino for five years).

The pandemic increased the probability of becoming unemployed. The restrictions of mobility and the long-term closure of public entertainment venues increased the unpredictability of their jobs. All the participants experienced the risks of dismissal and redundancy, which resulted in the debt. For instance, Sue, a 32-year-old woman who worked in a travel agency, said: "I knew some of my colleagues who are local already got notification of going back to work, but I was informed to stay at where I am and wait…."

Social precarity

Social precarity was defined as immigrant workers' higher risks of social exclusion in which they work and live, in particular with its social welfare distributional processes and with the functioning of its political institutions (Matilla-Santander, et al., 2022). Overall, the lockdown and restrictions on mobility lead to feelings of burden (of familial responsibility) and a sense of isolation for most women. Specifically, there were three sub-themes under social precarity: the burden of responsibility, insufficient social support, and geographical prejudices. These burdens and prejudices are disproportionate and inequitable, as participants emphasized that women experienced more familial responsibilities, income shortages, and unemployment shocks than men. First, we consider the burden of responsibility. The changes in daily routine, from being employed to being unemployed, negatively affected females socially and psychologically. The feeling of isolation is even stronger for women with children exacerbated by a arrange of responsibilities, from managing a household with limited resources to raising children. For example, Julia mentioned:

> No income is just one aspect. What's more important is that I must stay at home all day and night. The interaction with neighbors is reduced as well. I feel like I'm in jail. Apart from taking care of my husband and children, there is nothing else I can do. I also have to tutor the children in their studies, which is a great challenge for me. This is a great challenge for me. (40-year-old woman who worked as a waiter).

Second, the feeling of insufficient social support to migrant workers were widely mentioned in participants' narratives. Respondents also highlighted how non-local status significantly impacted their access to social support during the pandemic. For example, Zhu, a 29-year-old woman who worked as a hotel receptionist, stated, "I could not receive any unemployment insurance, childcare, distance learning for my children after the lockdown because we are non-local." Third, participants reported that they experienced geographical prejudices. For instance, Zhou stated:

> Because my identity card shows that I am from Hubei province, although Hubei was no longer an epidemic area at that time and I have never been back to Hubei for years, I am still on the waiting list of being recalled when all of my other colleagues went back to work. (28-year-old woman who worked in a hotel)

Discussion and conclusion

This study is likely to be one of the first to document the experiences of female tourism and hospitality migrant workers during the COVID-19 crisis in China. The research results indicated that although migrant workers experienced income losses following stay-at-home policies, female migrant workers experienced job losses during and after the pandemic as the tourism economy is not yet fully recovered, although the pandemic has been under control in Macao and Mainland China.

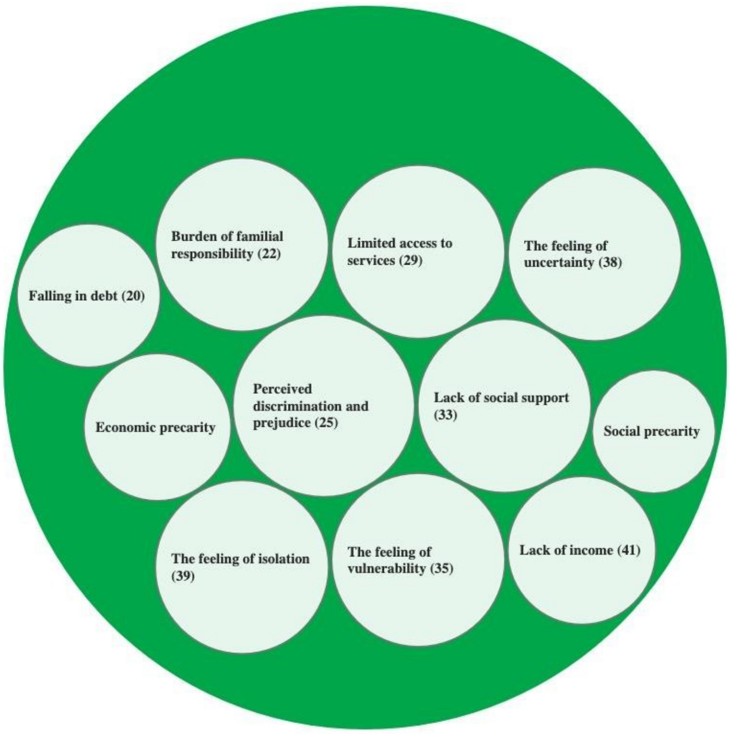


Figure 1. Themes and concerns from participants

Moreover, many were unable to receive assistance regarding unemployment insurance, medical insurance, childcare or basic necessities, which, however, are common welfare for local residents. More specifically, two types of precarity were derived from the data: economic precarity and social precarity. Two themes related to economic precarity developed from the narratives of the female migrant workers: income uncertainty and job unpredictability. The findings of the economic precarity of this study mirror Perry et al.'s (2021) research results but our study revealed the different expressions and manifestations of economic precarity in female migrants' narratives. In addition, participants also attached importance to social precarity and its associated themes: the burden of responsibility, geographical prejudices, and insufficient social support (see Figure 1). This echoes Cairns et al.'s (2021) finding on international students' experience of social precarity in terms of anxiety and stress during the pandemic, but we observed more manifestations from a female perspective.

To sum up, the lived pandemic exacerbated precarious experiences of female tourism and hospitality migrant workers while confirming the existence of gendered and unequal impacts of the COVID-19 crisis to different social groups. And female migrant workers are stigmatized and discriminated against in widespread ways during the difficult times of the pandemic, which leads to the "otherness" they feel. Moreover, the highlighted dismal state and the lack of social security for female tourism and hospitality migrant workers indicated that immediate policy initiatives are essential to resolve the experienced predicament. We argue that extending and strengthening social welfare measures and policies to female migrant workers is necessary and of the utmost importance.

Fundamental Project: This study is funded by the Specialized Subsidy Scheme for the Tourism Education and Training for Guangdong-Hong Kong-Macao Greater Bay Area, Macau Higher Education Bureau (Project. No.: TE-CITYU-2021-02)

References

Azeez EP, A., Negi, D. P., Rani, A., & AP, S. K. (2021). The impact of COVID-19 on migrant women workers in India. *Eurasian Geography and Economics*, 62(1), 93-112.

Braun, V., and Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. *Qualitative Research in Psychology*, 3(2), 77-101.

Cairns, D., França, T., Calvo, D. M., & de Azevedo, L. F. (2021). Immobility, precarity and the Covid-19 pandemic: the impact of lockdown on international students in Portugal. *Journal of Youth Studies*, 1-15.

Chakraborty, S (2020). Increased Care Work, Reduced Wages: Informal Women Workers are Rarely Getting By. *The Wire*. 25 May (2020). [Online]. Retrieved from: https://thewire.in/

Che, L., Du, H., & Chan, K. (2020). Unequal pain: a sketch of the impact of the Covid-19 pandemic on migrants' employment in China. *Eurasian Geography and Economics*, 61(4), 448-463.

Choe, J., O'Regan, M., & Kimbu, A. (2020). Filipino migrant workers' leisure and subjective quality of life in Macao). *World Leisure Journal*, 62(3), 242-260.

Drier, P., & Flaming, D. (2018). Working for the Mouse: A Survey of Disneyland Resort Employees [Online]. Retrieved from: https://www.oxy.edu/urban-environmental-policy-institute

Harvey, D. (2020). Anti-capitalist politics in the time of COVID-19. *Jacobin Magazine*, 20.

Hebblethwaite, S., Young, L., & Rubio, T. M. (2021). Pandemic precarity: Aging and social engagement. *Leisure Sciences*, 43(1), 170-176.

Kimbu, A. N., de Jong, A., Adam, I., Ribeiro, M. A., Afenyo-Agbe, E., Adeola, O., & Figueroa-Domecq, C. (2021). Recontextualising gender in entrepreneurial leadership. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 88, 103176.

Matilla-Santander, N., Jonsson, J., Kreshpaj, B., Orellana, C., Benach, J., Badarin, K., ... & Bodin, T. (2022). The relation between precarious employment arrangements and social precarity:

findings from the PREMIS study in Stockholm, Sweden. *International Journal of Health Services*, 52(2), 201-211.

Perry, B. L., Aronson, B., & Pescosolido, B. A. (2021). Pandemic precarity: COVID-19 is exposing and exacerbating inequalities in the American heartland. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 118(8), e2020685118.

Robinson, R. N., Martins, A., Solnet, D., & Baum, T. (2019). Sustaining precarity: Critically examining tourism and employment. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 27(7), 1008-1025.

Ullah, A., Nawaz, F., & Chattoraj, D. (2021). Locked up under lockdown: The COVID-19 pandemic and the migrant population. *Social Sciences & Humanities Open*, 3(1), 100126.

6.2. Rethinking the concept of destination personality

Mehrnaz Alizadeh | The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong S.A.R., China
Sebastian Filep | The Hong Kong Polytechnic University, Hong Kong S.A.R., China
Ni Made Asti Aksari | Udayana University, Indonesia
Xavier Matteucci | FH Wien der WKW, Austria

Abstract

Destination personality, a set of human characteristics associated with a destination, is a vital factor in forming a unique image of a destination, ultimately affecting tourists' destination choices and travel decisions. Despite the recent attention to this topic in tourism research, destination personality remains an under theorized concept. This research note proposes a new conceptualization of destination personality, taking into account prior studies on this topic. The new conceptualization of destination personality provides directions for researchers wishing to extend the societal benefits of tourism.

Keywords: Brand personality; Destination personality; Residents' perspective

Introduction

This paper aims to critically evaluate the concept of destination personality, proposing a new conceptualization for future researchers. Destination personality has its origins in the concept of brand personality. Brand personality refers to associations of human traits with a brand which the customers can relate to (Aaker, 1997; Sung & Kim, 2010). The brand personality concept was developed initially to apply to tangible goods (Aaker, 1997). As such, it was regarded as unsuitable for tourism research. Over time however, its utility to tourism was well established (Chen & Phou, 2013; Ekinci & Hosany, 2006). In Ekinci and Hosany's seminal work, destination personality is defined as 'the set of human characteristics associated with a destination as perceived from a tourist rather than a resident's viewpoint' (Ekinci & Hosany, 2006, p. 128). Research has gradually established that the personality of a destination as perceived by tourists affects tourists' choices (Malhotra, 1988; Sirgy, 1982), attitudes (Souiden et al., 2017), sense of satisfaction (Hultman et al., 2015) and behavioral intentions (Fournier, 1998; Souiden et al., 2017).

However, while an examination of the established definitions of destination personality reveals that most define destination personality from the tourist perspective, this tourist-centric conceptualization is problematic. Lam and Ryan (2020) contend, 'destination personality is not simply a product of the destination marketing organization, and neither can it be effectively measured through a consumer checklist' (p. 16). It has become apparent that the residents of tourism destinations have been largely ignored in the literature on destination personality. Yet, recent destination marketing literature (e.g., Kavaratzis & Kalandides, 2015; Koens et al., 2021; Saraniemi & Kylänen, 2010) has noted the importance of putting the residents at the center of marketing strategies, which calls for a new conceptualization of destination personality that reflects the views of residents.

Destination personality and marketing

The development of a new conceptualization is highly significant recognizing the importance of the topic to current destination marketing efforts. This is especially important at the time of writing as global destinations aim to recover from the downturn imposed by the global COVID-19 pandemic and political crises. Research has established that creating personalities using human traits for destinations plays an essential role in developing effective positioning strategies (Ekinci, 2003; Rojas-Méndez et al., 2013). It has been argued that destination personality must be tailored to suit the needs of tourists to be effective (Ekinci, 2003) and the effectiveness of these sets of factors requires destination marketers to put substantial efforts in creating a positive and attractive destination personality. Spain has been marketed as a friendly destination, London (England) as open-minded, unorthodox, vibrant, and creative, while Paris (France) as a romantic destination in the eyes of tourists (Morgan & Pritchard, 2002). Nonetheless, none of these characteristics reflect the views of residents as key stakeholders at a destination. Therefore, while the concept of destination personality has utility in both tourism research and practice, Ekinci and Hosany (2006) remark that the concept remains poorly understood and needs refining.

Analyzing the literature on destination personality

To meet the aim of critically evaluating the concept of destination personality and proposing a new conceptualization, an integrative literature review approach (Torraco, 2005) was adopted to analyze the current literature on destination personality. Initially, a total of 86 entries were retrieved from Scopus search result. The next step involved excluding the items that were not published in the English language and those that were not published in tourism journals. Forty-nine English language items were then identified. The third and final step involved close scrutiny by the authorship team of all the 49 items to assess only those items that define destination personality as a concept. The majority (33 out of 49 items adopted the seminal definition from Ekinci and Hosany (2006) while the rest used the remaining definitions outlined in Table 1. The final set of definitions identified in the 49 items is presented in Table 1. These definitions are used as a foundation for re-conceptualizing the destination personality in this paper.

Table 1. Destination personality definitions

Destination personality definitions	Source
"The human side of the brand image" and "brings the destination imagealive"	(Ekinci, 2003, pp. 22-23)
"The set of human characteristics associated with a destination as perceived from a tourist rather than a resident viewpoint"	(Ekinci & Hosany, 2006, p. 128)
"The set of personality traits associated with a tourism destination"	(Ekinci et al., 2007, p. 436)
"Country personality is defined as the mental representation of a country on dimensions that typically capture an individual's personality"	(d'Astous & Boujbel, 2007, p. 233)
"A set of positive and negative human traits, which are associated by the tourists to a destination on the basis of their prior experiences andperceptions with that particular destination"	(Kumar & Nayak, 2018, p. 7)

A new conceptualization of destination personality

The definitions in Table 1 reflect the dominant market orientation philosophy that posits that the best way to generate tourism growth is through the satisfaction of tourists' needs (Mill, 1996). This view neglects the fact that destinations are people's homes, and that the quality of life of the local residents is a condition for quality tourist experiences (Matteucci, Nawijn & von Zumbusch, 2022). In light of the predicament of mass tourism, and its related sustainability challenges, greater responsibility by destination marketers and tourism businesses is therefore required in order to move away from this market orientation, and towards a societal marketing perspective.

A societal marketing perspective is one where 'tourists temper the satisfaction of their own needs with a concern for the greater good' (Mill, 1996, p. 217). Kavaratzis and Kalandides (2015) and Saraniemi and Kylänen (2010) remark that tourism is increasingly entangled within the social and spatial fabrics of everyday lives, which invites community members to take greater responsibilities in shaping their home region. Putting the needs of residents at the center of destination marketing is therefore credible. Residents are empowered to take an active, leading role in decision-making (Volić, 2023). This is because one cannot assume that tourists and marketers will altruistically protect the integrity of the destination and its brand. If the 'identity of the community should be the basic asset for tourism development' (Mill, 1996, p. 219), destination personality should reflect the views and aspirations of the resident population. In light of these views, the following definition of destination personality is proposed: *the set of personality traits associated by the residents and tourists to a destination on the basis of their own identity, values and experiences*.

Conclusion

In summary, while destination personality is crucial to destination's marketing strategy, it has been under theorized. Destination stakeholders, including marketers, are concerned with the success of tourism destinations. However, 'the success of destinations depends on their capacity to effectuate positive change that will widely benefit local communities' (Matteucci et al., 2022, p. 170). To maximize the benefits of tourism development to local communities, the market-oriented thinking should give way to societal marketing thinking that is likely to foster 'pluralistic, culturally situated ethics of place, people and care for human and non-human others' (Jamal, 2020, p. 223). Redefining the concept of destination personality, therefore, to include both residents' perspectives and tourists' perceptions is one important step forward towards this goal.

References

Aaker, J. L. (1997). Dimensions of brand personality. Journal of Marketing Research, 34(3), 347-356.

Chen, C.-F., & Phou, S. (2013). A closer look at destination: Image, personality, relationship and loyalty. *Tourism Management*, 36, 269-278.

d'Astous, A., & Boujbel, L. (2007). Positioning countries on personality dimensions: Scale development and implications for country marketing. *Journal of Business Research*, 60(3), 231-239.

Ekinci, Y. (2003). From destination image to destination branding: An emerging area of research. *E-review of Tourism Research*, 1(2), 21-24.

Ekinci, Y., & Hosany, S. (2006). Destination Personality: An Application of Brand Personality to Tourism Destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, 45(2), 127-139.

Ekinci, Y., Sirakaya-Turk, E., & Baloglu, S. (2007). Host image and destination personality. *Tourism Analysis*, 12(5-6), 433-446.

Fournier, S. (1998). Consumers and Their Brands: Developing Relationship Theory in Consumer Research. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 24(4), 343-353.

Hultman, M., Skarmeas, D., Oghazi, P., & Beheshti, H. M. (2015). Achieving tourist loyalty through destination personality, satisfaction, and identification. *Journal of Business Research*, 68(11), 2227-2231.

Jamal, T. (2020). Tourism ethics: A perspective article. *Tourism Review*, 75(1), 221-224.

Kavaratzis, M., & Kalandides, A. (2015). Rethinking the place brand: the interactive formation of place brands and the role of participatory place branding. *Environment and Planning A: Economy and Space*, 47(6), 1368-1382.

Koens, K., Melissen, F., Mayer, I., & Aall, C. (2021). The Smart City Hospitality Framework: Creating a foundation for collaborative reflections on overtourism that support destination design. *Journal of Destination Marketing & Management*, 19, 100376.

Kumar, V., & Nayak, J. K. (2018). Destination Personality: Scale Development and Validation. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Research*, 42(1), 3-25.

Lam, I. K. V., & Ryan, C. (2020). Can marketing create destination personality? The case of Macau. *Tourism Critiques: Practice and Theory*, 1(1), 5-20.

Malhotra, N. K. (1988). Self-concept and product choice: An integrated perspective. *Journal of Economic Psychology*, 9(1), 1-28.

Matteucci, X., Nawijn, J., & von Zumbusch, J. (2022). A new materialist governance paradigm for tourism destinations. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 30(1), 169-184.

Mill, R. C. (1996). Societal marketing — implications for tourism destinations. *Journal of Vacation Marketing*, 2(3), 215-221.

Morgan, N., & Pritchard, A. (2002). Contextualizing destination branding. In N. Morgan, A. Pritchard, & R. ride (Eds.), *Destination branding: Creating the unique destination proposition* (pp. 11-41). Butterworth- Heinemann.

Rojas-Méndez, J. I., Murphy, S. A., & Papadopoulos, N. (2013). The U.S. brand personality: A Sino perspective. *Journal of Business Research*, 66(8), 1028-1034.

Saraniemi, S., & Kylänen, M. (2010). Problematizing the Concept of Tourism Destination: An Analysis of DifferentTheoretical Approaches. *Journal of Travel Research*, 50(2), 133-143.

Sirgy, M. J. (1982). Self-Concept in Consumer Behavior: A Critical Review. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 9(3), 287-300.

Souiden, N., Ladhari, R., & Chiadmi, N. E. (2017). Destination personality and destination image. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 32, 54-70.

Sung, Y., & Kim, J. (2010). Effects of brand personality on brand trust and brand affect. *Psychology & Marketing*, 27(7), 639-661.

Torraco, R. (2005). Writing integrative literature reviews: Guidelines and examples. *Human Resource Development Review*, 4(3), 356–367.

Volić, I. (2023). Tourism Policy Values in Serbia — From Equity to Competition. *Tourism Planning & Development*, 20(5), 901-918.

6.3. An aggregate analysis of Airbnb attributes: A Penalty-Reward approach

Md Ashekur Rahman | University of Memphis, USA
Radesh Palakurthi | University of Memphis, USA

Abstract

Shared Economy is a growing concept in modern times, and it is having a radical impact on the lodging industry. Airbnb is considered the leading model for short-term rentals within the shared economy sector, with a presence in more than 220 countries. The primary purpose of this research is to perform an empirical analysis of the relative importance of the standard quality attributes used to evaluate the service quality of Airbnb properties by their guests. This research paper uses PRCA (Penalty-Reward Contrast Analysis) model to assess Airbnb's guest satisfaction scores by considering six quality attributes (Accuracy, Cleanliness, Check-in, Communication, Location, and Value). The research categorizes the quality attributes into Basic, Performance, and Excitement factors using the individual quality attribute scores and the overall guest quality ratings. This research shows that the guest satisfaction ratings in Tennessee were generally high, ranging from 9.0 to 9.8 on a 10-point scale.

Keywords: Airbnb; Short-term rental; Quality ratings; PRCA; Penalty-Reward Analysis; Service quality

Introduction

Airbnb is a booming industry in the short-term rental accommodation sector (Guttentag & Smith, 2017). Thousands of travelers worldwide use Airbnb's accommodations rather than traditional establishments, such as hotels, resorts, and guesthouses (Guttentag, 2015). In 2015, Airbnb was third in online accommodation sales, next only to Expedia and Priceline, respectively (Ju et al., 2019; Quinby, 2016). Consequently, the total market value of Airbnb in 2015 was thirty billion dollars, second only to Priceline (Ju et al., 2019). The number of people using Airbnb has increased rapidly over the past few years. For example, in 2009, the number of guest arrivals was 21,000, but in 2018, the figure was 400 million (Leonardo, 2017). In 2022, the number of properties listed on Airbnb was 6.6 million worldwide, and 1.4 billion guests used Airbnb from starting its business (Airbnb, 2023).

In 2015, the total revenue of Airbnb was $900 million, but the company faced $150 million in operating deficits (Mitra, 2016). However, by 2016, Airbnb's revenue growth had increased by 80%, and the company tasted its first profit from operations that year (Stone & Zaleski, 2017). It was projected that by 2020, Airbnb's profit would grow to $3.5 billion, and the profit growth percentage would increase to 34,000% since inception (Gallagher, 2017). However, due to the Covid-19 pandemic, Airbnb's business scenario has changed recently. In March 2017, the market valuation of Airbnb was $31 billion; on the contrary, in April 2020, the market valuation dropped drastically by 42%, and the figure was $18 billion (Deirdre & Salvador, 2020). According to IPX 1031 recent survey in 2020, from May 1st to 13th, 47% of Airbnb hosts do not feel secure renting their properties to guests during the pandemic. Similarly, about 70% of guests fear booking Airbnb for their accommodation.

Moreover, 64% of Airbnb's visitors either have canceled or plan to drop the booking since the pandemic began (Lane, 2021). The financial loss is not limited to the hosts and guests but also severely affects the company's operation. In 2020, the company laid off about 1,900 employees out of 7,500 to reduce the operation cost (Deirdre & Salvador, 2020).

Airbnb has both positive and negative impacts on the local economy. Kaplan and Nadler (2015) stated that Airbnb has a tremendous financial impact on the local community. From 2012 to 2013, about 400,000 Airbnb guests spent $632 million and supported over 4,500 jobs in New York City (Kaplan & Nadler, 2015). Not surprisingly, Airbnb's recent exponential growth has affected the hotel industry, especially in sales growth (Xie & Kwok, 2017; Zervas, Proserpio & Byers, 2017; Blal, Singal & Templin, 2018; Farronato & Fradkin, 2018). Zervas et al. (2017) researched how Airbnb has impacted the hotel industry in Austin, Texas. The research found that Airbnb's presence in Austin resulted in an 8% to 10% loss in revenue for the lodging industry. The research also found that Airbnb's 10% property growth can decrease hotel room revenue by 0.39% in Texas. A similar study from Farronato and Fradkin (2018) showed that hotel profits could be affected by Airbnb. In 2014, hotel profits in the U.S. were reduced to 3.7% because of Airbnb, and hotel revenue could be 1.5% higher without the existence of Airbnb in the hospitality market in many areas. One of the most unclear issues regarding short-term rental is the quality of service. More importantly, which quality attributes are more important to those who want to stay at Airbnb is still being determined. Therefore, one of the primary purposes of this research is to categorize the six standard service quality attributes used by Airbnb into the three-factor categories, Basic, Performance, and Excitement, as identified by using the Penalty-Reward Contrast Analysis methodology (Caruana & Ewing, 2010).

Description of data

The data for this research was purchased from AirDNA for May 2014-18, exclusively for the State of Tennessee. The data included customer ratings for all Airbnb properties in Tennessee during the period. Airbnb uses a six-variable for assessing the quality of its properties. They include Accuracy, Cleanliness, Check-in, Communication, Location, and Value. The scope of this research is limited to analyzing the quality ratings of selected property types. The property types included House, Apartment, B&B, Bungalow, Cabin, Camper/RV, Condominium, Guest Suite, Guesthouse, House, Loft, Place, Tent, Private Room, and Others. Table 1 represents the total percentage of the selected property types.

Table 1. Scrutinize Data on Airbnb's Property Listing in Tennessee

SL	Property Type	No. of Property	Percentage
1	House	14,340	45.20%
2	Apartment	5,783	18.23%
3	Cabin	4,683	14.76%
4	Condominium	1,848	5.83%
5	Guest suite	451	1.42%
6	Loft	432	1.36%
7	B&B	310	0.98%
8	Bungalow	293	0.92%
9	Guesthouse	334	1.05%
10	Tent	303	0.96%
11	Place	570	1.80%
12	Private room	733	2.31%
13	Camper/RV	258	0.81%
14	Others	1,387	4.37%
Total		**31,725**	**100%**

Source: AirDNA Data from May 2014 to May 2018

Literature review

An excellent summative analysis by Albayrak and Caber (2013) listed the critical studies that applied the Penalty-Reward Contrast Analysis Model up to 2013. Table 2 and summarizes the studies and 2.1 updates the listing with more recent work. Besides these, other researchers also implemented the PRCA model to analyze service quality and customer satisfaction and to find other vital factors in the hospitality industry. In 2021, Ma & He applied the penalty-Reword model to identify the tourist congestion pricing strategies in attractive locations (Ma & He, 2021). The researchers aimed to establish a new model by applying the PRCA technique that reflects social and economic costs and benefits. In the finding, the authors mentioned that policymakers of tourism industries could design more effective and publicly acceptable pricing strategies to manage tourist congestion in scenic places by implementing a penalty- reward analysis approach.

Pandy, Sahu and Joshi (2020) conducted a review paper that discussed a systematic review of the Kano Model in the tourism industry. The authors considered 36 peer-reviewed journal articles between 2003 to 2018 that applied the Kano model and other methodologies to improve service quality in the tourism sector. Determining hotel room prices is a concerning issue for the hotel industry, and the traditional static pricing model might not be effective in maximizing the revenue for room selling. Park, Kim and Lee (2020) propose a dynamic pricing model base on the penalty-reward system that will optimize revenue by adjusting room rates based on various factors such as seasonality, demand, and competition. The results show that the penalty-reward-based optimization model surpasses the traditional static pricing approach regarding revenue optimization. Through this penalty-reward model, hotels will be penalized for low pricing room selling during high demand and rewarded for high price room selling during low demand.

Table 2. Recent studies that used Penalty-Reward Contrast Analysis Model

Researcher(s)	Focus area and findings	Data size
Fuchs & Weiermair (2004)	The focused area was the service quality attributes that delivered by tourist destination and its influence on customer satisfaction. The research identified that higher quality service attributes of destination increase tourist satisfaction.	2571
Matzler, Renzl, & Rothenberger (2006)	The research discussed customer satisfaction related to some critical factors, such as service dimensions and guest satisfaction on purchasing price in the hotel industry. The study implemented the three-Factor theory for measuring customer satisfaction.	1,555
Füller & Matzler (2008)	The research focused on customer satisfaction on the top ten alpine ski resorts in Italy, Switzerland, and Australia. The research revealed that the three factors of service quality attributes (Basic, Performance, and Excitement) have a different role depending on the market segment.	6,172
Mikulić & Prebežac (2011)	The research identified tourist satisfaction and dissatisfaction in the three categories of hotel animation programs (sports program, evening entertainment program, and children's entertainment program) in the coastal area.	994
Back (2012)	Evaluated key-factors for customer satisfaction in the Korean restaurants in the southern metropolitan city in the USA. The results revealed that impact asymmetry analysis (IAA) and impact-range Performance analysis (IRPA) methods can overcome the limitations that are related to importance-Performance analysis to assess customer satisfaction.	239

Table 2.1. Updated recent studies that used Penalty-Reward Contrast Analysis Model

Ye, Fu, & Law (2016)	The research focused on using online travel agents (OTAs) in Chinses tourism sectors. The result revealed that the performance attributes of various websites have a different level of influence on guests' satisfaction. Moreover, the OTA websites' supervisors need to focus on the dimensions of guests relations.	289
Zhang & Cole (2016)	The focus area of the research is the service quality that delivers to physically disable guest in the lodging industry. The research showed a strategic order of service quality attributes that the lodging industry needs to address for guest satisfaction with mobility challenges, even with the limited resources.	543
Tontini, Bento, Milbratz, Volles, & Ferrari (2017)	The research emphases on the impact of service quality factors on guests' satisfaction in the three-star level hotels in Brazil. The study revealed some quality attributes that are frequently used by guests for the reviews and rating on the various website such as TripAdvisor regarding service quality have very low or no influence on customer satisfaction. However, the attributes that are not very often mentioned in the reviews site can have a huge impact on guests' satisfaction.	400
Ju *et al.* (2018)	The focus of the research is on Airbnb's various service quality attributes both in the USA and Canadian markets. The researchers revealed that Airbnb's website design, functionality, user-friendliness, and responsiveness are very influential quality attributes for guests' satisfaction. The results also mentioned that the service quality of Airbnb either has a positive asymmetric effect or negative asymmetric effect for overall guests' satisfaction.	322
Davras & Caber (2019).	The researchers focus on service quality attributes and its symmetrical and asymmetrical impacts on overall guests' satisfaction in various hotels in Turkey, Germany, and Russia. After implementing the Penalty-Reward Contrast Analysis model, the research revealed that Entertainment Services works as a Basic Factor, Service Staff as Excitement factors.	621

Zhang et al. (2022) implemented the PRCA technique to analyze online review data about hotel service quality. The researchers argue that online review data is complex and traditional methods such as sentiment analysis will not be adequate to gather customer feedback information. As a result, hotel management will face difficulties in identifying specific areas for improvement. To overcome this issue, the authors proposed the penalty-reward contrast model to characterize the positive and negative customer feedback on hotel service qualities. For positive feedback, hotels have been rewarded and penalized for negative feedback. The contrast technique helped compare positive and negative customer feedback to determine specific improvement areas.

Conceptual Model

The conceptual model for this study was developed based on extensive literature review and the data available for this research from AirDNA. All six of these quality attributes were determined to have an influence on the overall satisfaction ratings of the customers through previous research (Ju et al., 2019).

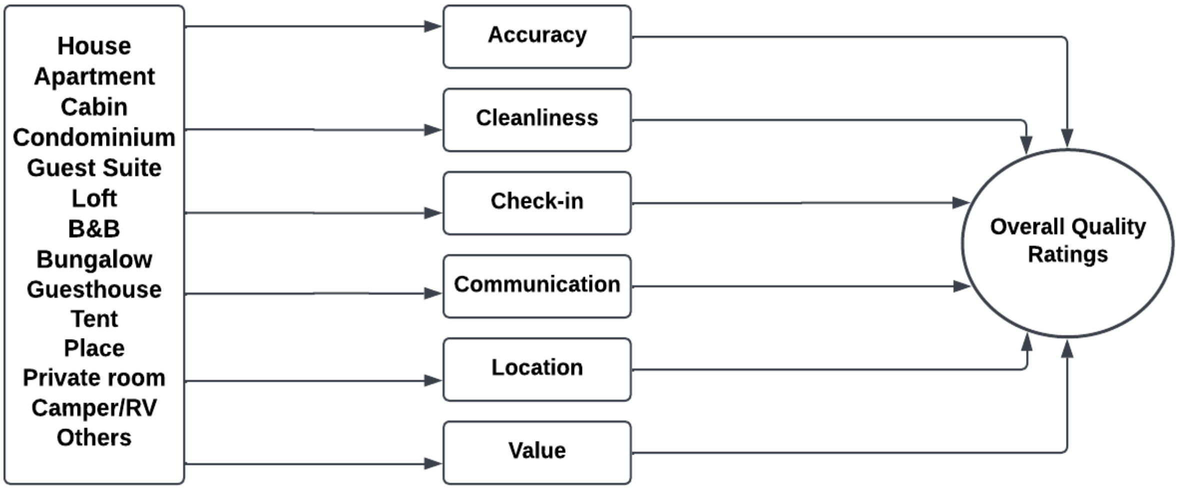


Figure 1. The conceptual model

The conceptional model depicts the relationship between the six quality attributes and the overall satisfaction ratings. No other factors were considered in this study.

Description of factors

The Keno Model mentions three types of service attributes: Basic Factor, Performance Factor and Excitement Factor (Zhang & Cole, 2016). Table 3 describes the three factors with examples. Focusing on this approach for the attributes may enhance the quality improvement decisions that the management at a property may make.

Hypotheses:

In this study, two hypotheses were tested. In the second part of this paper, two additional hypotheses are tested about the impact of property type of quality ratings.

Hypothesis 1- Higher quality attribute ratings will lead to higher overall satisfaction ratings. To test the hypothesis, the overall quality ratings were regressed with the quality attribute ratings separately (for Communication, Accuracy, Cleanliness, chick-in, Location, and Value).

Hypothesis 2- Considering all types of accommodations offered by Airbnb, the six quality attributes will be as follows:

H2 (a) - Cleanliness will be a Basic Factor.
H2 (b) - Communication will be a Basic Factor.
H2 (c) - Accuracy will be a Performance Factor.
H2 (d) - Check-in will be a Performance Factor.
H2 (e) - Location will be an Excitement Factor.
H2 (f) - Value will be an Excitement Factor.

The methodology used for the regressions is as follows: The average score for each of the six-quality attributes was computed for the entire data set. Two dummy variables were created for each of the six quality attributes, one for lower-than-average and one for higher-than-average scores. For example, the Low-Cleanliness dummy was coded as 0 = higher than average and 1 = lower than average. On the other hand, High-Cleanliness was coded as 0 = lower than the average score and 1 = higher than the average score. Regressions were run with overall scores as the dependent variables and the respective two high and low dummy variables as the independent variables. The differences between the regression coefficients between the two dummy variables determined the quality attribute factor categories (Basic, Performance, or Excitement). A standard SPSS package was used to compute the results.

Table 3. Service attributes: Basic Factor, Performance Factor, and Excitement Factor

The Basic Factor refers to the essential requirements of guests' needs and if the requirements are not fulfilled, it leads to the guests' dissatisfaction; however, when achieved, it does not necessarily lead to guests' satisfaction (Zhang & Cole, 2016). For instance, in the hotel industry, room Cleanliness will work as Basic Factor. It is a very basic expectation by guests from hotels. If a hotel fails to ensure a clean and tidy room for guests, it will lead the guests' dissatisfaction. If the hotel does it correctly, it will not create any changes in guests' attitude for the good service quality. Whereas, if the hotel fails to ensure the service, it will lead to guests' dissatisfaction.	**Basic Factor**  Below Expectation Performance Above Expectation Performance
The Performance Factor is responsible for both guests' satisfaction and dissatisfaction. If the guests' need is fulfilled, it leads to satisfaction, whereas, if not fulfilled, it leads to dissatisfaction (Matzler & Sauerwein, 2002). As an example, the food serving quality attribute of a hotel can be responsible for both customers' satisfaction and dissatisfaction. If the employees of a hotel serve foods to guests' tables in a prompt manner, it will lead to guests' satisfaction for the quick service quality. On the contrary, if the employees fail to serve foods on time as per guests' orders, then it will create guests' dissatisfaction with the unexpected delay in service quality.	**Performance Factor**  Below Expectation Performance Above Expectation Performance
The Excitement Factor is responsible for adding extra value to the guests' experience. If it is fulfilled, it leads to much higher levels of satisfaction; however, if not performed, it does not lead to guests' dissatisfaction since they may not be expecting that attribute of service (Matzler & Sauerwein, 2002; Zhang & Cole, 2016). As an example, when a guest arrives in a hotel and the front desk agents welcome the guest by his/her name, then this level of service might enhance guest's satisfaction. In addition, the hotel could also offer a complimentary fruit basket or a scented candle in his/her room as an add-on bonus to increase the surprise and unexpected element. These additional services can create a positive value in the guest's experience as the services were unexpected from the hotel. On the other hand, if the hotel does not provide these services, it will not lead to guests' dissatisfaction.	**Excitement Factor** No Expectation  Below Expectation Performance Above Expectation Performance

Results

The results of the hypothesis tests are presented in this section. The regression results for Hypothesis 1 are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Aggregate Regression Results of Overall Ratings by Six Quality Attribute Ratings

Quality Attribute	Collinearity	Coefficient	Beta	Regression Result
Communication	0.624***	7.261***	0.624***	F (1, 19238) = 12277.20; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2 = 0.39
Accuracy	0.733***	7.473***	0.733***	F (1, 19249) = 22327.24; p <= 0001; Adj. R^2 = 0.53
Cleanliness	0.702***	6.475***	0.702***	F (1, 19266) = 18766.50; p <= 0001; Adj. R^2 = 0.49
Check-in	0.567***	6.897***	0.567***	F (1, 19169) = 9060.13; p <= 0001; Adj. R^2 = 0.32
Location	0.497***	5.094***	0.497***	F (1, 19164) = 6273.94; p <= 0001; Adj. R^2 = 0.24
Value	0.749***	7.03***	0.749***	F (1, 19156) = 24443.94; p <= 0001; Adj. R^2 = 0.56

*** Significant at p <= 0.001

Table 4 shows the regression results for six quality attributes, which are significant. The highest beta score is 0.74 {F (1, 19156) = 24443.94; p <= 0001; Adj. R2 = 0.56}, and the attribute Value received the score, whereas the lowest beta score is 0.497 {F (1, 19164) = 6273.94; p <= 0001; Adj. R2 = 0.24} that received by the quality attribute Location. The ranges of Adj. R2 are from 0.24 to 0.56. The regression results show that all the quality attributes significantly correlate with the overall quality ratings. The correlations ranged from r = 0.497 (n = 19,166; p <= 0.001) for Location, to r = 0.749 (n = 19,158; p <= 0.001) for Value.

Table 5. Penalty-Reward Parameters and status of attributes

Six Attributes	Penalty	Reward	Regression Result
Communication	-0.513	11.400***	F (2, 19281) = 2893.45; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.23
Accuracy	8.805***	19.961***	F (2, 19281) = 4175.09; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.30
Cleanliness	20.428***	28.967***	F (2, 19281) = 2903.92; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.23
Check-in	-6.223***	4.966***	F (2, 19281) = 2176.02; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.18
Location	-0.109	5.167***	F (2, 19281) = 974.27; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.09
Value	-2.654***	6.420***	F (2, 19281) = 3217.65; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.25

*** Significant at p<=0.001

Table 5 shows the results for Hypothesis II. The regression results for Communication show a penalty parameter of -0.513 and a reward parameter of 11.400 (F (2, 19281) = 2893.45; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.23). Accuracy had a penalty parameter of 8.805 and a reward parameter of 19.961 (F (2, 19281) = 4175.09; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.30). Cleanliness had a penalty parameter of 20.428 and a reward parameter of 28.967 (F (2, 19281) = 2903.92; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.23). Check-in had a penalty parameter of -6.223 and a reward parameter of 4.966 (F (2, 19281) = 2176.02; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.18). The Location attribute had a penalty parameter of -0.109 and a reward parameter of 5.167 (F (2, 19281) = 974.27; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.09). Lastly, Value had a penalty parameter of -2.654 and a reward parameter of 6.420 (F (2, 19281) = 3217.65; p <= 0.001; Adj. R^2= 0.25). All parameters are significant at p<=0.001.

Conclusions

The first hypothesis results show the aggregate regression of overall ratings by six quality attribute ratings. The regression results indicate a significant positive correlation between all six quality attributes and the overall quality ratings. The coefficients indicate that for every one-unit increase in overall score, Communication increases by 7.26 units, Accuracy increases by 7.47 units, Cleanliness increases by 6.47 units, Check-in increases by 6.89 units, Location increases by 5.09 units, and Value increases by 7.00 units. The Adjusted R-squared values range from 0.24 to 0.56, indicating that the quality attributes account for a substantial proportion of the variance in the overall ratings.

From hypothesis 2, we can conclude that all six quality attributes have significant penalties and rewards, indicating that they are important factors affecting customer satisfaction in the Airbnb industry in Tennessee. Specifically, Cleanliness, Accuracy, and Value have the highest rewards, indicating that these are excitement factors, while Check-in has the highest penalty, indicating that it is a performance factor. Communication and Location have lower penalties and rewards, indicating that they are basic factors. These results support Hypothesis 2, which predicted that the six quality attributes would fall into basic, performance, and excitement factors. The regression results indicate that these attributes significantly impact overall satisfaction ratings, as demonstrated in the results of Hypothesis 1.

The overall practical implication of this research is that Airbnb owners/providers should be confident about their performance regarding their customer's overall satisfaction. The customers have generally rated the properties over 90% overall and for all six quality attributes. While this high rating is commendable, it also implies a highly competitive market where minute variations in the ratings may lead to loss or gain of customers. When considering the six attributes independently, Cleanliness is the most influential in increasing overall satisfaction, followed by Value. The least important attribute is Location. It would behoove the owners, irrespective of the type of property owned in Tennessee, to pay close attention to the most critical factors to enhance customer ratings.

Limitations and future research

Overall, the study provides valuable insights for Airbnb owners/providers to enhance customer satisfaction by focusing on the most critical factors, such as cleanliness and value. However, future research could consider additional factors such as safety, security, and relative price. It would also be beneficial to obtain demographic information of Airbnb guests and hosts to understand the relationship between demographics and quality attributes. Additionally, future studies could examine why guests rent Airbnb properties to understand better why they choose Airbnb over traditional hotels. Finally, the index methodology used in this study may have limitations due to the high property quality ratings with low variance, and future studies could explore alternative methodologies.

References

Airbnb. (2023, February 14). About Us. Retrieved March 2, 2023, from https://news.airbnb.com/about-us/

Albayrak, T., & Caber, M. (2013). Penalty–reward-contrast analysis: A review of its application in Customer Satisfaction Research. *Total Quality Management & Business Excellence*, 24(11-12), 1288-1300.

Back, K. (2012). Impact-range performance analysis and asymmetry analysis for improving quality of Korean food attributes. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 31(2), 535-543.

Blal, I., Singal, M., & Templin, J. (2018). Airbnb's effect on hotel sales growth. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 73, 85-92.

Caruana, A., & Ewing, M. T. (2010). How corporate reputation, quality, and value influence online loyalty. *Journal of Business Research*, 63(9-10), 1103-1110.

Davras, Ö., & Caber, M. (2019). Analysis of hotel services by their symmetric and asymmetric effects on overall customer satisfaction: A comparison of market segments. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 81, 83-93.

Deirdre, B., & Salvador, R. (2020, May 05). Airbnb to lay off nearly 1,900 people, 25% of company. Retrieved from: https://www.cnbc.com/2020/05/05/airbnb-to-lay-off-nearly-1900-people-25percent-of-company.html

Farronato, C., & Fradkin, A. (2018, February 26). The welfare effects of peer entry in the accommodation market: The case of Airbnb. Retrieved from: https://www.nber.org/papers/w24361

Fuchs, M., & Weiermair, K. (2004). Destination benchmarking: An indicator-system's potential for exploring guest satisfaction. *Journal of Travel Research*, 42(3), 212-225.

Füller, J., & Matzler, K. (2008). Customer delight and market segmentation: An application of the three-factor theory of customer satisfaction on lifestyle groups. *Tourism Management*, 29(1), 116-126.

Gallagher, L. (2017, June 09). Here's how much Airbnb's management believes the company's profit will grow. Retrieved from: https://fortune.com/2017/02/15/airbnb-profits/

Guttentag, D. (2015). Airbnb: Disruptive innovation and the rise of an informal tourism accommodation sector. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 18(12), 1192-1217.

Guttentag, D. A., & Smith, S. L. (2017). Assessing Airbnb as a disruptive innovation relative to hotels: Substitution and Comparative Performance Expectations. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 64, 1-10.

Ju, Y., Back, K., Choi, Y., & Lee, J. (2019). Exploring Airbnb service quality attributes and their asymmetric effects on customer satisfaction. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 77, 342-352.

Kaplan, R. A., & Nadler, M. L. (2015). Airbnb: A case study in occupancy regulation and taxation. Retrieved from: https://heinonline.org/HOL/LandingPage?handle=hein.journals%2Fuchidial82&div=8&id=&page=

Lane, L. (2021, June 28). How bad are covid-19 pandemic effects on Airbnb guests, hosts? Retrieved from: https://www.forbes.com/sites/lealane/2020/06/09/how-bad-are-covid-19-pandemic-effects-on-airbnb-guests-hosts/#36bf852a7432

Leonardo (2017, November 16). The explosive growth of Airbnb - an infographic for hoteliers: Vizlly. Retrieved from: https://www.vizlly.com/blog-Airbnb-infographic/

Ma, J., & He, X. (2021). Penalty-reward analysis of tourist congestion pricing strategies in scenic spots.

Matzler, K., & Sauerwein, E. (2002). The factor structure of customer satisfaction. *International Journal of Service Industry Management*, 13(4), 314-332.

Matzler, K., Renzl, B., & Rothenberger, S. (2006). Measuring the relative importance of service dimensions in the formation of price satisfaction and service satisfaction: A case study in the hotel industry. Scandinavian *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism*, 6(3), 179-196.

Mikulić, J., & Prebežac, D. (2011). A critical review of techniques for classifying quality attributes in the kano model. *Managing Service Quality: An International Journal*, 21(1), 46-66.

Mitra, S. (2016). Here are the numbers behing Airbnb's staggering growth | inc.com. Retrieved from: https://www.inc.com/linkedin/sramana-mitra/billion-dollar-unicorn-airbnb-continues-soar-sramana-mitra.html

Pandey, A., Sahu, R., & Joshi, Y. (2020). Kano model application in the tourism industry: A Systematic Literature Review. *Journal of Quality Assurance in Hospitality & Tourism*, 23(1), 1-31.

Park, J. H., Kim, K. H., & Lee, J. W. (2020). A penalty-reward-based optimization model for the dynamic pricing problem of hotel rooms. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 44, 39-50.

Quinby, D. (2016, August 11). The end of alternative accommodation: Airbnb is now the third-largest online accommodation seller worldwide. Retrieved from: https://www.phocuswright.com/Travel-Research/Research-Updates/2016/The-End-of-Alternative-Accommodation

Stone, B., & Zaleski, O. (2017, January 26). Airbnb enters the land of profitability. Retrieved from: https://www.bloomberg.com/news/articles/2017-01-26/airbnb-enters-the-land-of-profitability

Tontini, G., Bento, G. D., Milbratz, T. C., Volles, B. K., & Ferrari, D. (2017). Exploring the nonlinear impact of critical incidents on customers' General Evaluation of Hospitality Services. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 66, 106-116.

Xie, K. L., & Kwok, L. (2017). The effects of Airbnb's price positioning on hotel performance. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 67, 174-184.

Ye, B. H., Fu, H., & Law, R. (2016). Use of impact-range performance and asymmetry analyses to improve OTA website quality. *Journal of Hospitality and Tourism Management*, 26, 9-17.

Zervas, G., Proserpio, D., & Byers, J. W. (2017). The rise of the sharing economy: Estimating the impact of Airbnb on the hotel industry. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 54(5), 687-705.

Zhang, W. T., Choi, I. Y., Hyun, Y. J., & Kim, J. K. (2022). Hotel service analysis by penalty-reward contrast technique for online review data. *Sustainability*, 14(12), 7340.

Zhang, X., Choi, M., Hyun, S. S., & Lee, S. (2022). Understanding online hotel reviews: A penalty-reward contrast analysis of service quality attributes. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, 98, 103160.

Zhang, Y., & Cole, S. T. (2016). Dimensions of lodging guest satisfaction among guests with Mobility Challenges: A mixed-method analysis of web-based texts. *Tourism Management*, 53, 13-27.

6.4. Swedish Fika – Much more than a cup of coffee

Henrik Scander | Örebro University, Sweden
Mia Larson | Karlstad University, Sweden
Christina Öberg | Linnaeus University, Sweden

Abstract
Swedish Fika is more than a cup of coffee and a way of meeting. It is deeply rooted in cultural, inherited values with signals on a relaxed atmosphere and non-hierarchical organizational structures. It also creates large opportunities for Sweden as a tourism destination and for exporting products linked to the notion of Sweden. Yet, it has many different characteristics and carry variances related to a) the meal, b) the context, c) the time of the day, and d) with whom you have a fika. This paper discusses various dimensions of fika to create knowledge on how values are created in fika in terms as a cultural meal practice and its relation to sensory taste. tourism and branding. The paper thereby is a broad introduction to fika as a research field and contributes to past research through hypothesising about fika as a multidisciplinary research interest.

Keywords: Fika; Commensality; Meal practice; Health; CAMS; Tourism; Internationalisation

Introduction

The Swedish coffee break, "fika", is an ingrained custom and can be difficult for outsiders to understand and adapt to. This chapter is meant to inspire and trigger research collaboration on how a mundane meal, such as fika, can create a sense of belonging. Fika is usually a midmorning or midafternoon activity – for most Swedes. With no agenda, the fika break is the Swedish space for small talk. Topics of conversation during fika range from the weather to workplace matters. However, the fika break is not a place to actually work. Since fika is a daily, and often twice daily phenomenon, the cumulative effect of the small talk is massive when it comes to getting to know each other, building trust and solving problems; and can lead to a more humane and more efficient workplace. A recent article on commensality (the importance of eating together calls for more research on these topics: "…as commensality research as a topic by itself or used to unveil different dimensions of social relations between people, as well as interactions between humans and material objects" (Jonsson, Michaud, & Neuman, 2021) in this case people having a fika together. To make fika more understandable and accessible to others, studies have mapped beverage such as coffee and tea by investigating how these are consumed alongside our meals (Scander et al., 2018a, 2018b; Swedish National Food Agency, 2012). This shows clear consumption patterns that have a great significance for our routines and how we schedule breaks for social practices. At the same time, we also see that there is reason to pay attention to how and what is consumed during the coffee break from a more public health-oriented perspective, as we have shown that the other meals (such as fika) substantially contribute to our total energy intake (Scander et al., 2018a).

Through studying fika, new perspectives on the fika break that occurs at most workplaces can be studied. Preparing a fika meal is easy and affordable, both at home if you want to invite guests, but also in cafés. The food and beverage combinations that a simple fika can entail has coffee and/or tea in focus. The food served with the drink is often a simple bun or a sandwich. The constituents should of course be to scrutiny in regards to their taste, sustainability as well as their nutritional and health-related effects. The commensality, the sociality of the fika get-together is another important factor mostly open for research. To eat with other people is a central activity of human sociality (Fischler, 2011). This act of eating together called commensality is studied in a range of disciplines and often considered important for social communion, order, health and well-being.

In this paper we discuss various dimensions of fika to create knowledge on how values are created in fika in terms as a cultural meal practice and its relation to sensory taste. tourism and branding. As a paper, this is an early attempt to approach fika from a multidisplinary point of view. The paper thereby contributes to past research through its focus on fika as such and through hypothesising about different dimensions of fika, with important contribution for meal studies, tourism science and marketing. As CAMS covers the tradition of looking at meals from a gastronomic perspective, researchers have often overlooked what has been the everyday practice, of commensality of meals. In investigating this in-between meal fika, we can use a new approach to CAMS research which can contribute to a new approach to meal research. We would then not only study meals of high gastronomic value but also more every-day meals. This could be done by adding studies engaging in daily practices to increase empirical knowledge of food issues and the understanding of general social-theoretical problems (Neuman, 2019) but also to highlight those who work in the restaurant industry (Scander & Jakobsson, 2022) or more specifically in the cafes, and in a wider perspective, those who provide workplace meals. The fika break constitutes an important part of the revenue of the hospitality industry and deserves a more complete understanding.

Fika as social practice

By elevating the understanding of fika in relation to the practice theory's elements of competences, materiality and meaning-making, we can provide an increased understanding of how different values are created in relation to the Swedish fika culture. Fika practices are about both about what we do and what we talk about, in different times and locations, and can be divided into practices as entity (practice coordinated in itself) or performance (as they are done repeatedly) (Schatzki, 2014). So, the entity is always intertwined in a well-founded shared perception, such as what fika is, or eating is. This differs from practice as performances that are embodied human activities bound to explicit rules, routines and materiality, and are based on the ability to perform the practice, where the practice is reproduced as an entity (Marshall, 2016; Schatzki, 1996; Shove, Pantzar, & Watson, 2012). Therefore, the practices must be understood in a social context where they have meaning to the practitioner, in this case the fika practitioner. This is why understanding a national practice and, ultimately, the success factors for fika to be exported, favours the subjects of food studies and tourism on several levels. Neuman (2019) points out that further studies of engagement in daily practices are needed to increase empirical knowledge of food issues and the understanding of general social-theoretical problems, in our case with an emphasis on the mundane fika practice. We here hypothesise:

- How fika practices differ in terms of when during the day it is practiced, with whom, in what context and based on the design of the meal
- How fika differs geographically across the country

Destination branding

Fika as a cultural phenomenon is used in destination marketing in Sweden and can be regarded as a food (or culinary or gastronomic) tourism experience. For example, Alingsås market guided fika tours to attract tourists to what they have claimed as The Capital of Fika, and Visit Sweden uses the concept fika on social media to build the destination brand of Sweden. Food tourism is about the interactions of tourists with place through the medium of food, and those in tourism policy and business are managers of food as cultural resources from different perspectives – users, destination image, sustainability, destination development and profit (Ellis, Park, Kim & Yeoman, 2018). A specific niche of food tourism is coffee and tea tourism and an emerging trend in tourism is traditional cafes as they offer a new way to adjust to the changes that were forced on hospitality and tourism during the pandemic (Chen, Huang & Tham, 2021). The Swedish concept fika relates to these trends, while being a deeply rooted practise in Sweden, unlike practises related to coffee and tea drinking in other countries, and as such an important topic to approach in relation to destination marketing. We here hypothesise:

- How fika can be used to attract tourism to a nation, local area of café
- How expectations on fika differ between the national, local and café destination with the more local destination branding require a more complex, varied and characteristic branding, while the national branding rather is about creating commonalities related to simpler meals

Product branding

Since fika is a major part of the revenue of the hospitality industry, it is important to explore the marketing aspects, as well as the importance of fika in place making and exploring local fika culture and history. While we have increasingly seen fika as a destination brand for Sweden, and more traditionally: as a concept for cafes, bakeries and confectioneries to sell the combined service of coffee/tea and cakes/buns, product manufacturers have in the past rather sold coffee, buns, etc. as products. This means that in addition to the destination branding (and indeed the practices in workplaces and homes), fika has remained a retailer (the café, bakery, etc., but also instant shop, e.g., Pressbyrån) construct but not extensively a product-manufacturer branding tool. Most past research on coffee, for instance, has focused on the branding of cafes, such as Starbucks, and thereby the retailer position (e.g., Thompson & Arsel, 2004). Also in such positions, fika has largely remained non-branded (we have a coffee, not a cup of Gevalia, Löfbergs, etc.; even our consumptions of soft drinks, such as Pepsi or Coke, are more pronouncedly linked to brands), changed by chains as Starbucks to make the very brand of the café and coffee important to the consumer. Recent changes in the manufacturing position emerge for example with Himmelsö's pastry box of Swedish Fika and Löfbergs branding one of their coffees "Fika". While still focusing on the single product – the pastries or the coffee – it links to the value that the product offers (Merz, He, & Vargo, 2009). This also means that manufacturers become competitors to said retailers through decontextualizing the product from the retailer location, while contextualising their product to fika. Fika has thereby become a way to brand the value of the coffee/tea or the bun/cake for the consumer. We here hypothesise:

- How fika as a way of branding transfers product buying to cultural value in consumption
- How using fika in exports expands with and requires the increasing use of fika as an international word

Discussion and conclusion

This paper lays the basis for the understanding of how values and tastes are created in relation to the Swedish *fika* culture. Together the research area serves as input to improve destination branding activities as well as fika services of tourism and hospitality companies and organisations where the local and national values of fika are ingrained. We create hypotheses about fika to spur a discussion and development of research on fika with the ambition to create scientific knowledge that can be used by tourism/hospitality operators and destination organisations in Sweden and can lead to an improved destination image of Swedish destinations as well as more successful companies. Furthermore, theoretical insights and advice on how to use culturally complex phenomena to signal customer value and value-in-use of retail products within culinary sector follows with the introduced fika discussion. For hospitality industry, this informs about potentials of signaling those values associated with Sweden (efficient, democratic leadership, etc.) and enmeshing these into value-in-use of products on export. Moreover, through linking fika with product offerings, it helps such parties to signal values of Sweden, as an attractive country for companies to establish themselves in, for people to live in and visit as a tourism and hospitality destination.

References

Chen, S.-H., Huang, J., & Tham, A. (2021). A systematic literature review of coffee and tea tourism, *International Journal of Culture, Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 15(3), 290-311.

Ellis, A. Park, E., Kim, S., & Yeoman, I. (2018). What is food tourism? *Tourism Management*, 68, 250-263.

Fischler, C. (2011). Commensality, society and culture. *Social Science Information*, 50(3-4), 528-548.

Jonsson, H., Michaud, M., & Neuman, N. (2021). What Is Commensality? A Critical Discussion of an Expanding Research Field. *International Journal of Environmental Research and Public Health*, 18(12).

Marshall, M. (2016). Hållbarhet till middag : en etnologisk studie om hur miljövänligt ätande praktiseras i vardagslivet. (Diss). Umeå universitet, 2016, Höör: Symposion.

Merz, M., He, Y., & Vargo, S. (2009). The evolving brand logic: a service-dominant logic perspective. *Journal of Academy of Marketing Science*, 37(3), 328-344.

Neuman, N. (2019). On the Engagement with Social Theory in Food Studies: Cultural Symbols and Social Practices. *Food, Culture & Society*, 22(1).

Scander, H., & Jakobsson, B. M. (2022). Gastronomy competition and restaurant practice: Sommeliers' understanding of the game of social craft. *International Journal of Gastronomy and Food Science*, 29, 100567.

Scander, H., Monteagudo, C., Nilsen, B., Tellström, R., & Yngve, A. (2018a). Beverage consumption patterns and energy contribution from beverages per meal type: results from a national dietary survey in Sweden. *Public Health Nutrition*, 21(18), 3318-3327.

Scander, H., Monteagudo, C., Nilsen, B., Tellström, R., & Yngve, A. (2018b). Food and beverage dinner combinations, patterns among Swedish adults. *International Journal of Gastronomy and Food Science*, 14, 20-26.

Schatzki, T. R. (1996). *Social practices: A Wittgensteinian approach to human activity and the social*. Cambridge University Press.

Schatzki, T. R. (2014). Art bundles. In T. Zembylas (Ed.), *Artistic practices: Social interactions and cultural dynamics* (pp. 17-31). London: Routledge.

Shove, E., Pantzar, M., & Watson, M. (2012). *The dynamics of social practice: Everyday life and how it changes*. Sage.

Swedish National Food Agency. (2012). Riksmaten–vuxna 2010–11.

Thompson, C., & Arsel, Z. (2004). The Starbucks brandscape and consumers' (anticorporate) experiences of glocalization. *Journal of Consumer Research*, 31(3), 631-642.

6.5. Understanding the potential of singing as a niche tourism product

Sophie Gräf | FH Wien der WKW, Austria

Abstract

This qualitative study aimed to explore the potential of singing as a niche tourism product. Through semi-structured, in-depth interviews with 12 participants of three different stakeholder groups (singing tourism providers, regular customers, and potential customers), the study found that singing can indeed serve as a viable niche tourism product. Therefore, singing tourism differentiates itself from other tourism products through the uniqueness of singing and it has a distinct and actionable product design. Singing customers are special but accessible through below the line marketing activities which aim to communicate with their target audience directly and effectively such as through social media or search engine marketing. The demand for singing tourism is small but increasing and consequently promising for being a profitable and successful niche tourism product.

Keywords: Niche tourism; Singing; Singing tourism; Niche tourism marketing

Introduction

In past decades, there has been a noticeable shift from mass to niche tourism (Novelli, 2005). Mass tourism, also called "general interest tourism", generalises the tourists' needs and provides homogenous tourism products for the masses (Brothertow & Himmetoglu, 1997). However, niche tourism focuses on providing specific tourism products based on special interests of a smaller audience. Special interests, which determine a certain niche, might consist of a hobby such as music (Tourism Tattler, 2019). For instance, tourists travel around the world to participate in music festivals or visit a certain destination that is associated with a music's origin (Lashua & Spracklen, 2014) or a musician's history such as the Mozarthaus in Salzburg (Gibson & Connell, 2004). However, music tourists are not only passive spectators or listeners of musical performances, they can also be active while travelling (Gibson & Connell, 2004). Tourists, who travel for music, increasingly seek to perform whether by playing an instrument or singing (Gibson & Connell, 2004). Within this field of music tourism, tourists can perform music, experience culture and participate in locals' traditions. Therefore, musical participation can be a main motivation for travelling (Gibson & Connell, 2004). Moreover, tourists do not only seek more engagement, but also personal development, tailor-made experiences, authenticity, and insights into the local way of life, which are typical characteristics of creative tourists (Scherf, 2021).

A review of literature on music and creative tourism indicates that many tourists seek active participation, development and valuable memories from their vacation (Couret, 2016; Gibson & Connell, 2004). Even though singing is a popular hobby within western countries (Keegan, 2021; Kunst, 2020; Kunst, 2021) and singing holiday providers already exist within Europe (Singing Holidays, 2021), singing tourism has so far received little scholarly interest. The aim of this article is to understand the demand and supply potential of singing as a niche tourism product. This study seeks to answer the following main research question: "What is the potential of singing as a niche tourism product?" and the following sub-questions:

a. What is the nature of the current singing tourism supply in Europe?
b. What are the needs and characteristics of singing tourists?
c. How could the concept of singing tourism as a niche be defined, in terms of the characteristics of supply and demand?

Singing tourism

So far, researchers have not defined the conceptual term *singing tourism* yet. However, studies have shown that tourists have been travelling for music for decades (Gibson & Connell, 2004; Lashua & Spracklen, 2014). The term *music tourism* has been defined as a certain form of tourism where tourists travel to specific destinations to consume music (Lashua & Spracklen, 2014). Music tourism may not only include passive listening to music but also actively performing music through singing or playing an instrument while travelling (Gibson & Connell, 2004). However, when singing seems to be the whole purpose for taking a trip, this form of tourism deserves its very own definition and characterisation as a tourism product.

Actively creating and performing music during a trip can be seen as a sub-category of creative tourism (Richards & Marques, 2012). Some literature on creative tourism distinguishes between creative tourism and participatory experience tourism where tourists become active but do not create something novel (de Bruin & Jelinčić, 2016). This tourism type is defined by the tourists' needs for active participation in a local's way of life, personalised and authentic experiences as well as enhancing knowledge and personal growth during their travels (Couret, 2016; Matteucci & Smith, 2024). It seems that these creative and participatory needs can be fulfilled through the sole activity of singing. Specifically, singing individually or communally has positive effects on emotions, group cohesion, self-confidence, open-mindedness, and personal development (Cann, 2016; Smith, Kleinermann & Cohen, 2022). Those effects of singing can be compared with the motivations for choosing creative/participatory tourism offers (Ilari, Chen-Hafteck & Crawford, 2013). Additionally, research indicates that singing can foster cultural understanding (Lindroth, Ritalahti & Soisalon-Soininen, 2007). Joint singing and singing in foreign languages might broaden an individual's horizon for unfamiliar cultures or traditions and hence foster the relation between local and guest (Ilari et al., 2013). Therefore, the combination of singing and creative tourism seems to create a possibility for tourists to learn about a country and its culture on a deep authentic level and promote self-development due to a tailormade holiday experience. In short, the literature on music and creative tourism suggests that singing tourism belongs to both music as well as creative tourism. Beyond the mere classification of singing tourism, understanding the market potential of this niche product appears essential for practitioners and destination managers. For that purpose, segmenting the singing tourism market is a sound initial step.

Market segmentation

Market segmentation helps to investigate the chances of an upcoming trend or a novel niche for a certain target group (Kotler, Keller, & Opresnik, 2017). Kotler et al. (2017) suggest five key criteria which should be met to find a potentially successful market segment:

- Measurability: There are meaningful key performance indicators to measure size, purchasing power as well as characteristics of the segment.

- Scope: The target group which follows one specific interest is substantial and worthwhile for future investment.
- Accessibility: It is possible to reach and communicate with individual target group members.
- Differentiability: The market segments are unique and distinguishable from others.
- Actionability: The market segment can be effectively provided with services, and products.
- By attending to these five criteria, the potential of singing tourism as a novel niche tourism product can be explored.

Methodology

Since singing tourism is a relatively unexplored area, an exploratory research approach is deemed to be appropriate. An exploratory approach enables the researcher to critically discuss the subject matter and gain deep insights into the topic (Denscombe, 2010). A qualitative research design requires an open-minded exploration to make sense of social circumstances (Flick, Kardoff, & Steinke, 2004). This investigation mode can provide some detailed insights and foresee future trends (Creswell, 2007).

Data collection and sampling

Narrative in-depth interviews allow for deep personalised insights into opinions, experiences, wishes, beliefs, needs or emotions (Denscombe, 2010). Eleven semi-structured interviews were conducted with 12 participants. In one interview two participants were interviewed. Even though the researcher followed a list of questions, the interview process stayed open and flexible.

A non-probability sampling strategy was used to recruit research participants. Interview partners were singing tourism suppliers as well as regular and potential consumers. Due to limited scope of the research and time constraints, this research focuses on best practice example providers and customers of singing tourism in European countries only. The singing tourism products in this study are those that promote a holiday trip which includes daily vocal lessons, choir probes, singing workshops, board and lodge and further extra activities. Examples for already existing singing tourism supply are “Singing Holidays” (Singing Holidays, 2021) or “Singing Escapes” in Great Britain.

Interview partners were selected based on their expertise as practitioners and on their experiences (Denscombe, 2010). The purposive sampling technique was combined with the snowball sampling technique (Denscombe, 2010). The main criteria for selecting interviewees were:

- Singing tourism providers offer singing holidays in Europe (P).
- Regular singing holiday customers have experienced singing holidays at least once (RC).
- Potential singing tourism customers, who are passionate about singing, might take singing classes and would consider booking singing holidays (PC).

Table 1 shows the list of research participants.

Table 1. Research participants

Role	Gender	Age Group	Code
provider	female	40-50	P1
provider	male	60+	P2
provider	female	30-40	P3
provider	male	40-50	P4
regular customer	female	60+	RC1
regular customer	male	60+	RC2
regular customer	female	30-40	RC3
regular customer	male	60+	RC4
potential customer	male	20-30	PC1
potential customer	female	30-40	PC2
potential customer	female	30-40	PC3
potential customer	female	20-30	PC4

Data analysis

The analysis of the primary data followed an inductive approach. Coding inductively means to identify key topics, to summarise raw data, to present findings in a written report and to provide a theoretical account of interviewees' experiences.

First, transcripts made the data set readable, permanently available, and ready for analysis. Second, the written-up data set was studied through thematic analysis. This analytical procedure is a flexible way for reviewing qualitative data and consists of six stages (Braun & Clarke, 2012): After the initial familiarization with the data the first codes are established. Based on similar topics the codes are categorized into themes which are reviewed and structured into key and sub themes. The themes are then condensed and given some structure in order to write the report (Braun & Clarke, 2012).

Findings and discussion

In light of the research questions, the potential of singing as a new niche tourism product is examined. The characteristics of the singing tourism supply and demand are discussed through Kotler et al.'s (2017) segmentation criteria:

Potential of singing as a niche tourism product

A niche tourism product combines particular supply with special demand based on a specific interest such as the leisure activity of singing (Ali-Knight, 2011). Such niche tourism products are promoted by direct marketing activities (Sert, 2017) and have the potential to influence the relationship suppliers and consumers (Tourism NI Industry Development, 2020). Hence singing tourism has the potential to be seen as a new product in niche tourism because it differentiates itself from any other tourism offer and requires a distinct, actionable product design for stimulating demand. Therefore, by applying Kotler et al.'s

(2017) key criteria for defining a potential market segment or product the potential of singing tourism can be characterised as follows:

Differentiation
Singing and performing music is the main activity as well as the core motivation for travelling. On the one hand, singing as a special interest and a possible niche tourism product is the main point of difference among all other tourism products (P2; P4). Regular customer RC4 confirms that "part of the USP is that singing is really important, and it is the heart of everything "(RC4). However, to particularly stand out from other singing tourism businesses, some providers referred to their wide range of music genres or destinations (P2), the welcoming atmosphere during the holiday experience, flexibility (P1; P3) or experiences with locals (P2; P4), which are strong features of effective tourism branding (Li, Geng & Liu, 2022).

Actionability
Singing as a potential niche tourism product is deemed to be actionable because there are real and profitable products where special supply meets special demand (P1; P2; P3; P4; Ali-Knight, 2011; Singing Holidays, 2021). To understand the potential of singing as a form of niche tourism the current singing tourism supply as well as needs and characteristics of singing tourists are discussed below. While there are other types of singing holiday products such as workshops, during this research, two main types have been identified. These are summarised in Table 2:

Table 2. Summary of two types of singing holidays

Singing Retreat	Tourists come together at one place and mainly stay there for singing, relaxing and making music together; Different music genres; Similar to all-inclusive model
Choir Singing Vacation	Forms a new choir out of individual singers just for holiday period; Not to be mistaken with vacations that are organised by existing choirs; Destination is linked to music theme or genre; Cultural crossover

Regarding the demand side, the findings indicate that there is no average singing tourist but there are some common characteristics which are summarised in Table 3.

Table 3. Characteristics of potential singing tourists

Demographics	40+ Female tendency Origin depends on holiday course's language
Characteristics	Passion for singing/music Open-mindedness & enjoys being in a group Beginner, hobby or advanced singer Travels alone, with partner or friends
Needs & wants	Learn something new (singing technique & personal development) Break from everyday life & do something for themselves Cultural exchange
Fears	Sing off-key Fear of being judged Bad group harmony

Accessibility
The findings on singing tourists and their characteristics as well as the implications for successful niche marketing imply that singing tourism has the potential to reach, be communicated to and attract customers. Since niche tourism differs from mass tourism, communication should differ from traditional marketing approaches (Kotler et al., 2017; Novelli, 2005). Therefore, theory suggests focusing on below the line activities instead of traditional above the line actions, which target mass markets (Mansoor, 2017). The singing tourism providers interviewed (P1; P2; P3; P4) agreed that they can reach their target audience mostly through below the line marketing activities such as social media, search engine optimization, word of mouth, multi-media content marketing, key customer management or cooperations.

Measurability and scope
The findings show that there is an increasing demand for creativity and participation in music tourism products (P4; Richard & Wilson, 2006). In addition, the interview partners reported that there was now more competition than before (P2; P4) and that waiting lists for singing holidays were growing larger (P1; P3). Even though demand is rising singing tourism remains unique and small. While singing tourism seems to be a valuable niche product, the characteristics and the scope of this segment deserve to be investigated further.

Defining singing tourism

Singing tourism has the potential to grow as a creative tourism activity. Singing tourism is actionable, accessible, and expanding in scope and consequently, it deserves its own definition as a distinct tourism niche. Based on the findings of this study, this paper makes a first attempt at defining singing tourism. Singing tourism may be defined as a niche and creative or participatory experience tourism product that combines individual and collective singing with travel (P3; PC2; PC3). Singing Tourism offers a tailor-made product which varies in duration, group size, level of service, music genre, extra activities and destination and it is inspiring for its unique community spirit, vocal knowledge, cultural understanding, self-actualisation and memorable experiences (P1; P3; RC4; PC1; PC2; PC3; PC4; Gibson &

Connell, 2004; Scherf, 2021). Singing tourism can also include holidays which offer band productions and playing additional instruments (P1; RC3). Singing as a niche tourism product focuses on the special interest in singing and links passionate singing tourists with holiday providers who offer special holiday products to a small but growing audience (P2; P4; PC1; Novelli, 2005). However, singing tourism and instrumental tourism may be categorised into "participatory music tourism" which may be a new form of music tourism where the interest in actively making as well as performing music (other than passively consuming music at concerts) stands at the centre of the holiday offer (P2; P3).

Conclusion

Based on the results of the study, the current singing tourism supply in Europe primarily consists of singing retreat vacations which resemble an all-inclusive holiday and choir singing vacations. Choir singing vacations involve a group of leisure singers who form a choir during their holiday, cooperate with local musicians, and combine sightseeing, cultural exchange and performing music. For both holiday types singing tourists characterise as commonly female and open-minded while their needs overlap with the needs of creative or participatory tourists. Through investigating the characteristics of the supply and demand, singing tourism was defined as a niche tourism form which combines the activity of singing and travelling with participatory tourism experiences with future potential for destinations, tourists and suppliers.

Implications

The insights gained in this study may help destination marketers to diversify their products by engaging the ability of fostering cultural exchange and co-creating destination experience through common singing with locals and guest – in specific when singing is an identified cultural asset of a destination. Further insights may also help singing tourism providers to adapt their product successfully. It is recommended to further explore the nature and characteristics of singing tourism in order to further our understanding of this creative tourism activity. In addition, supplementary quantitative research on the characteristics of singing tourists could result in creating a representative persona, which would be useful for designing product as well as informing marketing decisions (Kalbach, 2016).

References

Ali-Knight, J. (2011). The Role of Niche Tourism Products in Destination Development. PhD thesis by Published Works.

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2012). Thematic analysis. In H. Cooper, P. Camic, D. Long, A. Panter, D. Rindskopf, & K. Sher (Eds.) *APA Handbook of Research Methods in Psychology: Vol. 2. Research Designs* (57-71). Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association.

Brothertow, B., & Himmetoglu, B. (1997). Beyond Destinations - Special Interest Tourism. *Anatolia: An International Journal of Tourism and Hospitality Research*, 8(3), 1-30.

Cann, P. (2016). "Something to get out of bed for": Creative arts for a happily ageing population. *Working with older People*, 20(4), 190-194.

Chen, C., Teng, Z., Lu, C., Hossain, M. A., & Fang, Y. (2021). Rethinking Leisure Tourism: From the Perspective of Tourist Touch Points and Perceived Well-being. *Sage Open*, 11(4).

Couret, C. (2016). Managing Experiences within the Field of Creative Tourism: Best Practices and Guidelines. In M. Sotiriadis, & D. Gursoy (Eds.) *The Handbook of Managing and Marketing Tourism Experiences* (pp. 235-259). Bingley: Emerald Group Publishing Limited.

Creswell, J. W. (2007). *Qualitative Inquiry & Research Design: Choosing Among Five Approaches* (2nd ed.). SAGE Publications.

de Bruin, A. & Jelinčić, D. A. (2016). Toward Extending Creative Tourism: Participatory Experience Tourism. *Tourism review*, 71, 57-66

Denscombe, M. (2010). *The Good Research Guide For small-scale social research projects* (4th ed.). New York: Mc Graw Hill Open University Press.

Flick, U., Kardoff, E., & Steinke, I. (2004). *A Companion to Qualitative Research*. Reinbek bei Hamburg: 2000 Rowohlt Taschenbuch Verlag GmbH.

Gibson, C., & Connell, J. (2004). *Music and Tourism: On the Road Again*. Channel View Publications.

Ilari, B., Chen-Hafteck, L., & Crawford, L. (2013). Singing and cultural understanding: A music education perspective. *International Journal of Music Education*, 31(2), 202-216.

Kalbach, J. (2016). *Mapping Experiences: A Complete Guide to Creating Value Through Journeys, Blueprints & Diagrams*. Canada: O'Reilly Media, Inc.

Keegan, L. (2021, Oktober 28th). 31+ Most Popular & Common Hobbies in the World. Retrieved from SkillScouter: https://skillscouter.com/popular-common-hobbies/

Kotler, P., Keller, K. L., & Opresnik, M. O. (2017). *Marketing-Management*. Hallbergmoos: Pearson Deutschland GmbH.

Kunst, A. (2020, December 14th). Österreich: Verbreitetste Hobbys und Interessen 2020. Retrieved from Statista: https://de.statista.com/prognosen/1000246/oesterreich-verbreitetste-hobbys-und-interessen

Kunst, A. (2021, October 24th). Hobbies & interests in the U.S. 2021. Retrieved December 13th, 2021, from Statista: https://www.statista.com/forecasts/997050/hobbies-and-interests-in-the-us

Lashua, B., & Spracklen, K. (2014). Introduction to the special issue: Music and Tourism. *Tourist Studies*, 14(1), 3-9.

Li, X., Geng, S., & Liu, S. (2022). Social Network Analysis on Tourists' Perceived Image of Tropical Forest Park: Implications for Niche Tourism. *Sage Open*, 12(1).

Lindroth, K., Ritalahti, J., & Soisalon-Soininen, T. (2007). Creative Tourism in Destination Development. *Tourism Review*, 62(3-4), 53-58.

Mansoor, L. (2017, July 6th). A Guide on Above the Line VS Below the Line Marketing. Retrieved from DAN Global 2022 Digital Agency Network: https://digitalagencynetwork.com/a-guide-on-above-the-line-vs-below-the-line-marketing/

Matteucci, X., & Smith, M. (2024). *The creative tourist: A eudaimonic perspective*. Emerald Publishing Limited.

Novelli, M. (2005). *Niche Tourism Contemporary issues, trends and cases*. Wallington: Elsevier Butterworth-Heinemann.

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

Richards, G., & Wilson, J. (2006). Developing Creativity in Tourist Experiences: A Solution to the Serial Reproduction of Culture? *Tourism Management*, 27(6), pp. 1209-1223.

Schmidt, C. (2004). The Analyisis of Semi-structured Interviews. In U. Flick, E. Kardoff, & I. Steinke (Eds.) *A Companion to Qualitative Research* (pp. 253-158). Reinbek bei Hamburg: 2000 Rowohlt Taschenbuch Verlag GmbH.

Scherf, K. (2021). Creative tourism in smaller communities: Collaboration and cultural representation. In K. Scherf (Ed.) *Creative tourism in smaller communities: Place, culture and local representation* (pp. 1-26). University of Calgary Press.

Sert, A. N. (2017). Niche Marketing and Tourism. *Journal of Business Management and Economic Research*, 1(1), 14-25.

Singing Escapes. (2019). Singing Escapes. Retrieved May 29th, 2022, from Singing Escapes: https://www.singingescapes.com/

Singing Holidays. (2021). Singing Holidays. Retrieved from: https://www.singingholidays.com/

Smith, A. M., Kleinerman, K., & Cohen, A. J. (2022). Singing lessons as a path to well-being in later life. *Psychology of Music*, 50(3), 911-932.

Tourism NI Industry Development. (2020). Niche Tourism opportunities: Creating Tourism Experiences. Retrieved from: https://www.nibusinessinfo.co.uk/content/creating-tourism-experiences

Tourism NI Industry Development. (2020). Niche Tourism opportunities: Introduction. Retrieved from: Invest Northern Irland: https://www.nibusinessinfo.co.uk/content/niche-tourism-opportunities

Tourism Tattler. (2019, October 21st). 31 Niche Tourism Groups. Retrieved from: https://www.tourismtattler.com/articles/niche-tourism/31-niche-tourism-groups/

Urban Tourism & Visitor Economy Management

Degree Program

Entry Requirements
Completion of a university or a university of applied sciences degree (BA or BSc)

Duration
4 semesters

Qualification
Master of Arts in Business (MA);
Qualifies the holder to study for a PhD or a doctorate

Degree Program Format
Part-time

Lecture Times
Thursdays and Fridays: 8:30–18:30
Saturdays: 8:30–16:30
50% guided e-learning, 50% on campus
Maximum of 7 blocked courses per semester

Academic Year
September until June

Language of Instruction
English

Study-abroad semester
Possible in the 3rd semester

Fees
Tuition fees of € 363.36 per semester (excl. student union fee). For those applying from non-EU and non-EEA countries tuition fees are € 1000 per semester.
Application deposit for students from non-EU and non-EEA countries: € 200

Place of Study
wko campus Vienna and
Distance Learning

Degree Program Focus

- Sustainable & systemic approach towards tourism development and visitor economy management in cities
- Understanding stakeholder interactions in urban tourism destinations
- Innovative developments and potentials in a smart tourism environment
- Transferring visitor economy & digitalization knowledge to practical cases
- Leadership & data-based decision-making skills to facilitate change in tourism

Job and Career

Cities are expanding, and so are professional fields in urban tourism. Our goal is to equip our graduates with all the competences needed by successful game-changers in visitor economy management. By training students in identifying social, economic, environmental and technological potentials in city dynamics, possible career fields for our graduates are:

Destination management and marketing organizations:
- Strategic positioning
- Partner and stakeholder management
- Product and brand development
- Data management and research

Consultants and project managers for:
- Destination development
- Tourism intelligence
- Service design
- Change processes

Urban planning and city authorities

CONTACT | FHWien der WKW – University of Applied Sciences for Management & Communication | Währinger Gürtel 97, 1180 Vienna
Phone +43 (1) 476 77-5744 | servicepoint@fh-wien.ac.at | www.fh-wien.ac.at

Current as of Oct. 2022