International Case Studies for Hospitality, Tourism and Event Management Students and Trainees

Edited by:
Elizabeth Ineson
Matthew Hong Tai Yap
Valentin Niţă

editura
Tehnopress

International Case Studies for Hospitality, Tourism and Event Management Students and Trainees

Volume 10
2019

edited by

Elizabeth Ineson, Matthew Hong Tai Yap and Valentin Niţă

editura
Tehnopress
IAŞI – 2019

Published in Romania by

Editura TEHNOPRESS
Str. Pinului nr. 1A
700109 Iaşi
Tel./Fax: 0232 260092
Email: tehnopressÂyahoo.com
http://www.tehnopress.ro
Editurăacreditată CNCSIS

ISBN 978-606-687-382-6

First published 2019

Cover from an original painting, 'The White House, Lancashire Village' by John Ineson.

Dedication

to

Margarget Georgiou

Margaret has been involved with La Fondation pour la Formation Hôtelière (FH) since the early 1990s. She attended her first Board meeting 1997 and was appointed to the position of Executive Administrator/Secretary to the FH Board in 2009.

From the outset, Margaret has always taken a very keen interest in, and been highly motivated to help with, all FH matters including the educational programmes, personal staff issues and investments in relation to the Central and Eastern European FH partner universities, colleges and hotel schools' portfolios. Furthermore, she has been instrumental throughout in maintaining close links with the Chairman and the other Board Members, keeping them updated on the progress of FH activities, in addition to reporting to, advising and supporting, the Board in connection with finance, contacts, and international activities.

Margaret has proved to be a vital member of the FH Board – the glue that holds everything and everyone together. She listens patiently to, and considers carefully, individual contributions and needs then makes every effort to find solutions to anticipated problems before executing tasks reliably and efficiently, always in line with FH policies.

Margaret is an extremely diplomatic and friendly person, who always has the interest of FH in *focus and is fully determined to achieve the goals set. She has been, and will always be, an invaluable asset to the trust.*

Michel Rey, Chairman of the Board,
La fondation pour la formation Hôtelière, Switzerland

Disclaimer

Preface

Volume 10 comprises a further series of international case studies, focusing on problems and key issues related to hospitality, tourism and event management. They originate from, or are set, not only in Central and Eastern Europe, including Bosnia and Herzegovina, Czech Republic, Hungary, Latvia, Lithuania, Serbia and Slovakia, but also in Canada, Germany, Ghana, Hungary, Italy, New Zealand, Singapore, Spain and Thailand. The contributors, who represent 15 countries, have developed the cases based on their specialist knowledge and real-life experiences. The cases offer students, management trainees and managers opportunities to consider and to respond to realistic scenarios of varying and increasing complexity.

The introduction provides a brief overview of the case study and its possible role in teaching, and training, particularly in cross-disciplinary fields. To provide a suitable format, the cases have been divided into two sections: Part 1, non-revealed and Part 2, revealed. Part 2 is further subdivided into two sections (i) and (ii). The cases in the first section (2i) require the students/trainees either to read prior to, or after, the class/training; they may also require some individual written work. In the latter instance (2ii), there may be a requirement for further follow up activities or discussions.

The main topics covered are: front office management; food and beverages (including allergens, waste management, and restaurant management); marketing; human resources; finance; business communication; big data; ethics; leadership styles; organisational culture; company mergers; tourism potential and performance; destination management; metagovernance; tourism destination resources; street vendors; church tourism; dark tourism; hunting tourism; sustainability; sustainable development; safety and security; airlines and data collection methodology.

The non-revealed case studies may be distributed as part of a teaching or training session, and responses may be prepared by the individuals, debated by groups of students, trainees or managers, or enacted using role play, to develop a joint solution; the cases focus on at least one curriculum area or department, for example: food and beverage; human resources; front office; etc. Each non-revealed case either poses at least one question for consideration by students, trainees or managers and/or indicates one or more activities which might be undertaken within or outside the teaching/training session. Furthermore, the cases may require some preparatory work, in addition to follow-up reading, that the facilitator considers to be advantageous in advance of the discussion sessions.

The revealed case studies are more complex. They are inter/cross-disciplinary, encouraging consideration of issues and problems that focus on broader managerial, international and cultural perspectives. Some of the revealed cases are accompanied by reading or research suggestions which are recommended in order to respond to the questions and/or inform the participants so that they can conduct the follow-up activities which include: application of theories to practice; debates; videos; local research and visits; interviews; analysing statistical data; menu planning; checking and designing systems; location and interpretation of regulations; evaluating information in the light of practical and written evidence; interpreting statistics; making sensible practical recommendations based on evidence; justifying actions with theory; online searching and research projects; groupwork; preparation of guidelines, training information and presentations; planning a trip; development of strategies and action plans; and report writing.

The case questions and activities are designed to encourage and promote experiential learning, embracing a practical problem-solving approach to achieve the learning outcomes. They are of varying types, levels of difficulty from very simple to extremely complex, posed to promote activities such as brain-storming followed by practical and theoretical problem-solving. Part 3 includes a series of points to promote discussion or further consideration of the issues pertaining to each case.

Contributors

Maja Banjac MSc, Teaching Assistant, Faculty of Sciences, University of Novi Sad, R. Serbia.

Eszter Benke PhD, College Professor, Budapest Business School, University of Applied Sciences, Hungary.

Isabel Carrillo-Hidalgo, Assistant Professor, Department of Financial Economics and Accounting; Member of the Laboratory of Analysis and Innovation in Tourism (LAInnTUR), University of Jaén, Spain.

Jairo Casado-Montilla PhD Student, University of Jaén, Researcher of Laboratory of Analysis and Innovation in Tourism (LAInnTUR), University of Jaén, Spain.

Crispin Dale BA (Hons) MA PGCE PhD SFHEA, Principal Lecturer, Faculty of Arts, University of Wolverhampton, UK.

Mike Evans BA (Hons) MSc PhD PGCE FHEA Dip. FSM, Lecturer, Salford Business School, Salford University, UK.

Alexander Frasch Ing, Faculty of Commerce, Department of Tourism and Services University of Economics in Bratislava, Slovakia.

Wolf Magnus Gerstkamp MBA, Assistant Professor of Practice, Les Roches, Switzerland.

Elizabeth M. Ineson BEd(Hons) MSc PhD FIH FInstTT, Visiting Research Fellow, Manchester Metropolitan University and Coordinator, La fondation pour la formation hôtelière, Switzerland.

Liběna Jarolímková PhD, Head of the Department of Tourism, University of Economics, Prague, Czech Republic.

Bojana Kalenjuk PhD, Assistant Professor, Faculty of Sciences, University of Novi Sad, R. Serbia.

Markéta Kalábová PhD, Deputy Head of the Department of Tourism, University of Economics, Prague, Czech Republic.

Alina Katunian MA PhD candidate, Head of the Tourism Department at Vilniaus kolegija/University of Applied Sciences and Tourist Guide, Vilnius, Lithuania

Daniela Matušíková PhDr PhD, Lecturer, Department of Tourism and Hotel Management, University of Prešov in Prešov, Faculty of Management, Slovakia.

Klára Karakasné Morvay BA MA PhD, College Associate Professor/Principal Lecturer, Budapest Business School, University of Applied Sciences Hungary.

Valentin Niţă PhD, Professor, Alexandru Ioan Cuza University, Iaşi, Romania.

Contributors cont.

Roselyne N. Okech Associate Professor, Tourism Studies, Memorial University of Newfoundland, Corner Brook, Canada.

Sheree Anne O'Neill MCom, BBus, ATCL, AdvDipMgt, ARAD, RTS, Senior Lecturer, Auckland University of Technology, Auckland, New Zealand.

Pavol Plesník PhD, Silesian University in Opava, Faculty of Philosophy and Science Institute of Spa, Gastronomy and Tourism, Opava, Czech Republic.

Juan Ignacio Pulido-Fernández PhD, Associate Professor of Tourism Economics and Director of the Laboratory of Analysis and innovation in Tourism (LAInnTUR), University of Jaén, Spain.

María de la Cruz Pulido-Fernández PhD, Researcher of the Laboratory of Analysis and Innovation in Tourism (LAInnTUR), University of Jaén, Spain.

Detlev Remy DBA, Associate Professor, Singapore Institute of Technology, Singapore.

Neil Robinson BA (Hons) MA PGCE PhD FHEA, Lecturer, Salford Business School, Salford University, UK.

Anna Šenková Ing. PhD, Head of the Department of Tourism and Hotel Management, University of Prešov in Prešov, Faculty of Management, Slovakia.

Graham Stone BA Econ MSc, Formerly Principal Lecturer, Manchester Metropolitan University, Manchester, United Kingdom.

Andrea Szőke PhD, College Associate Professor, Budapest Business School, University of Applied Sciences, Hungary.

Predrag Tošić MSc, Cooking and Culinary Teacher, Vocational School of Catering Trade and Tourism, Banja Luka, Republic of Srpska, Bosnia and Herzegovina.

Jiří Vaníček PhD, Associate Professor, Department of Tourism, University of Economics, Prague, Czech Republic.

Matthew H. T. Yap BA MSc PhD, Formerly Assistant Professor of Hospitality and Gaming Management, University of Macau, Faculty of Business Administration, Macau, China.

Lina Žirnelė MA, Head of the Management Department and Erasmus Coordinator at Vilniaus kolegija/University of Applied Sciences, Vilnius, Lithuania.

Contents

Page

Introduction by Graham Stone and Elizabeth M. Ineson xiii

Part 1 Non-revealed Case Studies ....

Working in Hospitality..
by Daniela Matušíková

Reel around the Fountain: Using Free Association Narrative Analysis (FANA) for the Collection of Dark Tourism Subject Matter ....
by Neil Robinson, Crispin Dale and Mike Evans

Tourism Company Mergers: The Pros and Cons ....
by Sheree Anne O'Neill

Managing Tourism Destinations Sustainably: From Governance to Metagovernance ....
by María de la Cruz Pulido-Fernández and Juan Ignacio Pulido-Fernández

Part 2i Revealed Case Studies ....

Front Office Management ....
by Anna Šenková and Daniela Matušíková

Business Case of Combining Offline and Online Marketing ....
by Detlev Remy and Wolf Magnus Gerstkamp

Big Data (In)Security of Hospitality Organisations ....
by Matthew H. T. Yap

Overview of Street Vendors and the Informal Sector in the Tourism Industry in Ghana ....
by Mike Evans, Neil Robinson and Crispin Dale

Allergens in the Hospitality Industry - Food Allergy Risk Management ....
by Predrag Tošić, Bojana Kalenjuk and Maja Banjac

"Gringo Trails" – the Dark Side of Tourism ....
by Alina Katunian and Lina Žirnelė

Methodologies for Analysing and Assessing a Territory's Tourist Resources ....
by Jairo Casado-Montilla and Juan Ignacio Pulido-Fernández

Contents cont. Page

Destination Management Organisations: Definition, functions, characteristics and financial structure ....
by Isabel Carrillo-Hidalgo and Juan Ignacio Pulido-Fernández

Life Beyond Tourism ....
by Liběna Jarolímková and Jiří Vaníček

Part 2ii Further Revealed Case Studies ....

Food Waste Management ....
by Klára Karakasné Morvay

For the Sake of Fun: How Humour can Backfire in Business Communication ....
by Eszter Benke and Andrea Szőke

Low-Cost Airlines versus Legacy Carriers ....
by Alexander Frasch

Hunting Tourism as a Specific Product ....
by Markéta Kalábová

Special Interest Tourism: Focus on Churches and Cathedrals ....
by Roselyne Okech

Comparison of Performances in Tourism in the Czech and Slovak Republic ....
by Pavol Plesník.

Part 3 Points for Discussion ....

Acknowledgements

The editors would like to take this opportunity to thank:

- **La fondation pour la formation hôtelière,** in particular: **Michel Rey; Jenifer Emery; Victor Emery; Jurg Conzett; Alistair Emery;** and **John Thurso,** for their continued generous support for, and interest in, Central and Eastern European seminars and projects;
- **Margaret Georgiou,** Executive Administrator to the Board, for her continued dedicated, extremely competent and very professional assistance;
- **Allison Cridland** for proof reading the text, and
- **The contributors**, who with no prompting, provided on time a series of cases that present some very topical and interesting international issues for consideration and debate.

Introduction

by Graham Stone and Elizabeth M. Ineson

Cases provide a learning strategy through which students and trainees are required to consider, debate and offer possible solutions to the questions posed. They can apply their knowledge of a range of academic theories, and/or their work experiences, to analyse and evaluate the problems involved. Such experiential learning is of value in developing in students and trainees informed and considered managerial decision-making within a learning and/or training environment, where the importance of problem identification and problem-solving skills is emphasised. In turn, a variety of geographical, cultural and different legal contexts provide a framework within which a broad spectrum of learning outcomes can be achieved.

The Role of Case Studies

Case studies are summaries of real-life or simulated business situations, based on personal or "second-hand" experiences, observations, interviews, word-of-mouth data and/or research. The cases might incorporate information from within an organisation, for example, past events, stories, critical incidents, etc. as well as external factors and influences. The cases included in this book are all based on, or developed from, real events. They enable management students and trainees to appreciate, comprehend, consider and resolve real departmental, inter-departmental and unit/Company problems and situations that may be encountered by guests, operatives, supervisors, managers and/or senior managers in hospitality, tourism and event management. Some of the cases also offer further opportunities to conduct research and to make management decisions and plans, as indicated by the additional activities.

It is emphasised that case studies are designed to make students and trainees aware that, in solving problems, there may not be a clear or single solution; they enable students to apply theories in a real-life context, and they provide insight into issues that can assist them in developing and refining their knowledge and understanding in addition to their analytical and problem-solving abilities. The cases selected for study, at any point in the academic course or training programme, should be appropriate to the abilities and experience of the students and/or trainees and, ideally assist in meeting the learning outcomes/training objectives.

From an academic perspective, case study research is more comprehensive than conducting research on one specific topic. In addressing the more advanced cases, students are encouraged to collect relevant and appropriate data from a variety of both academic and commercial sources, including the media, as appropriate. They are encouraged, not only to consider this information but also to employ divergent thinking, to brainstorm the case, followed by convergent decision making to devise and justify the solution(s). Questions such as: 'How ?' and 'Why ?' need to be addressed in the context of the scenario, paying attention to the human element in terms of customer care and the fair and correct treatment of employees and peers. Such studies allow students and trainees to gain valuable work related, problem-solving and planning, managerial experience without losing money, upsetting customers and staff, or putting themselves or others into positions that might evoke embarrassment, pressure, anger or stress. From a practical perspective, students and trainees need to employ their work and life experiences to offer possible feasible, practical and, when appropriate, cost effective solutions.

Assessment

Case studies allow the assessment not only of knowledge and application but also of higher order skills comprising analysis, synthesis and evaluation. The forms of assessment employed depend on the learning outcomes to be measured, and are at the discretion of the teacher, trainer or facilitator. These may include: individual or group assessment; contribution to debates; written responses in the form of answers to questions; report writing; the development of strategic plans; workplace guidelines; production of training manuals etc.; and/or individual or group presentations. No time limits are set or even recommended for responding to/solving the cases, as these depend on the nature and type of the requested feedback, the specific nature of the assessment employed and the depth to which the issues are examined.

Further Reading

CAUTHE (2012). *The new golden age of tourism and hospitality, Book 1*, Proceedings of the 22nd Annual Conference. Melbourne : La Trobe University.

Ellet, W. (2018). *Case study handbook: How to read, discuss, and write persuasively about cases* (1st ebook ed.). Boston. MA : Harvard Business Press.

Gillham, B. (2000). *Case study research methods.* London : Continuum.

Further Reading cont.

Harrison, J. S., & Enz, C. A. (2009). *Hospitality strategic management concepts and cases* (2nd ed.). Hoboken, NJ : John Wiley and sons.

Hartley, J. (2004). Case study research. In C. Cassell & G. Symon (Eds.), *Essential guide to qualitative methods in organizational research* (pp. 323-333). London : Sage.

Hyde, K. F., Ryan, C., & Woodside, A. (Eds.) (2012). *Field guide to case study research in tourism, hospitality and leisure.* Bingley, UK : Emerald.

Saunders, P. M. (1997). Experiential learning, cases and simulations in business communication, *Business Communication Quarterly. 60*(1), 97-114. https://doi.org/10.1177/108056999706000108

Thomas, G. (2011). *How to do your case study*. London: Sage.

Woodside, A. (2001). *Case study research: theory, methods and practice.* Bingley, UK : Emerald.

Yin, R. K. (2013). *Case study research: Design and methods* (5thed.). London : Sage.

Yin, R. K. (2017). *Case study research and applications: Design and methods.* London : Sage.

Part 1

Non-revealed Case Studies

Working in Hospitality

by Daniela Matušíková

Hospitality may be perceived as an unenviable part of tourism sphere. Coping with tourists brings about a variety of different situations. Thus ideally, hospitality services desire experienced and decisive employees who can meet the expectations of their guests with ease and confidence. Many authors have defined hospitality. For example, hospitality is "the business of helping people to feel welcome and relaxed and to enjoy themselves" (Skripak, Cortes, Walton & Walz, 2015, p.306). Ward (2016) reminds us that the term 'hospitality' is derived from the Latin word 'hospitaire', which means 'to receive a guest' and mentions that hospitality requires a host to welcome a guest who is away from home and to provide basic necessities such as food, beverages and lodging. However, hospitality is especially about services.

John, an employee at a restaurant has experienced many situations but one day a 'new' situation confronted him. A strange looking elderly man entered the restaurant and chose a place to sit. After a while, the man asked: "What is the soup of the day ?", then he ordered it. A few minutes after he had finished eating the soup, he left his bag on the table, informing John that he was going outside to make a telephone call because the signal was poor inside the restaurant. He did not return. The bag he left on the table was empty; he had eaten the soup and not paid for it.

The restaurant manager asked John why he didn´t ask the man for the money. John replied that he believed the man would come back for the bag. John had to pay for the soup himself. A few hours later, he finished his shift. On the way home, he decided not to choose the closest bus stop; he felt like taking a short walk and some fresh air. When he was walking through the town, he saw the man who did not pay in the restaurant. John did not know what to do. His first idea was to stop the man and ask for the money that was owed to him. However, he decided to let the man go on his way and John went home, deciding that if the man came into the restaurant again, he would refuse to serve him.

References

Skripak, S. J., Cortes, A., Walton, G., & Walz, A. (2018). Hospitality and Tourism. In A. Walz (Ed.), *Fundamentals of business* (2nd ed.) (pp. 303-331). Virginia : VT publishing. Retrieved from https ://vtechworks.lib.vt.edu/bitstream/handle/10919/84848/Chapter-16-Fundamentals-of-Business-2e.pdf ?sequence=32&isAllowed=y

Ward, J. (2016). *Hospitality.* Retrieved from https ://slideplayer.com/slide/8395646/

Questions

1. Have you had experience of a guest who did not pay for an order ? If so, how did the situation arise and how was it managed ?
2. What do you think John should have done/do in future to avoid such a situation ?
3. How would you react if you had been John, especially if you met the person again ?
4. What are your views on the way in which the restaurant manager dealt with the situation ?
5. If you were the manager of a restaurant, what procedures would you put in place to deal with/avoid non-payment for orders ?
6. How would you instruct your employees to avoid such situation ?

Recommended Reading

Doyle, A. (2018). Management skills list and examples. *The balance careers*. Retrieved from : https ://www.thebalancecareers.com/management-skills-list-2062427

Lashley, C. (2015). Hospitality experience : An introduction to hospitality Management. *Journal of Tourism Futures, 1*(2), 160-161.

Reel around the Fountain: Using Free Association Narrative Analysis (FANA) for the Collection of Dark Tourism Subject Matter

by Neil Robinson, Crispin Dale and Mike Evans

Various many qualitative methods can be employed when collecting primary data from tourists, including traditional face-to-face interviews, focus groups, participant observation and so on (Dwyer, Gill & Seetaram, 2012). Whilst such techniques might be suitable for eliciting visitor motivations associated with consuming traditional sun, sea and sand locations, the question is raised: How should the views of visitors to sites associated with Dark Tourism be best obtained ? Dark Tourism is associated with the study of death and destruction, described by Lennon and Foley (1996, p. 200) as "the phenomenon which encompasses the presentation and consumption (by visitors) of real and commodified death and disaster sites". Dark Tourism covers a broad spectrum of classifications; it can embrace the classical, such as the Coliseum in Rome where Gladiators would fight to the death as an entertainment spectacle to fee paying visitors, to the more contemporary such as Auschwitz and Ground Zero. In an attempt to obtain qualitative data from tourists visiting dark sites regarding, for example, their opinions, feelings and motivations, an accommodating, user friendly, respectful and empathetic data collection method, which allows for sensitive in-depth probing when required, is needed; enter Free Association Narrative Analysis (FANA).

Within the narrative tradition of social science research, biographical interpretative methods, that is the use of biographical accounts/storytelling in research, have been endorsed by: Alterio (1999); Boje (1991); Gabriel (1995); McDrury and Alterio (2002); and Reason and Hawkins (1988). FANA (Holloway & Jefferson, 2001) offers a potential tool to extend or supplement data/information in an attempt to further understand behaviours and motives. FANA draws upon psychology and sociology and works on the premise that the understanding of an individual's identity and behaviour can be obtained through analysis of his or her life story. Indeed, 'story telling' has in recent years gained support from the academic community with the use of narratives and personal testimonies/accounts to inform research. Furthermore, life-stories of individuals are a useful way of exploring the complex nature of the visitor experience (Chamberlayne, Bornat & Wendgraf, 2000; Chamberlayne, Rustin & Wendgraf, 2002).

Interpretive biographical methods were developed first by German sociologists who were attempting to elicit accounts of the lives of both holocaust survivors and Nazi soldiers (Rosenthal, 1993; Schutze, 1992). Schutze (1992) encapsulated the accounts of individual visitors to contemporary murder sites from faded memories and delayed recollections of particular experiences. This approach enabled a focus on the whole picture, rather than its constituent parts (cf. Koffka, 1922) so enabling identification of those components that informed each person's life. Holloway and Jefferson (2010, p. 34) stated that researchers employing NAFA to elicit narratives should follow four principles:

1. Utilise open-ended and not closed questions.
2. Have a fundamental understanding of how to elicit stories.
3. Ensure 'why' questions are avoided.
4. Follow up using respondent's ordering and phrasing.

In an attempt to research fear of crime, Holloway & Jefferson (2010) employed a tri-part theoretical configuration centred on crime/victimisation, risk/safety and anxiety/worry. They noted that such a theoretical structure worked well in providing a frame for eliciting information on fear of crime. From this point, they continued by designing a number of questions, informed by the initial theoretical structure. Such an approach works well in generating narratives about dark tourism visitation with a possible theoretical structure being focused on: site/visitation, interest/motivations; and activities/archiving etc. Questions could be developed from these theoretical structures, whilst ensuring that any story told by the visitor was free flowing and not suggested to, or coaxed from, the interviewee. Some suggestions regarding possible questions that follow a FANA inspired theme are:

- Can you tell me about your interest in visiting this particular site ?
- You said earlier in our conversation that your grandfather's involvement in World War II was a key motivation for visiting this site, can you elaborate on this further ?
- How did the terrible events at Ground Zero motivate you to visit this site ?

References

Alterio, M. G. (1999, April). *Using formalized storytelling as a professional development tool.* Paper presented at the National Staff Educational Development Association and the Society for Research in Higher Education Conference, Research and Practice in Higher Educational Development(s), Grantham, United Kingdom.

Boje, D. M. (1991). The storytelling organization : A study of story performance in an office-supply firm. *Administrative Science Quarterly, 36*, 106-126.

Chamberlayne, P., Bornat, J., & Wengraf, T. (Eds.) (2000). *The turn to biographical methods in social science: Comparative issues and examples.* London : Routledge.

Chamberlayne, P., Rustin, M., & Wengraf, T. (2002). *Biography and social exclusion in Europe; Experiences and life journeys.* Bristol, UK : The Policy Press.

Dwyer, L. Gill, A., & Seetaram, N. (2012). *Handbook of research methods in tourism: Quantitative and qualitative approaches.* Cheltenham, UK : Edward Elgar Publishing

Gabriel, Y. (1995). The unmanaged organization : Stories, fantasies and subjectivity. *Organization Studies*, *16*(3), 477-501.

Holloway, W., & Jefferson, T. (2001). Free association narrative analysis and the defended subject : The case of Ivy. *Narrative Inquiry, 11*(1), 103-122.

Holloway, W., & Jefferson, T. (2010). *Doing qualitative research differently: Free association narrative and the interview method.* London : Sage.

Koffka, K. (1922). Perception : An introduction to the Gestalt-theorie. *Psychological Bulletin*, *19*, 531-585.

Lennon, J., & Foley, M. (1996). JFK and dark tourism : A fascination with assassination. *International Journal of Heritage Studies, 2*(4). 198-211.

McDrury, J., & Alterio, M. G. (2002). *Learning through storytelling: Using reflection and experience in higher education contexts*. Palmerston North, New Zealand : Dunmore Press.

Reason, P., & Hawkins, P. (1988). Storytelling as inquiry. In P. Reason (Ed.) *Human inquiry in action; Developments in new paradigm research* (pp. 79-101). London : Sage.

Rosenthal, G. (1993). Reconstruction of life stories : principles of selection in generating stories for narrative biographical interviews. *The Narrative Stories of Lives, 1,* 59-91.

Schutze, F. (1992). Pressure and guilt : the experience of a young German soldier in world war two and its biographical implications. *International Sociology*, *7*(2 & 3), 187-208 & 347-367.

Recommended Reading

Holloway, W., & Jefferson, T. (2008). The free association narrative interview method. In L. M. Given, (Ed.) *The SAGE encyclopedia of qualitative research methods* (pp. 296-315). Sevenoaks, CA : Sage.

Questions

1. Explain why an interviewer might use the FANA technique to collect data about dark tourism sites.

2. In an attempt to collect rich data, can you identify any specific tourist types for which/locations where FANA could be used ?

3. Can you identify any ethical issues that need to be considered by the interviewer when employing the FANA technique ?

Tourism Company Mergers: The Pros and Cons

by Sheree Anne O'Neill

Part I

Company A operates a premier backpacker transportation network in New Zealand. The company has been in existence for many years, initially set up as a limited liability company by a group of young friends, who had just returned from travelling overseas together for several months. From the outset, their objective was to provide a flexible transport network for independent travellers. They never planned organised tours but offered various travel options that linked New Zealand's scenic and adventure attractions.

Company B provides holiday vehicles for rent and for sale globally; they operate several notable tourism ventures in New Zealand. Company B is listed on the New Zealand Stock Exchange. Recently, Company B has gained full ownership of Company A.

When the companies merged there was a clash of cultures and philosophies. Company A was vibrant, adaptable and not heavily weighed down with structure. The owners were 'hands on' in the business; strategic and operational decisions were made easily. Conversely, because Company B was listed on the New Zealand stock exchange, it had a Board of Directors; furthermore, it was highly structured and regulated. To successfully integrate Company A into Company B, a new General Manager was appointed by Company B to head Company A.

Questions

1. Define and discuss the concepts of organisational structure.
2. Identify the organisational structure of Company A and explain two advantages and two disadvantages of this type of structure.
3. Identify the organisational structure of Company B and explain two advantages and two disadvantages of this type of structure.
4. Examine the organisational culture in Companies A and B then suggest a way forward that might help to rationalise the opposing perspectives.

5. Part II

When Company B put a new General Manager in place to oversee Company A, the incumbent was faced with negativity from Company A staff, who were anti-corporate; they not only resented the takeover of the company but also his position. Company B provided the General Manager with the major objectives for Company A, namely, to increase profit, grow passenger numbers and reduce operational costs.

Question

1. Identify and discuss two leadership theories or strategies that the new General Manager could use to manage the negativity from staff and achieve his three stated objectives.

Recommended Reading

Collier, A. (2011). *Principles of tourism: A New Zealand perspective* (8th ed.). Auckland, New Zealand: Pearson New Zealand.

Gill, L., & Pio, E. (Eds.) (2006). *Organisations and management: Theories and applications.* Auckland, New Zealand: Pearson New Zealand.

Millar, S., & Theunissen, C. (2007). *Managing organisations in New Zealand* (3rd ed.). Auckland, New Zealand: Pearson New Zealand.

Moutinho, L., & Vargas-Sanchez, A. (Eds.). (2018). *Strategic management in tourism* (3rd ed.). Oxfordshire, England: CABI.

Managing Tourism Destinations Sustainably: From Governance to Metagovernance

by María de la Cruz Pulido-Fernández and Juan Ignacio Pulido-Fernández

Tourism activity is conducted by a range of actors, who are all interdependent and follow their own set of rules, procedures, principles, responsibilities and objectives (Kuenzi & McNeely, 2008). Therefore, it is essential they have instruments allowing them to participate, share common principles, make plans, reinforce decision-making processes and achieve a consensus to overcome the conflicts that have arisen so enabling them to seek opportunities for the different populations involved and establish strategies to achieve the development of sustainable tourism.(Merinero & Pulido, 2009; Pulido-Fernández & Pulido-Fernández, 2018); It is essential that governments and companies interested in developing tourism acknowledge their interdependence regarding resources and recognise that they cannot promote tourism on their own (Nordin & Svensson, 2005; Pulido, López & Pulido, 2013).

There is an instrument that facilitates the joint participation of all stakeholders in the planning and management of tourism destinations: this instrument is called tourism governance. It can be defined as: "Governance is a practice of government that is measurable, that is aimed to effectively direct the tourism sectors at the different levels of government through forms of coordination, collaboration and/or cooperation that are efficient, transparent and subject to accountability, that help to achieve goals of collective interest shared by networks of actors involved in the sector, with the aim of developing solutions and opportunities through agreements based on the recognition of interdependencies and shared responsibilities" (UNWTO, 2010, p. 22).

A tourism company's ability to innovate depends not only on its own initiatives, but also on a broader context that is part of the tourism destination: customers; organisations; companies; and other public bodies. Therefore, "governance is essential when creating a tourism destination that is dynamic, innovative and focused on public-private relationships, formal and informal networks" (Pulido, 2014, p. 164). Likewise, tourism sustainability requires that the political, economic and social actors involved in tourism production, at any level (local, regional, national, supranational), reach understandings and achieve synergies, as well as coordinate and organise themselves so that they define and realise general objectives that tend to benefit the whole society, and diminish the negative impacts that tourist activity may cause (UNWTO, 2010). Therefore, achieving sustainable development of tourism is related directly to the application of good, transparent and equitable governance, which includes methods of community management and social economy based on participation, self-management of much of the tourism development process, the democratic adoption of decisions and the equitable distribution of resources and benefits (Bramwell & Lane, 2011; Lanquar & Rivera, 2010). The process is inclusive, since each stakeholder incorporates qualities, skills and resources that are important for the whole, while critical factors in the process include: building and maintaining trust, commitment and negotiation between the parties. The heterogeneity of stakeholder objectives suggests that it is difficult to achieve successful governance of tourism destinations in terms of reaching a legitimate consensus, in particular to address the problematic issue of sustainability.

Most studies on tourism governance do not recognise the asymmetrical privilege of some results over others (that is, winners and losers in the governance process), which requires applying mechanisms proper to governance to tourism governance, that is implementing metagovernance. The objective is to manage the complexity and plurality of governance, organising conditions for governance to achieve the best possible results from the perspective of all those involved in the process (Spyriadis, Buhalis & Fyall, 2011). When managing a tourism destination, the actors need to reach agreements and decisions among themselves. Standards are thus formulated, confirmed then invalidated or adapted as a consequence of the governance processes. Thus, any governance process requires clearly establishing the "rules of the game" (the standards), which can be done at three levels (Santizo, 2011):

a. The rules are known and accepted by all, in which case the rules are implicitly reproduced.
b. The rules are debated openly, reproduced or modified.

c. The norms, regulating how the rules are to be defined and who has the legitimacy to define them, are established.

This latter level is called metagovernance, and can be defined, following Kooiman and Jentoft (2009), as the ethical foundations, values, norms and principles that guide and define government actions (Santizo, 2011). These values, norms and principles refer to substantive government issues, such as problems related to the sustainable use of resources, or to subjects related to the government system, such as its institutional design. For Jessop (2016), metagovernance occurs, among other cases, when there is a lack of trust between the interested parties or failures in their relationships, leading to the system being redesigned. The aim is to establish the basic rules through which governance partners can pursue their objectives, with the guarantee that the mechanisms followed to that end are compatible and coherent based on dialogue and deliberations (Jenkins, Hall & Mkono, 2014).

According to Sorensen (2014), metagovernance aims to improve the efficiency, efficacy, democratic quality and innovative capacity of governance. The author establishes four kinds of metagovernance (Sorensen, 2014, p. 7):

1. Metagovernance acts upon governance by defining its global political objectives and distributing the financial resources available. In this case, actors are left to decide how to govern themselves within this global policy.
2. Governance networks can also be split through the strategic design of the institutions within which they operate. The aim is to influence a governance network's decisions and actions.
3. Metagovernance consists of facilitating collaborative processes within a network, which will help to generate trust and mutual understanding among the network's actors and deal with the conflicts and problems that occur in the negotiation processes. The method of metagovernance is limited to improving self-government capacity.
4. Metagovernance participates actively in the network's negotiation processes and influences them.

According to Sorensen (2014), these four kinds of metagovernance must be seen as complementary and not as alternatives. Moreover, it is essential that since metagovernance is capable of controlling the governance network, it must give it sufficient autonomy to function properly: too much control would undermine the governance network's self-government capacity, while poor control would entail a lack of direction and coordination of the actions carried out. For their part, Kooiman and Jentoft (2009) highlight a series of general principles that metagovernance should follow: transparency, efficiency, accountability, respect, equity, inclusion, efficacy, responsiveness and moral responsibility (See Table 1).

Regarding the question of the major player in metagovernance, Jessop (2003) points out that, on this occasion, the State would become a participant of a pluralistic orientation system bringing its own resources to the negotiation process. The State's influence would depend on its role as the main source and mediator of collective intelligence as well as its control of economic resources. In this sense, Sorensen (2014) indicates that, although other stakeholders may have the necessary resources to achieve successful metagovernance, public authorities have the greatest resources, capacity and organisational expertise to design and facilitate collaborative governance.

Table 1 Metagovernance Principles

PRINCIPLES OF METAGOVERNANCE	CONTENT
Transparency	The system must be open and allow the dissemination and promotion of the implemented initiatives.
Efficiency	As a principle to be followed in the choice and application of instruments: cost; efficiency; economic efficiency; efficiency in response time etc.
Accountability	Decision makers do not have limited autonomy: they must justify their actions to interested parties.
Respect	Avoid intruding in people's lives and their institutions. From a metagovernance perspective, this principle is not only an individual duty, but a collective responsibility.
Equity	Defined as the quality or the ideal of being fair and impartial.
Inclusion	Understood as the right of the interested parties to participate in decisions that will affect them.
Efficacy	Defined as the ability to achieve a match between the declared goals and their achievement.
Responsiveness	Understood as an adequate response capacity to both actors and institutions.
Moral Responsibility	Governance itself is fundamentally ethical and can be justified according to some generally accepted values.

Source: Authors' own elaboration from Kooiman and Jentoft (2009).

In short, different governance mechanisms can cause differences in the efficacy of stakeholders' joint interventions (Simancas & Ledesma, 2017) when managing tourism destinations. Hence, it is essential to adopt rules, procedures, values and beliefs that shape, facilitate and guide the application of governance as a method of managing tourism destinations.

References

Bramwell, B. & Lane, B. (2011). Critical research on the governance of tourism and sustainability. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 19*(4-5), 411-421.

Jenkins, J. M., Hall, C. M., & Mkono, M. (2014). Tourism and public policy : Contemporary debates and future directions. In A. A. Lew, C. M. Hall, & A. M. Williams (Eds.). *A companion to tourism* (pp. 542-555). Oxford : Blackwell.

Jessop, B. (2003). *Governance y metagovernance: On reflexivity, requisite variety and requisite irony.* Retrieved from : http ://www.lancaster.ac.uk/fass/resources/sociology-online-papers/papers/jessop-governance-and-metagovernance.pdf.

Jessop, B. (2016) : Territory, politics, governance and multispatial metagovernance. *Territory, Politics, Governance 4*(1), 8-32.

Kooiman, J., & Jentoft, S. (2009). Meta-governance : Values, norms and principles and the making of hard choices. *Public Administration, 87*(4), 818-836.

Kuenzi, C., & McNeely, J. (2008).Nature-based tourism. In O. Renn, & K. Walker (Eds.) *Global risk governance: Concept and practice using the IRGC framework* (pp. 155-178). Netherlands : Springer.

Lanquar, R., & Rivera, M. (2010). El proyecto "Tres" y la "Declaración de Córdoba" España: una apuesta por la articulación de estrategias de turismo responsable y solidario desde Europa. *PASOS Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural 8*(4), 673-687.

Merinero, R., & Pulido, J. I. (2009). Desarrollo turístico y dinámica relacional. Metodología de análisis para la gestión activa de destinos turísticos. *Cuadernos de Turismo*, *23*, 173-193.

Nordin S., & Svensson B. (2005). The significance of governance in innovative tourism Destinations. *ETOUR Working Paper 2,* 1-14.

Pulido, M. C., López, Y., & Pulido, J. I. (2013). Methodological Proposal for the Incorporation of Governance as a Key Factor for Sustainable Tourism Management : The Case of Spain. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science 3*(15),10-24.

Pulido, M. C (2014). *Metodología para la implantación de la gobernanza como herramienta de gestión de destinos turísticos*. Jaén, España : Universidad de Jaén.

Pulido-Fernández, M. C., & Pulido-Fernández, J. I. (2018). Proposal for an indicators system of governance in tourism destinations. *Social Indicators Research 137*(2), 695-743.

Santizo, C. (2011). Gobernanza y participación social en la escuela pública. *Revista Mexicana de Investigación Educativa*, *16*(50), 751-773.

Simancas, M., & Ledesma, O. (2017). El papel de los stakeholders en los procesos de gobernanza y renovación de las áreas turísticas del litoral. *Estudios y Perspectivas en Turismo, 26,* 348-369.

Sorensen, E. (2014). *The metagovernance of public innovation in governance networks.* Retrieved from : http ://www.bristol.ac.uk/media-library/sites/sps/migrated/documents/sorensonthemetagovernanceofpublicinnovation.pdf.

Spyriadis, T., Buhalis, D., & Fyall A. (2011). Dynamics of destination governance : Governance and metagovernance in the composite industrial environment of destinations. In E. Laws, H. Richins, J. Agrusa, & N. Scott (Eds.) *Tourist Destination Governance. Practice, Theory and Issues* (pp. 187-202). Cornwall, UK : MPG Books Group.

UNWTO, (2010). *Proyecto de Gobernanza para el sector turismo*. Retrieved from : http ://dtxtq4w60xqpw.cloudfront.net/sites/all/files/docpdf/gobejecutivo.pdf

Questions

1. Does governance favour innovation in the tourism destination ? Justify your answer.
2. What is metagovernance ? Discuss this concept with your classmates.
3. What is the objective of metagovernance ?
4. List the principles of metagovernance.
5. Who is more important for metagovernance processes to occur in tourism destinations : the public sector or the private sector ?

Part 2i

Revealed Case Studies

Front Office Management

by Anna Šenková and Daniela Matušíková

Zuzana, a graduate of the Hotel School, was employed on a part-time basis as a receptionist in a recreation centre near her home. As a beginner, she was mentored by John, an experienced worker; he instructed her on the requisite job processes and agenda. After a while, Zuzana found out that most of the leaders and managers had been promoted from inside the organisation to their current positions. In the main summer season, the visitor numbers to the repost increased and reception staff were overloaded with work. At that critical time, the managers were unwilling to help. Furthermore, the reception was disorganised and, frequently, her co-workers did not arrive for their shifts. After work, the managers often spent their free time socialising with the employees and some employees seemed to have certain benefits from managers with whom they had friendly relationships. Zuzana was unhappy with the management's behaviour and apparent lack of interest in their jobs; this situation led to her dissatisfaction with the working conditions and made her work unnecessarily difficult.

About two months later, when Zuzana came to work, she found out that another manager, Thomas, had replaced her former one. Thomas had worked previously in a hotel abroad. No one told her why this management replacement had happened, but she expected the reception to work as before. To her surprise, changes began almost instantly. Managers and other senior employees started to work with the receptionists and Thomas was available whenever she needed him.

When Thomas took over, he began by having a private face-to-face interview with each employee. Every day, before the working shift, he called a working meeting to highlight, review and discuss any anticipated problems. The favouritism of certain workers, when shift and 'days off' rotas were drawn up, also stopped. Following the interviews, Thomas reviewed the information and then he introduced appropriate training programmes and standardised work procedures. All employees had to demonstrate that they were able to comply with these work standards and some colleagues had to resume training for their positions.

Over the next few months, some of the managers left. Both internal and external qualified candidates were invited to apply for their positions. Life at the reception was better every day. All of the managers progressed uniformly and were consistent in their workplace efforts. It was clearly visible how Thomas's professional approach improved the operation.

Questions and Activities

1. Think about the atmosphere at the reception desk before Thomas arrived and give at least one example of a formal and informal group in the workplace.
2. How was the irresponsible behaviour of the original leaders and managers in conflict with authority ? Discuss from an employee's perspective.
3. How can a senior manager achieve respect ?
4. Based on the recommended reading and further research, how would you set standards and procedures for the reception staff ?

Recommended Reading

Bardi, J. A. (2011). *Hotel front office management* (5th ed.). Hoboken, NJ : John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Rutherford, D. G., & O'Fallon, M. J. (2006). *Hotel management and operations* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ : John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Tesone, D. (2015). *Principles of management for the hospitality industry*. New York : Routledge.

Business Case of Combining Offline and Online Marketing

by Detlev Remy and Wolf Magnus Gerstkamp

Note: This case was developed from the keynote speech of the first author at a conference in Singapore (http://biz-strategy.org/) contrasting traditional and digital marketing.

Digital or online marketing, or just simple ‘new marketing’, are not just buzz words anymore; they are a reality. Almost every day we learn about fantastic opportunities and technological developments that open even more promising avenues for businesses and offer new insights into customer behaviour and revenue maximisation; usage of artificial intelligence in marketing seems to be one of the most promising developments to date.

According to Groenroos (2006) and Palmer and Ponsonby (2002), marketing is losing its credibility and the marketing function is in decline; it appears as if the days of traditional marketing are gone (c.f. Todor, 2016). The last paradigm shift in marketing was, for many academics, the focus on relationship marketing (Harker & Egan, 2006). The question is raised: Has there been another paradigm shift, or is ‘new’ marketing akin to old wine in new bottles ?

Clearly, from the practitioner’s perspective, there is interdependence but also conflict between traditional and ‘new’ marketing. Which approach is more appropriate to the habits and preferences of guests ? Knowledge and awareness of the guests’ profile and habits has always been paramount, particularly with respect to relationship marketing. It is postulated that traditional marketing remains very effective for the luxury market where the needs of each individual should be considered and fulfilled. Digital approaches, in a sense, may be considered "too common" in many respects for expensive products and services; however, for most industries, the mix offered by

Integrated Marketing Communications (IMC) (See Ekhlassi, Maghsoodi & Mehrmanesh, 2012) is likely to be the best approach according to the desired message and response.

Regarding Small and Medium Sized Enterprises (SMEs), the new or digital marketing offers an array of opportunities. Social media marketing, for example, would appear to be especially advantageous for SMEs due to their greater business flexibility and higher need to contain marketing communications costs (Pentina & Koh, 2012). IBMs CEO survey reported that 50% of small and mid-size businesses planned to use social media for marketing in the next three years (Casey, 2012).

Mark Winter is the owner of the family-run Hotel Amber, located in a mountainous area in the South of Germany; the destination is quite famous for winter and summer activities. Mark just recently took over the hotel management from his father, who still works in the hotel and advises him regularly on strategies and trends.

The 4-star hotel, established in 1946, has a capacity of 60 twin-bedded rooms; a huge proportion of its guests are repeat customers in the age range of 50-75. These guests come mainly from the Northern part of Germany, and some from Denmark, and Sweden too. They enjoy the snow in the winter, and hiking in the mountains in the summer time. They also appreciate the family-run business, calling the owner and the family by first names, and they often meet other repeat guests too. In general, the clientele feel very pampered and they are treated well as loyal customers. New guests, who are mostly in the same age bracket, are attracted normally by newspaper advertisements and paid editorials. An external advertising agency is employed for this purpose, whilst other new customers are brought in by word of mouth.

Having attended a famous hotel school in Switzerland, Mark is well aware of the actual trends in the hotel industry, including changing demographic patterns and consumer behaviour. Indeed, ongoing developments in Web 2.0 and 3G/4G technologies have created a major paradigm shift in business-to-customer relationships - a shift in information control. Customers are no longer passive 'receivers' of company and brand-related marketing messages. Instead, they are engaged in initiating conversations with, and providing feedback to, businesses as well as in creating and sharing content amongst themselves. Social media sites allow users to create and share personal profiles, establish and develop new connections, and provide and acquire information in an interactive manner (Boyd & Ellison, 2008).

That said, Mark is aware that he has to review his marketing strategy which to date has been based only on traditional marketing, such as advertising in newspapers, working with a 'brick and mortar' advertising company, and placing some advertisements in the yellow pages' directory too. Mark sees the need to rejuvenate the customer base in order to be prepared for the future. He is aware also that his hotel and its ambience will not attract a very different target market at this stage. Furthermore, recently he has attended several workshops conducted by his regional hotel association and learned that digital marketing, with all its different possibilities such as social media marketing etc., is a 'must' nowadays.

Now, Mark faces the challenge of coming up with a decision on how to re-structure the business in terms of marketing strategy. Ideally, he would like to combine 'old', traditional marketing with 'new', digital marketing. Unfortunately, he has not the full overview and insights, and neither the skills to evaluate and implement newer marketing techniques. Finally, he is worried too about any additional investment. Moreover, he foresees problems in convincing his family and colleagues to support him in adapting to digital marketing practices. He understands that many colleagues and family members have been working in this property for a very long time and they are used to working in a recognisable format and with the same organisational structure for many years, or even for decades, making it most probably difficult for them to accept and adapt to new ways of doing things; Furthermore, he anticipates they might be afraid of the uncertainty of the new methods; they might also be afraid to lose their identities or positions (c.f. Eagle, 1999).

Mark realises that the best way of getting the optimal future strategy of marketing in place is to have a shared approach during the development process (c.f. Kezar, 2016), since he is not convinced what the best strategy will be, he needs further input from the team. He is also aware that the new marketing strategy would change the entire organisation. "Most planned organisational change is triggered by the need to respond to new challenges or opportunities presented by the external environment" (Mullins, 2016, p. 554), which in his situation is the need for a new marketing strategy. "Planned change represents an intentional attempt to improve, in some important way, the operational effectiveness of the organisation" (Mullins, 2016, p. 554). Since Mark wants to change the overall effectiveness of the marketing strategy and, in turn, the organisation to be better prepared for the future; he decides to call a meeting to inform the entire team of his future strategic plans.

The initial idea for the meeting is to present to, and discuss with, the team his new idea for marketing activities for the future. In leadership and human resources this approach of involvement of the team from the very beginning of organisational change may be referred to as the "bottom-up approach". Mark's bottom-up approach seems to be an optimal idea, since "the more your team are asked their opinions, the more they will feel empowered, trusted and respected – and the more engaged they will be" as mentioned by Andriotis (2017, p.3). Additionally, in Lewin's basic change management model, the steps of which are: unfreeze-change-freeze (Laurie, 1990). The first step determines why, and if, a change in processes is actually necessary (Oliver, 2018). Together, Mark and the colleagues can start to assess if there is a need for change and, if so, discuss the parameters and process for the development of a new strategy. Most important, as the leader, Mark needs to be convinced completely that any recommended change is needed and, if so, that he is fully supporting the team regarding their decisions (cf. Mullins, 2016; Oliver, 2018).

References

Boyd, D. M., & Ellison, N. B. (2008). Social network sites: Definition, history, and scholarship. *Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 13*(1), 210–230.

Casey, K (2012). Midmarket firms big on collaboration, slow on social. *Information Week, 13 June.* Retrieved from: https://www.informationweek.com/applications/midmarket-firms-big-on-collaboration-slow-on-social/d/d-id/1104839.

Eagle, M. (1999). Why don't people change ? A psychoanalytic perspective. *Journal of Psychotherapy Integration, 9*(1), 3-32.

Ekhlassi, A., Maghsoodi, V., & Mehrmanesh, S. (2012). Determining the integrated marketing communication tools for different stages of customer relationship. *Digital E International Journal of Information and Electronics Engineering, 2*(5), 761-765.

Groenroos, C. (2006). On defining marketing : Finding a new roadmap for marketing. *Marketing Theory, 6*(4), 395-417.

Harker, M. J., & Egan, J. (2006). The past, present and future of relationship marketing. *Journal of Marketing Management, 22*(1-2), 215-242.

Kezar, A. (2016). Bottom-up/top-down leadership : Contradiction or hidden phenomenon. *The Journal of Higher Education, 83*(5), 725-760.

Laurie, J. (1990). The ABCs of change management. *Training & Development Journal*, 44, 87-92.

Mullins, L. (2016). *Organisational behaviour and management* (11th ed.). London : Pearson

Oliver, M. (2018). Charting for change in the workplace. *Human Synergistics International*. Retrieved from https ://www.humansynergistics.com/blog/culture-university/culture-university/2018/01/31/charting-for-change-in-the-workplace.

Palmer, A., & Ponsonby, S. (2002). The social construction of new marketing paradigms : The influence of personal perspective. *Journal of Marketing Management, 18*(1-2), 173-192.

Pentina, I., & Koh, C. A. (2012). Exploring social media marketing strategies in SMEs. *International Journal of Internet Marketing and Advertising, 7*(4), 292-310.

Todor, R. D. (2016). Blending and traditional marketing. *Economic Science, 9*(1), 51-56.

Questions and Activities

First, examine the pertinent issues based on the recommended reading below then :

1. Determine the challenges in terms of switching the marketing strategy.
2. Critically reflect on the best leadership approach to implement the necessary changes.
3. Make practical recommendations for acquiring new customers.
4. Discuss possible implications of focusing excessively on new and digital marketing.
5. Analyse how your considered approach might : (i) impact on the employees ; and (ii) increase overall organisational performance and effectiveness.

Recommended Reading

Eagle, M. (1999). Why don't people change ? A psychoanalytic perspective. *Journal of Psychotherapy Integration, 9*(1), 3-32.

Hackman, M., & Johnson, C. (2013). *Leadership: A communication perspective* (6th ed.). Long Grove, IL : Waveland Press.

Lee, K. S., Lim, G. H., & Tan, S. J. (1999). Dealing with resource disadvantage : Generic strategies for SMEs. *Small Business Economics, 12*(4), 299-311.

Tannenbaum, R., & Schmidt, W. (1958). How to choose a leadership pattern. *Harvard Business Review, 51*(3), 162-180.

Big Data (In)Security of Hospitality Organisations

by Matthew H. T. Yap

For many years, hospitality companies have been collecting precious information regarding their internal and external customers through employment and membership applications, respectively. In the collection and storage of employees' data, it is necessary to exercise due diligence; the gathering of such information is crucial to the success of hospitality businesses (Griffin, 1998). Customers' data can allow hospitality service providers, managers and companies to better understand and serve them (Xiang, Schwartz, Gerdes, Jr. & Uysal, 2015). Additionally, they can be used for marketing research and promotion. In the eyes of investors, big data can add both non-monetary and monetary value to the hospitality organisations. Big data and analytics have become part of hotel operations (Barr, 2016). However, investment in data warehousing, managing information systems and big data security is often costly and challenging (Kshetri, 2014; O'Connor, 2008). Organisations are responsible for ensuring that the collected big data are stored securely and privately.

Recently, news of big data breaches in both government agencies and private companies have gone viral globally. For instance, the United States Office of Personnel Management's 22 million users' data (including passport information) were breached in 2012 (Armerding, 2018). One year later, Yahoo's data breach affecting three billion user accounts was considered the worst incident in the twenty-first century (Armerding, 2018). Hospitality companies were no exception. In 2018 alone, British Airways (Caswell, 2018a), Cathay Pacific Airways (The Straits Times, 2018), Radisson Rewards (Caswell, 2018b) and Marriott International (Armerding, 2018) announced that the security of their data was compromised; 9.4 million passengers and 500 million users were impacted by Cathay Pacific Airways and Marriott International incidents, respectively. The seriousness of the data breaches was grave because they involved not only users' personal but also their financial information.

Due to the incident, Cathay Pacific Airways may have violated privacy rules; hence they are currently under a compliance investigation by the Hong Kong's privacy commission (Kwok, 2018). Moreover, Cathay Pacific Airways acknowledged the data breach incident publicly only after seven months delay (The Straits Times, 2018). This discovery resulted in a 1.7 per cent drop in their share price, loss of consumers' confidence and a negative image of the company with respect to their handling of the incident (Kwok, 2018). There was also a rumour that the data breach was caused by a cost trimming measure, initiated to rise profits (Kwok, 2018). The Chief Executive Officer assured all passengers that Cathay Pacific Airways had done everything they could to rectify the data breach issue; however, unlike British Airways, to date Cathay Pacific Airways have not offered any compensation to the affected passengers (Bright, 2018).

Marriott's International data breach is ranked as the second biggest incident after Yahoo (Armerding, 2018). Preliminary investigation revealed that the data breach was caused by the Marriott International and Starwood Hotels and Resorts Worldwide database merger in 2015. The New York Times speculated a conspiracy theory - that the Chinese Government is behind the breach (Sanger, Perlroth, Thrush & Rappeport, 2018). This incident resulted in Marriott International's facing a class-action law suit and a 5.6 per cent decline in their share prices (Volodzko, 2018). Experts and government officials criticised Marriott International for not noticing the breach after three years. Further, some experts claim that many companies have chosen to operate with insufficient data security because it is cheaper than the consequences of a data breach (Volodzko, 2018). The Marriott International data breach incident has alerted many hotel companies that their current security measures are insufficient to safeguard their customers' data. To date, Marriott International has not offered any compensation to the affected customers.

References

Armerding, T. (2018, December 20). The 18 biggest data breaches of the 21st century. *CSO*. Retrieved from https://www.csoonline.com/article/2130877/data-breach/the-biggest-data-breaches-of-the-21st-century.html.

Barr, B. (2016). How big data and analytics are changing hotels and the hospitality industry. *Forbes*. Retrieved from https://www.forbes.com/sites/bernardmarr/2016/01/26/how-big-data-and-analytics-changing-hotels-and-the-hospitality-industry/#7bd051ea1c22.

Bright, C. (2018, November 13). Cathay Pacific's data breach update. *Business Traveller.* Retrieved from https://www.businesstraveller.com/business-travel/2018/11/13/cathay-pacifics-data-breach-update/.

Caswell, M. (2018a, October 25). British Airways admits more data "potentially compromised" in hack. *Business Traveller.* Retrieved from https://www.businesstraveller.com/business-travel/2018/10/25/british-airways-admits-cvv-data-potentially-compromised-in-hack/.

Caswell, M. (2018b, October 31). Radisson Rewards confirms data breach. *Business Traveller.* Retrieved from https://www.businesstraveller.com/business-travel/2018/10/31/radisson-rewards-confirms-data-breach/şaccessed 30 January, 2019ţ.

Griffin, R. K. (1998). Data warehousing: The latest strategic weapon for the lodging industry? *Cornell Hospitality Quarterly, 39*(4), 28-35.

Kshetri, N. (2014). Big data's impact on privacy, security and consumer welfare. *Telecommunications Policy*, *38*(11), 1134-1145.

Kwok, D. (2018, November 6). Cathay Pacific faces probe over massive data breach. *Reuters.* Retrieved from https://www.channelnewsasia.com/news/technology/cathay-pacific-faces-probe-over-massive-data-breach-10901898.

O'Connor, P. (2008). Managing hospitality information technology in Europe: Issues, challenges and priorities. *Journal of Hospitality & Leisure Marketing, 17* (1-2), 59-77.

Sanger, D. E., Perlroth, N., Thrush, G., & Rappeport, A. (2018, December 11). Marriott data breach is traced to Chinese hackers as U.S. readies crackdown on Beijing. *The New York Times.*, Retrieved from https://www.nytimes.com/2018/12/11/us/politics/trump-china-trade.html.

The Straits Times (2018 October 24). Cathay Pacific flags data breach affecting 9.4 million passengers, *The Straits Times.*, Retrieved from https://www.straitstimes.com/asia/east-asia/cathay-pacific-flags-data-breach-affecting-94-million-passengers.

Volodzko, D. (2018, December 4). Marriott breach exposes far more than just data. *Forbes.*, Retrieved from https://www.forbes.com/sites/davidvolodzko/2018/12/04/marriott-breach-exposes-far-more-than-just-data/#491382946297.

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

Questions and Activities

1. Access the membership webpage of hotel/airline/cruiseline/restaurant companies registered in different parts of the world . Identify and compare the types of information they are collecting. Discuss, and justify the necessity for, such data.
2. In general, what are the advantages and disadvantages of collecting and storing big data ?
3. What are the monetary and non-monetary values of big data ?
4. What are the causes and consequences of big data breaches ?
5. Suggest some ways to compensate affected customers following a big data breach.

Recommended Reading

Lafuente, G. (2015). The big data security challenge. *Network Security*, *1*, 12-14.

Mariani, M., Baggio, R., Fuchs, M., & Höepken, W. (2018). Business intelligence and big data in hospitality and tourism : A systematic literature review. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, *30*(1-2), 3514-3554.

Ramos, C. M. Q., Martins, D. J., Serra, F., Lam, R., Cardoso, P. J. S., Correia, M. B., & Rodrigues, J. M. F. (2017). Framework for a hospitality big data warehouse : The implementation of an efficient hospitality business intelligence system. *International Journal of Information Systems in the Service Sector*, *9*(2), 27-45.

Tene, O., & Polonetsky, J. (2012). Privacy in the age of big data : A time for big decisions. *Stanford Law Review Online*, *64*, 63-69.

Overview of Street Vendors and the Informal Sector in the Tourism Industry in Ghana

by Mike Evans, Neil Robinson and Crispin Dale

Introduction

The role of the informal sector enterprise in the hospitality and tourism industry has helped promote economic growth in the developing countries and has served as a remedy to alleviate poverty. Hart (1973) proposed the informal economy concept after his study of the economic activities of migrants in Accra, Ghana, which the Ghanaian government regarded as jobless because the migrants could not find salaried jobs. In Ghana, formal hospitality and tourism business activities occur predominantly in the cities, which attract the most domestic and international visitors. Consequently, due to low farm output, limited farming land, declined non-food jobs and the need to cater for families, people from the rural areas migrate to the cities (Truong, 2018). Accra, the capital city of Ghana, is the most rapidly growing urban centre in Ghana; hence, it is an important destination for migrants both within Ghana and from other West Africa countries. Coupled with the increasing growth of Accra, it is also the most visited by both domestic and international tourists either for leisure or business (Asiedu & Agyei-Mensah, 2008; Sowatey et al., 2018).

Consequently, within its informal economy, Accra has attracted many small businesses, which include street vendors of souvenirs, foodstuff and traditional cooked food (for example, fried plantains, bananas, oranges, drinks and snacks), various electrical devices (for example, phone chargers), private taxi and mini-bus drivers, barbers and sellers of pottery and crafts. In the context of this informal economy, street vendors may be categorised as the poorest and most vulnerable group within the service sector as they do not ply their trade in permanent buildings/structures. In practice, they occupy space on the pavements and in other public and private places. Some vendors are mobile; they transport or carry their wares from place to place on push carts, in baskets or on their heads (Bhimji, 2010; Bhowmik & Saha, 2013).

Importance of Street Vendors in the Informal Sector Economy

The informal sector comprises all employment in unregistered sole traders' entities. Examples of businesses that may be classified as informal include: general street vendors; shopkeepers; car mechanics; street food sellers; market traders; and transportation businesses; this designation is irrespective of the employees' status and regardless of whether the employment is their main or secondary job. Informal employment is recognised as an important sector for job creation in the developing countries (Steel, 2008). The informal sector signifies economic activities that operate outside formal state regulation (Truong, 2018). Informal trading, which may be described as a global phenomenon, is especially prevalent in Africa. However, the importance of the informal sector in economic development in rural and urban areas in the developing world is well recognised (Todaro & Smith, 2015). Additionally, the sector has remarkable characteristics. These include the ease of entry, little capital requirement, reliance on indigenous resources, family ownership, small-scale operations, labour intensive with adaptive technologies, competition and skills that are outside formal education (Anyidoho & Steel, 2016; Mahadea & Zogli, 2018; Obeng-Odoom, 2016). Furthermore, the sector encompasses a range of profit-making activities operated on a small-scale using unsophisticated technologies and modest capital. Hence, these small and unorganised businesses operate on the peripheries of formal economy (Anyidoho & Steel, 2016; Obeng-Odoom, 2016).

The informal sector employs 86% of the Ghanaian workforce, which 7% have jobs in the public sector and 7% in the private sector. In addition, the sector contributes 42% to the country's GDP (Anuwa-Amarh, 2015; Mahadea & Zogli, 2018; Osei-Boateng & Ampratwum, 2011). Employment includes own-account workers and employers who own enterprises, contributing family workers and domestic workers paid by households. Furthermore, employees in this informal sector do not pay income tax and employment is not subject to national labour regulations such as paid holiday, notice of dismissal or severance or sick pay (Hussmanns, 2004). However, as much as these practices break official rules, vendors in the informal enterprises do provide income opportunities as well as

goods and services that are necessary and/or desired by urban residents and tourists; as such, they may not be classified as criminals (Bromley & Wilson, 2018).
One of the most common commodities offered by street vendors is food, which in gastronomic tourism is branded as street food (Henderson, Yun, Poon & Biwei, 2012). Street food offers the opportunity for international tourists to sample various local specialities (dishes) at the same time adding life and colours to the destination areas where it is traded (Henderson, 2000). Henderson et al. (2012) report that there are more women and young girls than males engaged as street food vendors and they reportedly earn a much higher income than the national minimum wage in most developing countries.

The majority of Ghanaian women find themselves in the low-income group. Therefore, their engagements in income generation efforts are the means to meet domestic needs (Sowatey et al., 2018). The income from street food vending and other informal marketplace selling activities by women contributes considerably to the improvement of the health, education and survival of the entire family and as a means to amass wealth (Acho-Chi, 2002; Langevang, Gough, Yankson, Owusu & Osee, 2015). Street vending not only helps to alleviate poverty but also contributes to shape the landscapes of tourist resorts. Vendors often provide reasonable prices for their products, which they show in convenient places so enhancing the tourists' experience (Henderson & Smith, 2009; Wongtada, 2014).

Amongst the contributions to tourism made by businesses in the informal sector, street vendors are normally considered as a problem because they are confronted by rules regarding street hawking (Truong, 2018). Nicely and Ghazali (2014) report that street vendors are one of the sources of harassment as identified by tourists. In destinations with a tourist friendly image, police officers have been deployed to segregate street/beach vendors from tourists as well as to protect tourists from cheating taxi drivers and souvenir traders (Truong, Slabbert & Nguyen, 2016).

Conclusion

The informal sector, including street vending, may help to contribute to tourism poverty alleviation among the poorest and most vulnerable people in a society. In a developing country such as Ghana, the majority of the population make their living from the informal business activities. Female participation in the informal economy, especially in street food vending, is on the rise as the majority of Ghanaian women are in the low-income bracket.

Informal business has no entry barriers; it is family-owned, depends on local resources, operates on small-scale production methods, is labour intensive and the market is not regulated but competitive. However, street vending is an opportunity for women to contribute towards the improvement of the health, education and survival of the entire family and in addition to amass wealth. On the one hand, street vendors can enhance tourists' overall experiences by offering chances to interact with local people and their culture, especially with those traders selling local goods and produce; on the other hand, they serve the local people as well.

References

Acho-Chi, C. (2002). The mobile street food service practice in the urban economy of Kumba, Cameroon. *Singapore Journal of Tropical Geography*, *23*(2), 131-148.

Anuwa-Amarh, E. T. (2015). *Understanding the urban informal economy in Ghana: A survey report*. Ghana: Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.

Anyidoho, N. A., & Steel, W. F. (2016). Informal-formal linkages in market and street trading in Accra. *African Review of Economics and Finance*, *8*(2), 171-200.

Asiedu, A., & Agyei-Mensah, S. (2008). Traders on the run: Activities of street traders in the Accra Metropolitan Area of Ghana. *Norwegian Journal of Geography, 62*(3), 191-202.

Bhimji, F. (2010). Struggles, urban citizenship, and belonging: The experience of undocumented street vendors and food truck owners in Los Angeles. *Urban Anthropology and Studies of Cultural Systems and World Economic Development, 39*(4), 455-492.

Bhowmik, S. K., & Saha, D. (2013). *Financial inclusion of the marginalised.* Switzerland: Springer.

Bromley, R., & Wilson, T. D. (2018). Introduction : The urban informal economy revisited. *Latin American Perspectives, 45*(1), 4-23.

Hart, K. (1973). Informal income opportunities and the urban employment in Ghana. *Journal of Modern African Studies, 11*(1), 61–89.

Henderson, J. (2000). Food hawkers and tourism in Singapore. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *19*(2), 109-117.

Henderson, J. C., & Smith, R. A. (2009). The informal tourism economy at beach resorts : A comparison of Cha-Am and Laguna Phuket in Thailand. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *34*(1), 13-22.

Henderson, J. C., Yun, O. S., Poon, P., & Biwei, X. (2012). Hawker centres as tourist attractions : The case of Singapore. *International Journal of Hospitality Management*, *31*(3), 849-855.

Hussmanns, R. (2004). *Measuring the informal economy: From employment in the informal sector to informal employment*. Geneva, Switzerland : International Labour Office.

Langevang, T., Gough, K. V., Yankson, P. W., Owusu, G., & Osee, R. (2015). Bounded entrepreneurial vitality : The mixed embeddedness of female entrepreneurship. *Economic Geography*, *91*(4), 449-473.

Mahadea, D., & Zogli, L. K. J. (2018). Constraints to growth in informal sector activities and formalisation : A case study of Ghanaian slums. *The Southern African Journal of Entrepreneurship and Small Business Management*, *10*(1), 9.

Nicely, A., & Ghazali, R. M. (2014). Demystifying visitor harassment. *Annals of Tourism Research*, *48*, 266-269.

Obeng-Odoom, F. (2016). *Reconstructing urban economics-Towards a political economy of the built environment*. London : Zed Books.

Osei-Boateng, C., & Ampratwum, E. (2011). *The informal sector in Ghana.* Ghana : Friedrich Ebert Stiftung.

Sowatey, E., Nyantakyi-Frimpong, H., Mkandawire, P., Arku, G., Hussey, L., & Amasaba, A. (2018). Spaces of resilience, ingenuity, and entrepreneurship in informal work in Ghana. *International Planning Studies*, 23(4), 327-339.

Steel, G. (2008). *Vulnerable careers: Tourism and livelihood dynamics among street vendors in Cusco, Peru*. Amsterdam, The Netherlands : Rozenberg Publishers.

Todaro, M. P., & Smith, S. C. (2015). *Case studies in economic development.* (12th ed.). Upper Saddle, NJ : Pearson.

Truong, V. D., Slabbert, E. and Nguyen, V. M. (2016). Poverty in tourist paradise ? A review of pro-poor tourism in South and South-East Asia. In C. M. Hall & S. J. Page (Eds.) *The Routledge handbook of tourism in Asia* (pp. 121-138). London : Routledge.

Truong, V. D. (2018). Tourism, poverty alleviation, and the informal economy : The street vendors of Hanoi, Vietnam. *Tourism Recreation Research*, *43*(1), 52-67.

Wongtada, N. (2014). Street vending phenomena : A literature review and research agenda. *Thunderbird International Business Review*, *56*(1), 55-75.

Questions

1. Street food vending has gained popularity in recent years. Have you ever bought street food as a tourist ? If so, what was your motivation for the purchase ?
2. Ideally from your personal experience, as a tourist, construct a table showing the merits and demerits of street vendors within the informal sector economy ; include potential impacts on tourists' experiences.
3. To what extent does the informal sector contribute towards employment and poverty alleviation in developing countries ?
4. What challenges do street vendors in tourist destinations face ? Propose an action plan that might reduce the identified problems.
5. Do you think that street food vendors promote cultural heritage ? Justify your response will evidence.
6. To what extent might street food vendors enhance or detract from the distinctive characteristic of a destination ? Discuss the pros and cons.

Allergens in the Hospitality Industry - Food Allergy Risk Management

by Predrag Tošić, Bojana Kalenjuk and Maja Banjac

Allergens are substances that can cause various allergic reactions in humans. By their way of getting into the body, they may be classified according to their impact. Respiratory allergens (dust mites) and contact allergens (chemicals, fabrics) can be a serious threat to a successful restaurant management; however, the main problem in this context is due to nutritional allergens that enter the body through food (Lockey & Ledford, 2008; Pawankar, Holgate, Lockey & Blaiss, 2013). Accommodating customers with food allergies has become a challenge for the hospitality industry as the number of individuals with food allergies increases every day (Bailey, Albardiaz, Frew & Smith, 2011). This serious issue requires hospitality staff to be acutely aware of possible allergen presence at each phase of food and drink preparation for the purpose of elimination (Kim, Sinacore & Pongracic, 2005). The greatest difficulty with which food operators are faced is to ensure that guests who are subject to allergic reactions are provided with totally safe food.

It is estimated that approximately 30% of the population are prone to food allergies and the number appears to be increasing (Pawankar et al., 2013). As the number of chronic allergic reactions is growing, a rise in the number of substances causing these reactions has been reported as well (EAACI, 2016). Employees in the food service industry, especially service staff, are often unable to respond to guests' questions about potentially allergic ingredients in menu items, possibly due to lack of information, awareness and/or training, technical problems and/or hygiene issues in the operational unit. Food processing can be extremely complex, so it is not easy to avoid problems when preparing food for guests who are prone to allergies. Hospitality staff should be trained to identify allergy-causing ingredients in menu items. This process requires very detailed training and food preparation manuals and procedures to control the process from start to finish; furthermore, appropriate and reliable tools should be employed to verify these controls (Kim et al., 2005).

Food allergies are triggered most commonly by proteins, but there are other foods that can cause allergic reaction. Until this century, flour, milk, eggs, nuts and berries were thought to be responsible for most allergic reactions. Thurnell-Read (2005) listed the most frequent causes as: milk, eggs, fish, shells, soya beans, wheat flour, walnuts and other nuts and berries. The 14 allergens that must be declared according to European Union (EU) legislation (including their products) are: cereals containing gluten; crustaceans; eggs; fish; peanuts; soya beans; milk; nuts; celery; mustard; sesame seeds; sulphur dioxide and sulphites; lupin(e) and molluscs) (See https://www.fsai.ie/legislation/food_legislation/food_information/14_allergens.html for details). However, the actual range appears to be much wider, with almost any food triggering an allergic reaction in some individuals. Allergic reactions to red meat, river fish and certain fruits and vegetables are claimed to be on the rise, as well as those caused by coffee, cocoa and salt; certain additives, preservatives and food dyes have also been reported to cause allergic reactions (Nollet & van Hengel, 2010; Pascal, 2005; Pascal 2009). Therefore, it is very difficult to create a comprehensive allergen list due to varieties in food culture and tradition. For example, buckwheat allergy is one of the most common allergies in Japan and Korea (Akiyama, Imai & Ebisawa, 2011; Han, Kim & Ahn, 2012) whereas people from European countries suffer mostly from allergies caused by celery, mustard, sesame seeds, lupin and molluscs (Kalenjuk, Grče, Tošić & Tešanović, 2017).

Intolerance, in contrast to food allergy, is usually caused by a limited ability, or an inability, to digest or absorb certain foods or their components, mostly lactose (milk sugar) and gluten, whose consumption can trigger an immune reaction called c(o)eliac disease; it has been reported that the prevalence of c(o)eliac disease is increasing (Sicherer, Munoz-Furlong, Godbold & Sampson, 2010).

Symptoms of Food Allergy

When a susceptible person is exposed to an allergen, the symptoms of allergy may occur within a few minutes or hours and vary from mild, that do not disturb work capability, to severe, that can be life-threatening (Hey & Luedemann, 2001; Lockey & Ledford, 2014; Martin, 2014). People allergic to specific foods have to be particularly careful when eating out, which can lead to social restrictions and rare visits to restaurants (Wanich, Munoz-Furlong, Godbold & Sicherer, 2008). The most common problem in restaurants is identification of possible allergens in food then ensuring that an allergen-free meal is offered to the guest (Leftwich et al., 2010). When allergens are present in food, it is not possible to eliminate them, in contrast with microorganism-caused contamination that can be mitigated by thermal treatment (Nollet & van Hengel, 2010). Highly sensitive people may have an immediate reaction when they smell or touch particular food and the same food can cause various symptoms in different people (Hey & Luedemann, 2001; Jedrychowski & Wichers, 2009; Jones, 2001; Pascal, 2012).

Allergen Control in Food Production

At all stages of the supply chain, the stakeholders (for example, producers, distributors, consumers) are required to ensure the compliance of the food supply and preparation process with local/regional/national food safety regulations. Furthermore, the food service industry is obliged to meet all the requirements related to hygiene conditions that are under their control. They must also establish regular controls of hygiene conditions in each facility under their control by implementing a self-regulatory, preventative procedure developed in accordance with HACCP (Hazard Analysis and Critical Control Point; See https://www.food.gov.uk/business-guidance/hazard-analysis-and-critical-control-point-haccp, for example). These controls apply for each stage of production, processing and distribution of food, with the exception of the change in primary production and related activities. Furthermore, food service operators must be trained to adequately remove allergens from the food offered to the guest, which requires certain modifications in restaurant management (Kalenjuk et al., 2017).

Symbol Based and Abbreviated Indicators of Food Allergen Content

Food allergen labelling is very important in the hospitality industry. Letters in specified format and International Food Allergen Icons can be used to ensure a consistent and clear message is provided to allergic consumers (See https://www.foodprotection.org/resources/food-allergen-icons/). A survey conducted in Holland revealed that restaurant visitors preferred labels with both allergen symbols and textual allergen information. Abbreviated indicators were not favoured, mostly because consumers displayed a lack of knowledge on this issue or they simply did not pay attention to these indicators (Soon, 2018). In some countries, food operators are not obliged to provide allergen information on their food lists, menus, wine and drink cards but, in the UK such information should be available in written format on the premises. For distance selling (take-away, street food, delivery etc.), the allergen information should be available in a written form 'at some point between a customer placing the order and taking delivery of it'. Also, additional measures to indicate allergens on their food lists due to raw materials used in meal preparation need to be available. All of the ingredients should be listed on pre-packed food with the allergen items highlighted in bold font (see https://www.food.gov.uk/business-guidance/allergen-guidance-for-food-businesses).

Certain materials, that are normally allergen-free, may have cross-contaminated foods during manufacture or preparation so there may be precautionary allergen labels: "may contain". For example, coffee- based drinks may contain allergen additives such as soya beans, wheat, rye and barley. Also, wine lists which offer New World wines should include allergen information as powdered milk and eggs may be used in the wine production (Toci, Neto, Torres & Farah, 2016).

Case Studies

Below are three examples of practices that caused unwelcome experiences with food allergens.

Case 1

Owen visits newly opened local restaurant and wants to try the house speciality (Duck in Sweet Sauce with Potatoes Gratin) but he is allergic to gluten. Owen informs waiter of his allergy and the waiter conveys the information to the kitchen chef. Having checked the ingredients, it is confirmed that white flour is not used in this recipe and Owen's meal is prepared. After he has swallowed a few mouthfuls of the dish, Owen develops a severe allergic reaction which results in shortness of breath.

Case 2

Holly is only seven and she is allergic to lupin and soya beans. She visits a fast food outlet with her uncle and chooses the sausages, which are listed on the menu. Holly's uncle mentions her allergy to the sales assistant who assures him that the sausages contain nothing but meat. Later that evening, Holly develops an allergic skin reaction.

Case 3

Edith, who is a student, buys a meal in the university refectory consisting of beef soup, chicken with puree and tomato sauce, cabbage salad and an apple for dessert. She tells the person in charge of food preparation that she is allergic to celery and is informed that the meal is celery-free ; it has not been used in the preparation of the soup. Within 10 minutes of eating the soup, Edith experiences an acute intestinal allergic reaction.

References

Akiyama, H., Imai, T., & Ebisawa M. (2011). Japan food allergen labeling regulation—history and evaluation. *Advances in Food and Nutrition Researc*h, *62*, 139-171.

Bailey, S., Albardiaz, R., Frew, A. J., & Smith, H. (2011). Restaurant staff's knowledge of anaphylaxis and dietary care of people with allergies. *Clinical and Experimental Allergy*, *41*(5), 713-717.

EAACI (The European Academy of Allergy and Clinical Immunology) (2016). *Advocacy manifesto. Tackling the allergy crisis in Europe - Concerted policy action needed*. Retrieved from :
https ://www.eaaci.org/documents/EAACI_Advocacy_Manifesto.pdf

Han, Y., Kim, J., & Ahn, K. (2012). *Food allergy.* Seoul, Korea : Korean Pediatric Society. Retrieved from : https ://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/ab95/a0a0c276a2f3504a58908761a5bc2d4cc1d7.pdf

Jedrychowski, L., & Wichers, H. (Eds.) (2009). *Chemical and biological properties of food allergens.* Boca Raton, FL : CRC press.

Jones, M. (2001). *The allergy self-help cookbook*. Aldershot, UK : Rodale books.

Kalenjuk, B., Grče, R., Tošić, P., & Tešanović, D. (2017). Food allergens as an issue of a "successful" hospitality business. *Researches Reviews of the Department of Geography, Tourism and Hotel Management, 46*(1), 24-46.

Kim, J. S., Sinacore, J. M., & Pongracic, J. A. (2005). Parental use of EpiPen for children with food allergies. *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, *116*(1), 164-168.
Leftwich, J., Barnett, J., Muncer, K., Shepherd, R., Raats, M., Gowland, H., & Lucas, J. (2010). The challenges for nut-allergic consumers of eating out. *Clinical and Experimental Allergy, 41(*2), 243-249.

Lockey, R., & Ledford, D. (Eds.) (2008). *Allergens and allergen immunotherapy: Subcutaneous, sublingual and oral* (4th ed.). Boca Raton, FL : CRC press.

Lockey, R., & Ledford, D. (Eds.) (2014). *Allergens and allergen immunotherapy: Subcutaneous, Sublingual, and Oral* (5th ed.). Boca Raton, FL : CRC press.

Martin, C. (2014). *The allergy-free pantry: Make your own staples, snacks, and more without wheat, gluten, dairy, eggs, soy or nuts.* New York : The Experiment LLC.

Nollet, L. M. L., & van Hengel, A. J. (Eds.) (2010). *Food allergens: Analysis instrumentation and methods*. Boca Raton, FL : CRC press.

Pascal, C. (2005). *The whole foods allergy cookbook* (2nd ed.). New York : Square One Publishers.

Pascal, C. (2009). *The allergen-free baker's handbook*. Berkeley, CA : Celestial Arts

Pascal, C. (2012). *Allergy-free and easy cooking: 30-minute meals without gluten, wheat, dairy, eggs, soy, peanuts, tree nuts, fish, shellfish, and sesame*. New York : Paperback.

Pawankar, R., Holgate, S., Lockey, R., & Blaiss, M. (2013). *WAO white book on allergy*. Milwaukee, WI : World Allergy Organization.

Sicherer, S., Munoz-Furlong, A., Godbold, J., & Sampson, H. (2010). US prevalence of self-reported peanut, tree nut, and sesame allergy : 11 year follow up. *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, *125*(6), 1322-6.

Soon, (2018). Early introduction of foods to prevent food allergy. *Allergy, Asthma & Clinical Immunology, 14*(2), 18-44.

Thurnell-Read, J. (2005). *Allergy A to Z.* Devon, UK : Life-Work Potential.

Toci, A., Neto, V., Torres, A., & Farah, A. (2016). Changes in triacylglycerols and free fatty acids composition during storage of roasted coffee. *LWT - Food Science and Technology*, *50* (2), 581-590.

Wanich, N., Weiss, C., Furlong, T., & Sicherer, S. (2008). Food allergic consumer experience in restaurants and food establishments. *Journal of Allergy and Clinical Immunology*, *121*(2), S182.

Questions and Activities

1. Conduct on-line and local press research to identify and record briefly mistakes in food preparation and serving that have been responsible for allergic reactions.

2. What steps should a restaurant owner/manager take to ensure that the dishes and drinks served to guests are free from allergens ?

“Gringo Trails” – the Dark Side of Tourism

by Alina Katunian and Lina Žirnelė

In the context of globalisation, the growing potential of tourism increasingly emphasises the negative influence of mass tourism on the ecological situation of tourism, disturbing the life of the local community. When planning the development of tourism, it is important to evaluate the importance of tourism infrastructure (hotels, airports, information centres), thus reducing the negative impact of tourism on the ecological situation and the life of the local community. (Fernando, 2012) Failure to take these factors into account often leads to a negative attitude of the local community towards tourists and disruption of the natural development of the area. The paradigm of sustainable tourism has emerged and is still evolving as a result of changes in the tourism sector for more than half a century (Weaver, 2006).

Pegi Vail, an anthropologist travelling in 2013, has created a revolutionary film, *Gringo Trails*, which has radically changed the romantic approach to tourism. The film presents the stories of individual tourists; they explain how they perceive some destinations have changed over the last 30 years, as tourism expanded. The word "*Gringo*" used in the title of the film, was taken from Spanish language; it refers to a white comer who does not know the local language and does not know the local customs (See www.gringotrails.com).

The Case of Koh Phangan Island

Costas Christ, the editor of National Geographic, told the story of Koh Phangan in Thailand. For the first time this island was visited by Costas Christ in 1979, when it was still unknown; he informed several tourists about the discovery, after a while the situation changed dramatically, more than half a million tourists visit the island annually although its population is only circa 14,000. The island has earned the recognition of young people, as it hosts famous music parties, *Full Moon Parties* which attract young people, with easy access to alcohol, drugs and entertainment.

The locals complain about the disrespect of these young tourists to the local community, culture and order. Tons of garbage are left after each party and some of it ends up in the ocean. Every year, articles about the death of young tourists from drug overdoses on the island appear in the press; in fact, the island has become notorious for its crime. According to locals, during the parties, they are hostages in their own homes: engaging in other activities not related to tourism is rather difficult, and investors do not express much willingness to invest in such a deserted island.

The influence of tourism development can be assessed differently by analysing its positive and negative impacts as shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Positive and Negative Tourism Impacts

Positive Tourism Impact	Negative Tourism Impact
• Familiar with different cultures, natural resources etc.;	• Tourism parties are competing for the limited resources;
• Creation of workplaces;	• Air and water pollution;
• Contribution to the economy of tourist destinations;	• There is often no other activity in tourist destinations;
• Meeting the cognitive, recreational and other needs of the travellers;	• The preferences of the local community are overlooked for the sake of tourists comfort;
• The development of the infrastructure for communication and service provision.	• With the development of international tourism companies, there is less and less local business representatives in the tourism market, and the authenticity of directions is disappearing.

Source: Authors based on Weaver (2006, pp. 6, 10, 51, 61, 180).

The perception of the need to reduce the negative impact of tourism plus the desire to reduce the negative impact of tourism has been gradually developed, as the management of sustainable tourism for future generations has to provide the same and not fewer quality resources (Charter for Sustainable Tourism, 1995). Specific tasks are set to achieve the goals. Tasks are usually set for three to five years, depending on the situation in the tourist destination. Setting specific tasks allows tourism planners to determine the level of implementation of the challenges and to monitor the current situation effectively. The goals of sustainable tourism development plans are based usually on the following indicators:

- Energy and water saving;
- Employment of the population;
- Economic growth;
- Infrastructure development plans;
- Preservation of environment and tourism resources;
- Urban and rural revitalization;
- Preservation of heritage;
- Consumer rights protection;
- Community prosperity;
- Business creation (Gossling, Hall & Weaver, 2012, pp.7, 102, 148, 177)

It is concluded that the reconciliation of different goals and interests, such as social, environmental and economic, for global sustainable tourism development, forms the basis for a sustainable tourism concept. Furthermore, the development of economic processes is related to the flow of financial transactions, tax and business environment, employment and business creation and development. Conservation of natural resources points to the need to assess possible environmental impacts before decisions are made and to try to maximise the protection of these resources: air quality; water quality; energy and solid fuel consumption; etc. The preservation of socio-cultural authenticity emphasises the preservation of public freedoms and well-being, access to social resources, equality and the preservation of traditions and values. (Gossling et al., 2012)

References

Charter for Sustainable Tourism (1995). Retrieved from http://www.gdrc.org/uem/eco-tour/charter.html

Gossling, S., Hall, C. M., & Weaver, D. B. (2012). *Sustainable tourism futures.* London: Routledge.

Fernando, R. (2012). Sustainable globalization and implications for strategic corporate and national sustainability. *The International Journal of Business in Society, 12*(4), 579-589.

Weaver, D. (2006). *Sustainable tourism: Theory and practice.* Oxford : Elsevier Butterworth Heinemann.

Websites

"Gringo Trails" – information about the film
http ://gringotrails.com/wp-content/uploads/2013/07/gt_pk.pdf

Questions and Activities

1. Watch the video https ://www.youtube.com/watch ?v=v5TzTNZvGIw and identify the main problems caused by tourism on Koh Phangan island. Suggest ways in which they might be alleviated.

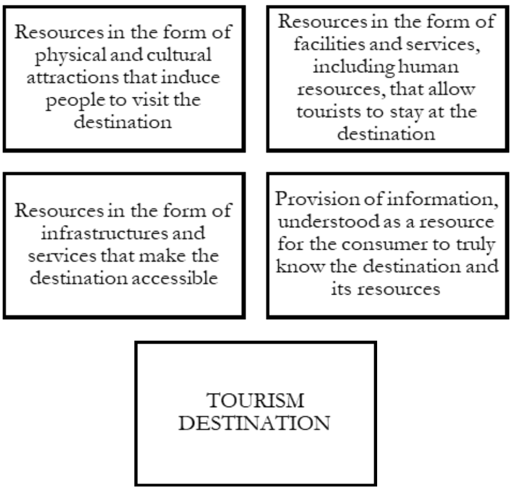
2. Read the "Charter for Sustainable Tourism" : http ://www.gdrc.org/uem/eco-tour/charter.html. Identify the main principles of sustainable tourism development. Which parties should be involved in their implementation and in which ways ?

Methodologies for Analysing and Assessing a Territory's Tourist Resources

by Jairo Casado-Montilla and Juan Ignacio Pulido-Fernández

Definitions of tourism destination emphasise the role of the resources, goods and services found within the territory which tourists visit (Barrado, 2004; Gunn, 1989; Leiper, 1979). The set of elements that shape tourism destinations is so complex that they have been analysed using integrative concepts such as industrial districts, clusters, networks, systems and social constructions (Pearce, 2014). The tourist offer consists of a series of elements that are decisive in the configuration of a tourism destination and that contribute to attracting tourists, facilitating their access, providing information and making their stay viable.

Figure 1. Elements of the Tourist Offer



Source: Elaborated by the authors based on Cooper and Hall (2008).

Resources making up the tourism destination have been organised into various different classifications. Upon careful analysis, however, they all refer clearly to the same resources that have simply been placed into more or less disaggregated categories (Buhalis, 2000; Cooper & Hall, 2008) (See Figure 1). However, administrations in charge of managing tourism need to know a territory's resources, goods and services. Thus, various tools have emerged that not only identify them, but check in what situation a certain territory finds itself regarding the development of its tourism.

For several decades now, when assessing a territory's tourist offer and/or tourism destination methodologies have been put in place aimed at generating indicator and rating systems based on: (i) expert evaluations on the ground; and (ii) assessments by tourists themselves of the places they visit and the resources, goods and services they enjoy, taking account of their perceptions of the environment in which they are located. It is worth noting that these studies are useful not only for territories that have not yet developed as destinations but also for established and mature tourism destinations. Finally, results obtained using these methodologies generate a "hierarchy of sites, which would be helpful for comparing sites in terms of their potential for tourism development" (Yan, Gao & Zhang, 2017, p. 356). It is important to note that for destination comparisons to be valid, the same measurement tools and processes must be used. The three most commonly used concepts to assess a territory's tourist resources are (i) analyses of tourism potential; (ii) tourist vocation; and (iii) tourism attraction.

Analyses of Tourism Potential

The analysis of a territory's tourism potential begins with the assessment of its capacity to support tourist activity based on the evaluation of its existing resources and facilities (Covarrubias, 2015). This set of items is extensive: "tourism potential refers to the pool, array and collection of natural, cultural and man-made tourism resources possessed by a community, state and/or country that can be transformed and developed into visitor-ready attractions or finished products and services packaged to provide touristic experiences" (Esu, 2015, p. 574).

However, conducting a tourism potential analysis allows, on the one hand, an inventory of the existing resources in a given region to be complied (Matei, 2015; McKercher & Ho, 2006) and, on the other hand, a determination of which tourist typologies can best be developed in the region (Mikery & Pérez-Vázquez, 2014). Furthermore, the analysis is very useful for acquiring knowledge of the state of a territory following a catastrophe, for example, in the case of the Prestige oil tanker disaster on the Galician coast (Spain) in 2002 (Pardellas & Padín, 2003); it can also contribute to minimising the negative impacts of tourism on the ecosystem, by creating routes and activities based on the distribution of existing resources (Fernández & Kirkby, 2002), helping to "optimally utilize the always scarce resources available and an adequate distribution of these activities/services according to the supply and demand characteristics of the space" (Fuenzalia, Figueroa & Negrete, 2013, p. 121). In short, assessing a territory's tourism potential implies organising evidence to make a complete inventory of its resources whilst establishing a hierarchy based on the attributes and the relative weightings they possess. The whole process assists with decision-making regarding the strategies to develop a tourism typology that best suits the environment under analysis.

Tourism Vocation

Second, we must consider the concept of "tourism vocation" proper to a territory or a tourism destination. Gómez, Amaya and Mundo (2014) explain that this methodology identifies a territory's resources, as in the case of analysing tourism potential, but it also takes other variables into account such as the various policies that are being developed in the field of tourism, the existence of tourism campaigns advertising and entities in charge of the territory's tourism management. The notion of "tourism vocation" has already been used to create these methodologies and refers to the intrinsic characteristics of places where tourist activity takes place or that offer the resources that make them suitable for it (Gómez et al., 2014). Nonetheless, what "tourism vocation" really refers to had not been defined clearly. It should also be noted that differences can be found among the series of methodologies that assess a territory's tourist vocation (Gómez, Mundo, Covarrubias & Mundo, 2016; López, Gómez Sepúlveda & Ochoa, 2017; Velasco, 2011), both in the way they group elements into more or less aggregated classifications – for example, when defining the elements of the tourism offer – and in the methods used to generate the indicators which, in some instances, include the resident population and/or tourists.

For his part, Velasco (2011) proposed measuring the tourist vocation of the municipalities of Veracruz (Mexico) and categorised the elements under study into four major variables: attractions; services; infrastructure; and superstructure; the latter included the technical capacities, institutions and human resources trained for tourism, which have different weightings depending on their attributed importance. Other analyses mainly evaluate existing tourist resources, their degree of planning, available equipment and facilities and even the volume of existing tourist inflows (for example, López et al., 2017). Therefore, "a tourism vocation is recognised as the configuration of a space and the attitude of a region's population to carry out tourist activities" (Gómez et al., 2016 p. 25) with the implication that the resident population is a key factor in a territory's tourist development.

Tourism Attractiveness

Third and last, evaluating a territory's tourist attractiveness is one way in which its capacity for attracting tourists may be evaluated. Such an analysis begins by identifying and examining the territory's resources then analysing tourists' perceptions of them, in some cases taking account of a range of variables that can modify their perceptions such as tourists' previous experience or cognitive perception (Lew, 1987). Krešić and Prebežac (2011, p. 499) state that "tourism attractions are the physical manifestation of the destination attractiveness and the destination attractiveness is a mental image of the destination that was formed on the basis of the physical attractions available in the destination", implying, to a certain extent, that the destination's appeal ultimately depends on the image of the destination created in tourists' minds. Nevertheless, tourist attractions alone offer differing attraction capacities according to whether or not they are connected to quality infrastructures and services (Iatu & Bulai, 2011).

Hu and Ritchie (1993, p. 26) already defined a tourism destination as "a package of tourism facilities and services, which, like any other consumer product or service, is composed of a number of multidimensional attributes that together determine its attractiveness to a particular individual in a given choice situation". Clearly, the interaction of supply and demand determines a tourism destination's attractiveness (Formica, 2000). In short, tourism destination attractiveness is the result of tourists' assessments of a series of attractions, resources, infrastructures and services located in the destination, starting from their identification and classification.

References

Barrado, D. A. (2004). El concepto de destino turístico. Una aproximación geográfico territorial. *Estudios Turísticos, 160*, 45-68.

Buhalis, D. (2000). Marketing the competitive destination of the future. *Tourism Management, 12* (1), 97-116.

Cooper, C., & Hall, C. M. (2008). *Contemporary tourism: An international approach.* London: Routledge.

Covarrubias, R. (2015). *Evaluación del potencial en municipios turísticos a través de metodologías participativas*. Colima: Universidad de Colima.

Esu, B. (2015). Transforming the Nigeria tourism industry through tourism entrepreneurial development. *African Journal of Business Management*, *9*(15), 569-580.

Fernández, M., & Kirkby, C. (2002). *Evaluación del estado poblacional de la fauna silvestre y el potencial turístico en los bosques de Salvación y Yunguyo, Reserva de Biósfera del Manu, Madre de Dios, Perú.* Reporte Final. Proyecto Aprovechamiento y Manejo Sostenible de la Reserva de Biósfera y Parque Nacional del Manu - ProManu. Cusco, Perú.

Formica, S. (2000). *Destination attractiveness as a function of supply and demand interaction*. Blacksburg, VA: Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University.

Fuenzalia, M., Figueroa, R., & Negrete, J. (2013). Evaluación de la aptitud territorial para el turismo de naturaleza y rural - Reserva de la Biosfera La Campana – Lago Peñuelas, Chile. *Estudios y Perspectivas En Turismo*, *2*(1), 120–137.

Gunn, C. (1989). Tourism planning fundamentals. *South African Journal for Research in Sport. Physical Education and Recreation., 12*(1), 109-118.

Gómez, C., Amaya, C., & Mundo, R. (2014). Diseño de una metodología para establecer la vocación turística de un destino. Caso Tuxtla Gutiérrez, Chiapas. *Teoría y Praxis, 9*, 75-100.

Gómez, C., Mundo, R., Covarrubias, R. & Mundo, J.R. (2016). Estudio de las políticas públicas y marco jurídico para el desarrollo de un modelo de evaluación de la vocación turística. *CULTUR, 3,* 22-29.

Hu, Y., & Ritchie, B. (1993). Measuring destination attractiveness: A contextual approach. *Journal of Travel Research*, *32*(2), 25-34.

Iatu, C., & Bulai, M. (2011). New approach in evaluating tourism attractiveness in the region of Moldavia (Romania). *International Journal of Energy and Environment*, *5*(2), 165–174.

Krešić, D., & Prebežac, D. (2011). Index of destination attractiveness as a tool for destination attractiveness assessment. *TOURISM - An International Interdisciplinary Journal*, *59*, 497-517.

Leiper, N. (1979). The framework of tourism. towards a definition of tourism, tourist, and the tourist industry. *Annals of Tourism Research 6*(4), 390-407.

Lew, A. (1987). A framework of tourist attraction research. *Annals of Tourism Research, 14*(4), 553-575.

López, L., Gómez, J., Sepúlveda, W., & Ochoa, A. (2017). Propuesta metodológica para la medición y valoración de la vocación turística dentro de una ciudad. Estudio de caso en las ciudades de Medellín y Bogotá, Colombia. *Estudios Socioterritoriales. Revista de Geografía*, *21*, 71-89.

Matei, F. (2015). Cultural tourism potential, as part of rural tourism development in the North-East of Romania. *Procedia Economics and Finance*, *23*, 453-460.

McKercher, B., & Ho, P. (2006). Assessing the tourism potential of smaller cultural and heritage attractions. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism, 14*(5), 473-488.

Mikery, M., & Pérez-Vázquez, A. (2014) Methods for the analysis of tourism potential of rural areas. *Revista Mexicana de Ciencias Agrícolas, 9*, 1729-1740.

Pardellas, X., & Padín, C. (2003). El potencial turístico de la costa gallega despúes de la catástrofe del Prestige : La diversidad de la oferta como propuesta. *Estudios Turísticos, 157,* 41-63.

Pearce, D. G. (2014). Towards an integrative conceptual framework of destinations. *Journal of Travel Research*, *53*(2), 141-153.

Velasco, E. (2011). *Metodología para determinar el índice de vocación turística para los municipios de Veracruz*. Veracruz, México : Investigación para participar en el Premio Estatal de Administración Pública.

Yan, L., Gao, B. W., & Zhang, M. (2017). A mathematical model for tourism potential assessment. *Tourism Management*, 63, 355-365.

Questions/Activities

1. In order to determine a competitive ranking, or examine the differences amongst tourism destinations, is it possible to compare destinations that have been analysed using different methodologies and resource assessments ? Justify your answer.
2. What are the two main functions of the analysis of tourism potential and how can they benefit a mature destination ?

3. Comparing the different methodologies, identify and comment on the key element in tourism vocation analysis.
4. Based on the territorial analytical process, identify the commonalities and differences in tourism potential, tourism vocation and tourist attractiveness.

Destination Management Organisations: Definition, functions, characteristics and financial structure

by Isabel Carrillo-Hidalgo and Juan Ignacio Pulido-Fernández

Tourism is an economic activity that has not stopped growing since the 1990s, overcoming numerous economic-financial crises. As tourism has grown, so has the interest shown by destinations in increasing the volume of tourists they attract ; in turn, they benefit from the positive effects it has on their economies. With this aim, many destinations around the world have set up organisations responsible for managing and/or promoting tourism. These are known as Destination Management Organisations (DMOs).

Managing tourism within a destination involves two main functions : first, it must seek to improve the social and economic wellbeing of the permanent residents of the destination ; and second, it must be capable of offering a series of activities and experiences that meet the needs and expectations of tourists, without sacrificing the improved wellbeing of residents (Bornhorst, Ritchie & Sheehan, 2010). If this aim is achieved, the management of tourism in the destination can be considered a success. For this reason, management must be based on understanding, collaboration and the coordination of the different actors to ensure good governance within the tourist destination. One of the tools required for good governance, highlighted in the scientific literature (Bramwell & Sharman, 1999; Cambrils, 2016; Durán, 2013; Muñoz & Fuentes, 2013; Pechlaner & Tschurtschenthaler 2003 ; Pulido, López & Pulido, 2013 ; Pulido-Fernández & Pulido-Fernández, 2014 ; Ruiz, 2010), is Public-Private Collaboration (PPC). Currently, some of the world's leading tourist destinations manage tourism through a DMO (for example, Barcelona, Amsterdam, London, Berlin, New York, Toronto, Miami, Los Angeles, etc.) (Muñoz & Fuentes, 2013), which is considered to be the highest level of formalisation within the sphere of PPC.

There are many different definitions of a DMO which seek to facilitate an understanding of their nature, functions, and activities. The UNWTO (2004) offers one definition, which is widely accepted among the scientific community; it establishes that a DMO is an organisation responsible for the management and marketing of the destination, and which in general can operate at a national, regional and local level. In fact, the scientific literature has defined a DMO as the actor in charge of the strategic planning, management and organisation of a destination's resources (Pike, 2004; Presenza, Sheehan & Ritchie, 2005); it must behave as a genuine governing body with guaranteed economic and financial self-sufficiency.

What does delineate all DMOs is that they are set up in order to raise the status of a destination and make it more competitive (Getz, Anderson & Sheehan, 1998). The majority of DMOs are characterised by the following features (Stange, Brown, Hilbruner & Hawkins, 2011; Wray, et al., 2010):

- They are independent non-profit organisations.
- They have a long-term vision of development for the destination.
- They are membership-based entities, and their members are a combination of different stakeholders in the development of tourism within the destination.
- They are normally governed by a management board or executive committee.
- They have their own regulations and by-laws.
- Their sources of finance are diverse in origin, both public and private.
- There is a clear distribution of responsibility and adequate operational structures.
- Decision-making is transparent and involves the different stakeholders.
- Many of their services are free at the point of use.
- They are independent of any influence certain groups may exert over them. They must also play an important role in the leadership and defence of the destination (Byrd & Gustke, 2004).

About the functions of the DMOs, a more detailed and specific classification is given in Table 1, based in the classification made by Presenza (2006) and Sheehan, Ritchie and Hudson (2007). When studying DMOs, most of the scientific literature tends to focus on issues relating with marketing and promotion over and above other issues (Bornhorst et al., 2010). The concept of Destination Marketing Organisation (DMkO) is commonly confused with that of DMO. Indeed, many organisations, entities, and even the scientific society, in general, use both terms indistinctly (Sheehan et al., 2007), when in reality they are only alluding to the promotional function of these entities, and hence are referring to DMkO. It is true that destination marketing is one of the most important roles for a DMO (Arbogast, Deng & Maumbe, 2017), and its planning has high priority, but the functions of this organisation go beyond that, as it can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1 Functions of a DMO

Management	Marketing and Promotion	Smart Agency[1]
• Coordination of tourism stakeholders • Tourist service and care • Management of tourism resources • Monitoring the quality of visitor experiences. • Development of the destination's human resources • Assistance in finance and venture capital • Management of crisis situations	• Web Marketing • Publication and leaflets • Familiarisation tours • Promotion campaigns • Fairs • Direct sales • Direct mail-outs • Cooperation programmes with the sector • Conferences, events, festivals, advertising	• Compilation of knowledge and resources internally • Compilation of knowledge and resources externally • Dissemination of information internally • Dissemination of information externally

Source: Authors based on Presenza (2006) and Sheehan, Vargas-Sánchez, Presenza & Abbate (2016).

Destinations in general, and DMOs in particular, are facing serious budgetary problems, since the de jure (by law) population, which must assume the fiscal burden, is much smaller than the de facto (by right) population (which includes tourists and second home owners) (Izard , Simón, Hereu, Reverté & Pineda, 2010), and thus the local finance system cannot cope (Biedma, 2010; Hara, 2013; Román, 2011; Voltes-Dorta, Jiménez & Suárez-Alemán, 2014), as Local Government has to bear the additional costs of providing extraordinary public services as tourist destinations, without receiving compensatory financial contributions. The problem of finance is exacerbated by budgetary

[1] Smart agency is a function of DMOs that manage "smart destinations" where technology is embedded within the city throughout all is organisations and entities (Buhalis & Amaranggana, 2013).

dependence on governmental transfers, which are vulnerable to the economic cycle, budgetary cuts, and the cycle and political leanings of the government.

Setting up public-private DMOs offers a solution to the problem of finance, by diversifying the financial resources of tourist destinations, actively involving the private sector, and gaining access to resources that are generated by the organisation itself (Izard et al., 2010). Analysing web pages and secondary sources, research involving the world's top 35 biggest and most successful tourist city destinations[2] examines whether tourism is managed by means of a DMO and, if so, analyses the legal, organisational and financial structure of their DMOs. The results show that the management of tourism through mixed DMOs is not widespread. Of all the most visited cities in the world, only 40% have public-private DMOs, in which the public members represent 2% and the private members 98%, and have a classic linear organisational structure, based on the principle of hierarchy and the maintenance of unity of command. With the exception of one city, all of the DMOs take the form of mixed consortia; they are non-profit organisations. Regarding their financial structure, public finance (49%) forms the basis of the DMO budget, which is 27.5 million euros on average. The rest of their finance is provided in relatively equal parts by private sources (29%) and self-generated resources (22%). Financially, the budgets of these organisations are characterised by public-private proportionality, which means that they cannot be considered financially independent, since public funds account for over half of their resources. Hence, they are still dependent on the Government due to the fact that, if each DMO is analysed individually, more are dependent on public finance, mainly direct governmental transfers, and fewer can be considered financially autonomous.

References

Arbogast, D., Deng, J., & Maumbe, K. (2017). DMO and rural tourism: A stakeholder analysis the case of Tucker County, West Virginia. *Sustainability, 9*(10), 18-13.

Biedma, J. M. (2010). El Municipio Turístico andaluz: Algunas consideraciones legales. *Revista Andaluza de Derecho del Turismo, 3*, 181-194.

[2] Global Destination Cities Index, compiled by Hendrick-Wong and Choong (2017) for MasterCard.

Bornhorst, T., Ritchie, J. B., & Sheehan, L. (2010). Determinants of tourism success for DMO & destinations: An empirical examination of stakeholders' perspectives. *Tourism Management, 31*(5), 572-589.

Bramwell, B., & Sharman, A. (1999). Collaboration in local tourism policymaking. *Annals of Tourism Research, 2* (26), 392-415.

Byrd, E. T., & Gustke, L. D. (2004). Identifying tourism stakeholder groups based on support for sustainable tourism development and participation in tourism activities. In F. D. Pineda and C.A. Brebbia (Eds.), *Sustainable tourism: The sustainable world* (pp. 97-108). London: WIT Press.

Buhalis, D. & Amaranggana, A. (2013). Smart tourism destinations. In: Z. Xiang & I. Tussyadiah (Eds.) *Information and communication technologies in tourism 2014* (pp. 553-564). Switzerland: Springer, Cham.

Cambrils, J. C. (2016). *La colaboración público-privada en los entes locales de gestión y promoción turísticas. La visión de los socios públicos y privados.*. Madrid, España: Síntesis.

Durán, C. (2013). *Gobernanza para el sector turismo y su medición*. Estadísticas y CST serie de documentos temáticos. Madrid, España: UNWTO.

Getz, D., Anderson, D., & Sheehan, L. (1998). Roles, issues, and strategies for convention and visitors' bureaux in destination planning and product development: a survey of Canadian bureau. *Tourism Management, 19*(4), 331-340.

Hara, T. (2013). Reviewing tourism funding model for public infrastructure and destination marketing organizations: A case of Orlando. *Journal of Tourism Economics, Policy and Hospitality Management, 1*(1), 3.

Hendrick-Wong, Y., & Choong, D. (2017). *Global destination cities index.* New York: Mastercard.

Izard, O. M., Simón, R. A., Hereu, J. C., Reverté, F. G., & Pineda, J. M. P. (2010). *Gestión pública del turismo* (Vol. 159). Barcelona, España: Editorial UOC.

Muñoz, A., & Fuentes, L. (2013). La cooperación público privada en el ámbito de la promoción de los destinos. El análisis de redes sociales como propuesta metodológica. *Cuadernos de Turismo, 31,* 199-223.

Pechlaner, H., & Tschurtschenthaler, P. (2003). Tourism policy, tourism organisations and change management in Alpine regions and destinations: A European perspective. *Current Issues in Tourism, 6*(6), 508-539.

Pike S. (2004). *Destination marketing organisations*. Oxford: Elsevier.

Presenza, A. (2006). El desempeño de un destino turístico. ¿Quién gestiona el destino? ¿ Quién realiza el rol auditor ? *Revista de análisis turístico, 2*(2), 44-55.

Presenza, A., Sheehan L., & Ritchie J. R. B. (2005). Towards a model of the roles and activities of destination management organizations. *Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure Science 3*(1), 1-16.

Pulido, M. C., López, Y., & Pulido, J. I. (2013). Methodological proposal for the incorporation of governance as a Key Factor for Sustainable Tourism Management : The Case of Spain. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science, 3*(15), 10-24.

Pulido-Fernández, M. C., & Pulido-Fernández, J. I. (2014). ¿Existe gobernanza en la actual gestión de los destinos turísticos ? Estudio de casos. *Pasos: Revista de Turismo y Patrimonio Cultural, 12*(4), 685-705.

Román, A. (2011). Planes de Dinamización y Excelencia Turística versus Municipios Turísticos : problemática, similitudes y diferencias esenciales. *Papers de turisme, 49-50*, 25-44.

Ruiz, E. (2010). Estratègies de finançament dels municipis turístics i competitivitat: el cas dels municipis catalan. *Annals de l'Institut d'Estudis Empordanesos, 43*, 351-364.

Sheehan, L., Ritchie, J. B., & Hudson, S. (2007). The destination promotion triad : Understanding asymmetric stakeholder interdependencies among the city, hotels, and DMO. *Journal of Travel Research, 46*(1), 64-74.

Sheehan, L., Vargas-Sánchez, A., Presenza, A., & Abbate, T. (2016). The use of intelligence in tourism destination management : An emerging role for DMO. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 18*(6), 549-557.

Stange, J., Brown, D., Hilbruner, R., & Hawkins, D. E. (2011). *Tourism destination management. Achieving sustainable and competitive results.* Washington, DC : US Agency for International Development.

UNWTO (United Nations World Tourism Organization) (2004). *Survey of destination management organisations report.* Madrid, Spain : Organización Mundial del Turismo.

Voltes-Dorta, A., Jiménez, J. L., & Suárez-Alemán, A. (2014). An initial investigation into the impact of tourism on local budgets : A comparative analysis of Spanish municipalities. *Tourism Management, 45,* 124-133.

Wray, M., Dredge, D., Cox, C., Buultjens, J., Hollick, M., Lee, D., Peralman, M., & Lacroix, C. (2010). *Sustainable regional tourism destinations: Best practice for management, development and marketing.* Gold Coast, Australia : Griffith University.

Questions and Activities

1. What are the two main functions involved in managing tourism within a destination ?
2. Identify the financial problems faced by destinations and DMOs in tourism management.
3. To what extent is tourism managed by DMOs globally ? Justify your response with evidence.
4. In general, to what extent are DMOs in the most visited destinations of the world economically and financially self-sufficient ? Provide examples to substantiate your response.

Life Beyond Tourism

by Liběna Jarolímková and Jiří Vaníček

Introduction

The case study is about sustainable development of tourism. It presents a project implemented by Foundation of Romualdo Del Bianco (2019) in Florence (Firenze), Life Beyond Tourism®, which helps to maintain the intangible cultural heritage of destinations and stimulates the understanding and dialogue between visitors and residents. During the course of the case study, students will become familiar with a best practice example that promotes visitors' deeper understanding of traditional values in the destination and contributes to the preservation of cultural heritage. This experience should inspire them to think about similar projects that could be implemented in their area of residence.

Florence

Florence is the capital city of the Italian region of Tuscany, called "Cradle of the Renaissance", (Visit Florence, 2019); its historic centre, declared a World Heritage Site by UNESCO (2019), attracts millions of tourists each year. With circa 380,000 inhabitants in 2017 (Instituto Nazionale di Statistica Italia, 2018), Florence was visited by more than 10 million tourists in 2018 (Statista, 2019), and the city is nowadays a victim of overtourism (See https://responsibletourism partnership.org/overtourism/). The narrow streets in the historic centre of Florence, embracing the Duomo, Uffizi Gallery and the Ponte Vecchio in particular, attract an exceptional number of visitors as it is listed as a World Heritage site (See https://whc.unesco.org/en/list/174). The behaviour of visitors in such destinations typically exemplifies mass tourism with negative impacts (cf. Popp, 2012).

The foundation of sustainable tourism is such a state of the industry that is beneficial for the local community both in terms of economy and society and generally promotes its development (See http://sdt.unwto.org/content/about-us-5). The sustainable tourism strategy in Florence is supported by Foundation of Romualdo Del Bianco, which initiated the Life Beyond Tourism® movement. This international movement is based on a philosophy representing the world of opportunities that goes beyond mass tourism. It promotes sustainable and responsible tourism, travelling for dialogue, getting to know each other, and supporting the residential community and its environment; the main focus of current activities is on cultural heritage (See https://www.lifebeyondtourism.org/).

Romualdo Del Bianco Foundation

The Romualdo Del Bianco Foundation is a non-profit making Florentine institution endorsing an array of cultural events. Being fully conscious that the cultural and artistic heritage possesses itself a high capacity for transmitting not only the values of interpersonal and intercultural exchange but also reciprocal awareness and understanding, the Romualdo Del Bianco Foundation has long been committed to a programme of cultural initiatives focused on safeguarding and appreciation of Florentine cultural heritage. Thus, the Romualdo Del Bianco Foundation intends to attract all those who see in art and architecture, not only universal expression of beauty and cultural identity, but also a powerful instrument with which to stimulate interpersonal and intercultural meetings, reciprocal awareness and understanding, and thus friendship amongst peoples. This effort is not solely aimed at the protection of a patrimony, but an investment for world peace. Thee Romualdo Del Bianco Foundation's motto is: "discovering the past together - working to build a shared future" (Fondazione Romualdo del Bianco, 2019).

Declaration Life beyond Tourism encourages many activities in support of safeguarding the identity of place, and the enhancement of tangible and intangible cultural heritage with the aim to change the development of mass tourism increasingly in the direction of a "tourism based on values" rather than "tourism based on consumer services" and to include not only those who work in the tourism industry but also the broader community of citizens whose livelihood depends on that heritage (Fondazione Romualdo Del Bianco, 2018).

Vo per Botteghe – alternative offer of city sightseeing: What to see in Florence (2019). One of the projects supporting the sustainable development of tourism in Florence is an alternative range of sightseeing tours called Vo per Botteghe. It comprises a proposal for a travel model that enhances local traditions and exceeds services and consumption tourism by involving the traveller in the spirit of the place visited. It enables visitors to taste the authentic 'life' behind the facades of overwhelming mass tourism (Life Beyond Tourism, 2019).

The project Vo per Botteghe takes advantage of a specific feature of the Florentine economy, i.e. a vast number of active family businesses and artisans who maintain traditional crafts. Many have three centuries of tradition and the art is passed from one generation to the next. The Vo per Botteghe is a walking tour aimed at discovering the artisans and their work. A mechanism to initiate residential activities, focused on destination intangible heritage interpretation, was created within the framework of this project with the aim of: offering an alternative way of getting to know the city; enabling contact between travellers and residents; and supporting the preservation of the intangible cultural heritage of the city (Life Beyond Tourism, 2019).

The project was developed in collaboration with the Associazione Esercizi Storici Fiorentini - Association of Florentine Historic Businesses comprising about 50 historic shops and workshops, which have been creating history and tradition for generations were involved in the project. Visitors can meet the owners in their shops and discover their history. Through this project, visitors can encounter unknown places, stroll through the streets of Florence, come into contact with real artisans and they can marvel at their skills. Among the shops are, for example; Bottega Filistrucchi - 300-year-old wig-making; Gold master Nerdi; Wine-maker Zanobini; Sapaf – the historic Florentine leather manufacturer; Pasticceria Gualtieri; The Vivoli ice-cream parlour; Arte della miniature; Ricceri ceramiche; and other food and beverage, artisan, fashion, accessories, perfume and beauty businesses/workshops. A full list may be found at: https://www.lifebeyond tourism.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/2019_Libricino-Aziende-Movimento-corretto.pdf (Instituto Internazionale LBT, 2019)

Conclusion

This specific form of cultural heritage interpretation offers visitors unique opportunities to meet genuine local artisans, discover crafts and interact with those who carry on the traditions from generation to generation. They return home with unforgettable memories of the local people and environment. Additionally, the project enables the businesses involved to flourish by connecting them with potential customers who have an interest in their products.

References

Instituto Nazionale di Statistica Italia (2018). *Firenze.* Retrieved from https://www.citypopulation.de/php/italy-toscana.php?cityid=048017.

Instituto Internazionale LBT (2019). *Movement Life Beyond Tourism.* Retrieved from https://www.lifebeyondtourism.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/2019_Libricino-Aziende-Movimento-corretto.pdf

Fondazione Romualdo Del Bianco (2018). *MANIFESTO 10/2018 Life Beyond Tourism®.* Retrieved from https://www.lifebeyondtourism.org/manifesto/.

Fondazione Romualdo del Bianco (2019). *The Foundation*. Retrieved from http://www.fondazione-delbianco.org/en/#1448644469219-44ae5a60-2825.

Life Beyond Tourism (2019). *Vo per Botteghe®* Retrieved from https://www.lifebeyondtourism.org/what-we-do/vo-per-botteghe/

Popp, M. (2012). Positive and negative urban tourist crowding: Florence, Italy. *Tourism Geographies: An international journal of Tourism, Space, Place and Environment, 14*(1), 50-72.

Statista (2019). *Number of tourists in the of the Italian city of Florence between 2012 and 2017 (in million tourists).* Retrieved from https://www.statista.com/statistics/722442/number-of-tourists-in-florence-italy/.

UNESCO (2019). *Historic Centre of Florence*. Retrieved from http://whc.unesco.org/en/list/174.

Visit Florence (2019). *Florence, Italy: cradle of the Renaissance.* Retrieved from https://www.visitflorence.com/.

What to see in Florence (2019). Vo Per Botteghe® - Going Shopping. Retrieved from https://www.florencehotellaurusalduomo.com/en/vo-per-botteghe.

Questions

1. Are you aware of any other projects enabling dialogue between travellers and local artisans ?
2. What traditional crafts are maintained in your country/region ?
3. How can travellers become acquainted with them ?
4. Would it be possible to develop a similar project in your destination ? If so, under what conditions ? Which craft shops, if any, might be involved in this project ?
5. Propose suitable indicators for evaluating the impact of the Vo per Botteghe project on the local community.

Recommended Reading

Locate Vo per Botteghe FB and watch the video *The story of Vo per Botteghe.* Retrieved from https ://it-it.facebook.com/voperbotteghe/

Instituto Internazionale LBT (2019). *Movement Life Beyond Tourism.* Retrieved from https ://www.lifebeyondtourism.org/wp-content/uploads/2019/01/2019_Libricino-Aziende-Movimento-corretto.pdf

Part 2ii

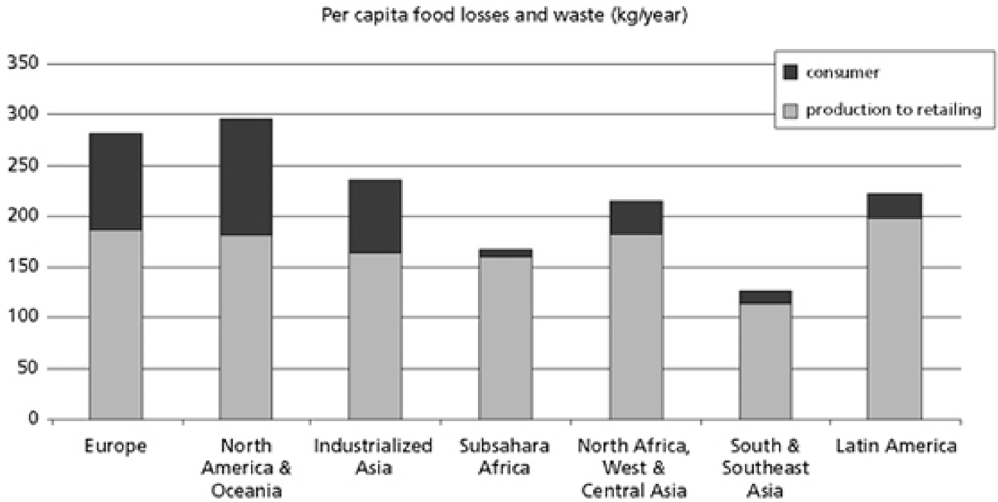
Further Revealed Case Studies

Food Waste Management

by Klára Karakasné Morvay

The FAO (Food and Agriculture Organisation) of the United Nations published some alarming facts on food loss and waste (FAO, 2011). Roughly one third of the food produced in the world for human consumption every year - approximately 1.3 billion tonnes - is lost or wasted. Food losses and waste amounts to roughly US$ 680 billion in industrialised countries and US$ 310 billion in developing countries. Industrialised and developing countries dissipate roughly the same quantities of food, respectively 670 and 630 million tonnes. In 2010 (See Figure 1), consumers in rich countries wasted almost as much food (222 million tonnes) as the entire net food production of sub-Saharan Africa (230 million tonnes).

Figure 1. Regional per capita Food Losses and Waste: Consumption and Pre-consumption

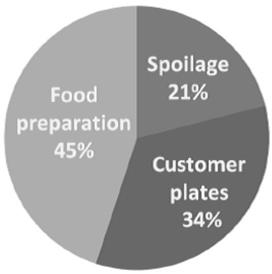


Source: FAO (2011, p.5)

Hotels worldwide have an increasing awareness on the issue of food waste. According to Tekin and Ilyasov (2017), food waste is unavoidable in the hospitality industry due to the fact that hotels welcome guests with diverse cultures, lifestyles and eating habits on a global scale. Luxury hotels are perceived to generate a higher share of food waste as opposed to other hotel types, as they aim to fulfil their guests' expectations in terms of luxury services, which includes offering and serving the greatest abundance of food either through á la carte or open buffet options (Le Philibert, 2016). Furthermore, staff behaviour at luxury hotels has also been found to be a major factor in food waste generation; it was noted that staff had insufficient knowledge and/or involvement, so they tend to generate unexpected amounts of food waste (Baldwin & Shakman, 2012). The sources of food waste, summarised in Figure 2, are:

- Spoiled or out of date food
- Peelings & trimmings
- Inedible by-products, e.g. bones, coffee grounds, tea leaves
- Kitchen error
- Plate waste

Figure 2. The Most Characteristic Sources of Food Waste



Source: Tuppen (2014, September, p. 1)

Even in the best-run kitchens there will be some food waste, but hotel management and employees have a great influence on the quantity. The staff canteen, room service and banquet department are also significant sources of waste.

Reducing Food Waste in a Hotel

According to the Waste and Resources Action Programme (WRAP, 2019), some simple steps can be taken to reduce waste; for example, by recycling more and working out the cost of food waste to the business, hotels can reap financial as well as environmental benefits.

Step 1: Measure food waste

If food waste is not measured, it cannot be managed. "Separation and measurement provide transparency and insights into the largest drivers of food waste, so you can start planning for reduction" (World Wildlife Fund, 2017, p. 21). Food waste needs to be diverted from the rest of the waste stream with dedicated specific areas and containers for food waste. This kind of separation makes it possible to measure the food waste and, ultimately, allows for intentional decisions about what happens to the food: repurposing; flash freezing; donating; composting; etc. (See LeanPath, 2018). Automated tracking technology, for example LeanPath (2018), permits understanding of the full food waste stream, including what it comprises, where it came from, and why it is being wasted. Using this system, it is possible to adjust operations going forward to prevent that waste.

Step 2: Develop an action plan

The next step is to use the data collected to reduce waste by setting targets and timescales and allocating responsibilities. The action plan should include spoilage prevention, stock management, revised menu planning, ordering processes and the service. Buffets are challenging as it is difficult to match supply and demand in an 'all-you-can-eat' system. The default is overproduction. Is it better to have too much food on display than to disappoint guests with too little, especially if they are late arrivals? A buffet has to be merchandised aggressively. Half empty containers and 'blank' areas on the line kill the look of a bountiful buffet. Customers have a hard time gauging their own appetite or may be afraid that certain dishes will run out and so they often simply take more than they can eat, leading to excessive plate waste. As the prevention is complex, you need SMART goals: Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Relevant, and Time-bound (See https://www.eofire.com/how-to-set-smart-goals/). An example of a SMART goal might be to reduce vegetable waste due to excessive preparation by 50% in two weeks, tracking progress over the period.

Step 3: Review of monthly progress review progress of the plan

All stakeholders (management, guests and staff) must be involved if the plan is to succeed. First, the staffs need to be motivated to change their habits, so management must engage staffs in the business through their financial responsibility for reducing wastage. Empowering staff in this way and allowing them to share in the success by allocating part of the savings to them, for example to staff team activity such as an outing or a sports tournament, should promote their interest and enthusiasm. Ways in which guests might be targeted include sharing messages informing them that, although you want to give them the best possible buffet experience, you would appreciate their collaboration in not wasting food; it may be acceptable in some venues to inform guests, via a whiteboard or blackboard, how much plate waste was recorded on the previous day. Continual monitoring and calculations are necessary to measure the amount of waste produced so that the amount of money being saved is visible and checks can be made to see if the goals are being achieved.

Step 4: Share the good work with staff, consumers and industry

Managers should speak to staff to obtain feedback on the progress being made. It should not be used to recognise staff efforts. Figure 3 illustrates a cost-effective and environmentally friendly solution to reduce food waste from the outset although ordering/taking only the amount that one can eat is always the best option.

Figure 3. Solutions for Treatment and Disposal of Waste

Source : Tuppen (2014, September, p. 1)

References

Baldwin, C. J., & Shakman, A. (2012). Food waste management. In C. Baldwin (Ed.) *Greening food and beverage services: A green seal guide to transforming the industry* (p. 57-58). Washington, DC : Green Seal Inc.

FAO (2011). *Key facts on food loss and waste you should know!* Retrieved from http ://www.fao.org/3/a-i2697e.pdf

LeanPath (2018). *Preventing food waste at the buffet*. Retrieved from https ://www.leanpath.com/industries/

Le Philibert, B. (2016). *Food waste the elephant in the room for the hospitality industry.* Retrieved from https://www.sustainablebrands.com/news_and_views/waste_not/benjamin_lephilibert/food_waste_elephant_room_hospitality_industry.

Tekin, O. A., & Ilyasov, A. (2017). The food waste in five-star hotels: A study on Turkish guests' attitudes. *Journal of Tourism and Gastronomy Studies*, *8*(1), 13-31.

Tuppen, H. (2014, September). *Reducing and managing food waste in hotels*. Retrieved from http://www.greenhotelier.org/know-how-guides/reducing-and-managing-food-waste-in-hotels/

World Wildlife Fund (2017). *Fighting food waste in hotels*. Retrieved from https://www.worldwildlife.org/publications/hotel-kitchen-fighting-food-waste-in-hotels

WRAP (2019). *4 steps to reduce waste and save money for hospitality and food service businesses.* Retrieved from http://www.wrap.org.uk/content/4-steps-reduce-waste-and-save-money-hospitality-and-food-service-businesses

Questions and Activities

Begin with the recommended reading

1. Refer to best practices online and suggest ways of training the staff in reducing waste.
2. Find and evaluate several examples of ways in which specific food and beverage outlets have involved guests in saving waste.
3. What measurements can be taken to prevent or reduce food waste during the whole catering process, i.e. planning, purchasing, delivering, storing, cooking, serving etc ?
4. Refer to Tables 1 and 2 and write a concise management report including: analysis of the data, calculation of further key indicators, evaluation of the results, conclusions and recommendations for future action.
5. Research your local Food Safety Regulations and make suggestions for processing the food waste, making use of local partners who accept food donations where possible.

Table 1

2018	No. of guests having self-service breakfast (pax per month)	Food waste breakfast (kg. per month)
January	7385	701.5
February	9798	851
March	10683	954.5
April	11000	1032
May	13859	1058
June	12559	1023
July	13282	1036
August	11832	936
September	13797	1076
October	12814	1030
November	11956	975
December	11233	920

Table 2

Date	No. of hotel guests (pax)	No. of room service guests	No. of meals served (food)	No. of VIP fruit platters	Food waste in room service (kg, total)	From which fruits (kg)	From which bakery products (kg)
Day 1	1002	76	81	24	40	7.5	2
Day 2	992	74	80	8	35	5.5	3
Day 3	558	50	60	7	32.5	7	2.5
Day 4	507	27	33	5	20	5	1.5
Day 5	497	43	49	6	15	3	2.5
Day 6	452	7	12	17	7.5	5	1
Day 7	604	15	29	7	10	4	1.5
Day 8	979	52	52	4	20	2	2
Total							

Recommended Reading

HOTREC (2017). *European hospitality guidelines to reduce food waste and recommendations to manage food donations.* Retrieved from https://datas.com/hotrec/hospitality-guidelines-food-waste/files/assets/basic-html/page-1.html

For the Sake of Fun: How Humour can Backfire in Business Communication

by Eszter Benke and Andrea Szőke

Humour has been an essential element of life since the early advent of mankind and its function and impact have served as an evergreen research topic in a wide range of subjects. Humour is most commonly considered to be an essential coping mechanism which helps to solve delicate or adverse situations, breaks the ice in tense contexts and also lessens the effect of anxiety (for example, Kuiper & Martin, 1998; Martin, 1996; Martin & Ford, 2018; Martin & Lefcourt, 1983; Mathies, Chiew & Kleinaltenkamp, 2016). Humour is found to be a significant source of motivation for study (for example, Morton, 2009; Nasiri & Mafakheri, 2015) as well as an important management tool (for example, Butler, 2015; Caudill & Woodzicka, 2017; Lang & Lee, 2010; Lyttle, 2007). If problems and delicate situations are addressed and resolved then anxiety is decreased and, with the help of humour, a more direct, action-oriented approach which contributes to a positive outcome is facilitated.

Whereas humour facilitates problem solving and eases fear (Mesmer-Magnus, Glew & Viswesvaran, 2012), failed humour is a potential source of misunderstanding (for example, Bell, 2009; Dynel, Brock & de Jongste, 2016). According to Kleinaltenkamp, Mathies and Gansky (2015), humour constitutes an integral part of the behaviour of individual as well as interpersonal relationships. Its role is more apparent in personal interactions and situations with face-to-face communication, which are typical contexts in customer service or in other service provision situations when the employee interacts with the customers/guests. Humour might refer to the speaker (self-centric) or others (allocentric); its effect can be positive as well as negative. Positive allocentric humour, that is affiliative humour, has a positive impact on the participants of an interaction and facilitates positive relationships (Mathies et al., 2016). On the other hand, negative allocentric humour, that is aggressive humour, may hurt others. Aggressive humour is sometimes used to humiliate others.

Unintended negative humour is usually spontaneous and accidental; in such cases the user lacks the necessary information to judge appropriately the outcome and impact of a supposedly humorous remark. Aggressive humour is not acceptable under any circumstances in service provision as its practice will result in a negative evaluation of the service on the whole, as Kleinaltenkamp et al. (2015) suggest.

The Hotel LuxSpa

The case involves a service encounter in the fictitious Hotel LuxSpa in Hungary. Direct booking, via its website, for a renowned four-star superior wellness hotel was encouraged by offering one free coffee in the hotel's cafe for guests who did not use the services of booking intermediaries; thus saving the cost of commission to be paid by the hotel to booking agents. Hotels apply different practices to cope with the restrictive effect of hotel rate parity whereby a legal agreement between the hotelier and the distributor (increasingly the Online Travel Agent) requires that room rates should be identical across different distribution channels.

Obviously, the price of a free coffee is negligible compared to the cost of the stay in a hotel and most probably is not a real driving force that motivates direct booking. Yet once promised on the website and in the confirmation of the booking, it should be offered to the guest. The welcome freebies are usually presented in hotels in a number of different ways. Some hotels offer welcome drinks on arrival, others place vouchers or coupons next to the key card. Neither of these happened in the Hotel LuxSpa; the coffee was almost forgotten. On check-out, however, the guest remembered the coffee and asked the receptionist whether the free coffee would have been a real offer had she remembered earlier to claim it. 'Of course,' the receptionist replied and continued: 'Let me just check *for the sake of fun* whether you really made a direct booking on our website'. It may not come as a surprise to the reader that the guest, humiliated by the lack of trust on the part of the receptionist, left the scene. The hotel lost a patron in a second. The case study set out to discuss the effect of humour in service encounters, yet the sentence that triggered the incident is far from being humorous or funny. The question arises whether it is worth casting doubt on the credibility of guests' statements. The answer should be a definite "No!".

Conclusion

The case described above highlights the responsibility that frontline employees have in creating customer trust and in building the image of a company. Humour, whether intended or unintended, should be applied very carefully as even people belonging to the same culture, and thus likely to have a common understanding of intended benevolent humour, might turn out to have a differential appreciation of a message. As the case discussed confirms, humour can backfire and elicit negative feelings. In spite of all its purported positive effects, humour is risky : it is not worth putting a company, a brand or a service provider at risk by using humour which might backfire and result in the loss of customer loyalty and repeat custom.

References

Bell, N. (2009). Responses to failed humor. *Journal of Pragmatics, 41*(9), 1825-1836.

Butler, N. (2015). Joking aside : Theorizing laughter in organizations. *Culture and Organisation, 21*(1), 42-58.

Caudill, A., & Woodzicka, J. (2017). Funny business : Using humor for good in the workplace. *Humor*, *30*(1), 43-62.

Dynel, M., Brock, A., & de Jongste, H. (2016). A burgeoning field of research : Humorous intent in interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics, 95*, 51-57.

Kleinaltenkamp M., Mathies C., & Gansky S. (2015). Humor in Dienstleistungsinteraktionen – Was wir (nicht) wissen. In A. Meyer (Ed.), *Aktuelle Aspekte in der Dienstleistungsforschung. Fokus Dienstleistungsmarketing* (pp. 145-161). Wiesbaden, Germany : Springer Gabler.

Kuiper, N. A., & Martin, R. A. (1998). Laughter and stress in daily life : Relation to positive and negative affect. *Motivation and Emotion, 22*(2), 133-153.

Lang, J., & Lee, C. (2010). Workplace humor and organizational creativity. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management, 21*(1), 46-60.

Lyttle, J. (2007). The judicious use and management of humor in the workplace. *Business Horizons, 50*(3), 239-245.

Martin, R. A. (1996). The situational humor response questionnaire (SHRQ) and coping humor scale (CHS) : A decade of research findings. *Humor: International Journal of Humor Research, 9,* 251-272.

Martin, R., & Ford, T. (2018). *The psychology of humor: An integrative approach.* (2nd ed.). London : Elsevier Academic Press.

Martin, R. A., & Lefcourt, H. M. (1983). Sense of humor as a moderator of the relation between stressors and moods. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 45*, 1313- 1324.

Mathies, C., Chiew, T., & Kleinaltenkamp, M. (2016). The antecedents and consequences of humour for service. *Journal of Service Theory and Practice, 26*(2), 137-162.

Mesmer-Magnus, J., Glew, D., & Viswesvaran, C. (2012). A meta-analysis of positive humor in the workplace. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 27*(2), 155-190.

Morton, A. (2009). Lecturing to large groups. In H. Fry, S. Ketteridge, & S. Marshall (Eds.). *A handbook for teaching and learning in higher education: Enhancing practice*. (3rd ed.) (pp. 58-71). New York : Routledge.

Nasiri, F., & Mafakheri, F. (2015). Higher education lecturing and humor : From perspectives to strategies. *Higher Education Studies, 5*(5) 26-31.

Question(s)/Activities

1. How should frontline employees be trained in order to avoid misunderstanding and miscommunication stemming from differential appreciation and comprehension of humour ?
2. Give examples of business situations from your own experience in which humour has a) positively and b) negatively contributed to the context.
3. Working in pairs : (i) Locate three advertisements that are intended to be humorous but might have different impacts on guests in different cultural settings ; (ii) Find two examples of culture-specific advertisements of the same product or brand. Present your findings to your group for debate.
4. Why is humour commonly considered a double-edged sword ?

Recommended and/or Further Reading

Bompar, L., Lunardo, R., & Saintives, C. (2018). The effects of humor usage by salespersons : The roles of humor type and business sector. *Journal of Business & Industrial Marketing, 33*(5), 599-609.

Chiew, T., Mathies, C., & Patterson, P. (2018). The effect of humour usage on customer's service experiences. *Australian Journal of Management, 44*(1), 109-127.

Crawford, H. J., & Gregory, G. D. (2015). Humorous advertising that travels : A review and call for research. *Journal of Business Research*, *68*(3), 569-577.
Curtin, S. (2012). Poor service. Sound familiar ? Steve Curtin customer enthusiast ! Retrieved from http ://www.stevecurtin.com/blog/tag/use-appropriatehumor/

Eisend, M. (2009). A meta-analysis of humor in advertising. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, *37*(2), 191-203.

Lee, J., & Ok, C. (2012). Reducing burnout and enhancing job satisfaction : Critical role of hotel employees' emotional intelligence and emotional labor. *International Journal of Hospitality Management, 31*(4), 1101-1112.

Lussier, B., Grégoire, Y., & Vachon, M. A. (2017). The role of humor usage on creativity, trust and performance in business relationships : an analysis of the salesperson-customer dyad, *Industrial Marketing Management, 65*, 168-181.

Martin, R. A. (2010). *The psychology of humor: An integrative approach*. Burlington, MA : Academic Press.

McGraw, A., Warren, C., & Kan, C. (2015). Humorous Complaining. *Journal of Consumer Research, 41*(5), 1153-1171.

Mesmer-Magnus, J., Glew, D. J., & Viswesvaran, C. (2012), A Meta-analysis of positive humor in the workplace. *Journal of Managerial Psychology, 27*(2), 155-190.

Meyer, J. (2000). Humor as a double-edged sword : Four functions of humor in communication. *Communication Theory, 10*(3), 310-331.

Schwarz, U., Hoffmann, S., & Hutter, K. (2015). Do men and women laugh about different types of humor ? A comparison of satire, sentimental comedy, and comic wit in print ads. *Journal of Current Issues & Research in Advertising, 36*(1), 70-87.

Söderlund, M., & Oikarinen, E. (2018). Joking with customers in the service encounter has a negative impact on customer satisfaction : Replication and extension. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services, 42*, 55-64.

Low-Cost Airlines versus Legacy Carriers

by Alexander Frasch

An elderly couple received a four-day trip to Paris from their children as a Christmas gift. As experienced travellers, who had booked with numerous various agencies, they were expecting a wide range of services during their whole flight and stay, as usual; however, this time it was different. As a surprise, the children did not use the services of a travel agency; they decided to create a special holiday package on their own, thus booking the flight tickets and the accommodation separately. To save money, they opted for flight tickets with a low-cost carrier and purchased the cheapest fare possible. Unfortunately, they did not inform their parents, who normally travelled with legacy carriers (scheduled airlines) with most services being included in the price of the flight ticket, that they had made on-line bookings. As a consequence, on the day of departure, the elderly couple encountered several intertwined problems and misunderstandings which led to their dissatisfaction and discomfort.

After arriving at the airport, the couple's first shock came at the check-in desk where they were asked to pay extra money. Since they had not checked-in online, they had to do so at the airport; the additional cost was almost 200 €, including the fee for their suitcases which were designated hold luggage. The gentleman began to argue about the charges with the airport staff, but he was informed immediately that they were flying with a low-cost airline and no extra services were included in the price of the flight tickets. Acknowledging the circumstances, they paid the requested fees. After this embarrassing incident, they understood that there was no point in asking for the emergency exit row seats free of charge, as they already knew the answer for this kind of request. The couple remained rather startled, as they had never experienced flying with a low-cost airline before and thus were not quite sure what else to expect. After the take-off, the cabin crew started the service with the snacks and beverages; the couple assumed the refreshments were complimentary, but they were proved wrong again. If they had had all the information about the carrier and its procedures in advance, they would have been better prepared for such a situation and could have reacted accordingly.

The vision of a beautiful holiday in Paris kept them calm only until the moment of landing when they found out that this remote airport was actually situated nearly two hours taxi ride from the city centre of Paris, where their hotel was located. Furthermore, the whole process of the transportation between the airport and the hotel was neither as cheap and nor as comfortable as they expected.

Aim and Methods

The aim of the present case study is to differentiate the business models of, and services provided by, legacy carriers and low-cost airlines. The main methods delivering successful results and findings included: a secondary research, a comparative method and our own recalculations of the revenue rentability and the profit per passenger indicator. The revenue rentability indicator may be explained simply as follows: How many eurocents can a company earn from 1€ of the revenue?

Comparison of the Low-cost Airlines and Legacy/Scheduled Carriers

In addition to economy classes, legacy carriers usually offer higher-level transport classes, such as business class or first class. The on-board services generally include snacks and beverages that are also included in the ticket price, depending on the purchased class as well as the length of the flight (Pruša et al., 2015). Legacy carriers likewise cooperate within marketing alliances. In order to acquire and maintain customers, they create various loyalty programs or programmes to motivate their commercial partners (Novacká, 2014).The strength of the legacy airlines is also hidden in their main bases – hubs, through which they create extremely important air connections with the world destinations. In cooperation with partner airlines, they create code share flights, where one airline uses the capacity of a partner company aircraft to transport its own passengers. Using global distribution systems, legacy carriers distribute their products through a wide range of delivery channels - airline agents, travel agencies, carriers web sites, etc. (O´Connell & Williams, 2011).

On the other hand, low-cost carriers are characterised by noteworthy cost reductions, which represent their major competitive advantage over legacy air carriers. Low-cost airlines often use smaller secondary airports (for example, London - Luton), which are cheaper in the case of landing taxes and handling fees when compared to larger international airports (for example, London - Heathrow). Their fleets, which comprise mostly one type of aircraft, operate for more hours per day compared with classical carriers (Alderighi, Cento, Nijkamp & Rietveld, 2004). In line with this operation, the aim of low-cost airlines is to achieve very short turn-round times, which represent the time between the landing and departing of an aircraft, so minimising the real time for which the aircraft is on the ground. The secondary airports (where many low-cost companies have their bases) offer several advantages. For example, airlines can better negotiate airport charges, depart quicker thanks to the less restrictive airport SLOT′s and accelerate turn-round due to less airport traffic and prompt ground handling services (Doganis, 2006).

Table 1 Examples of Selected Economic Indicators of a Legacy and a Low-Cost Carrier

	Year 1		**Year 2**		**Year 3**	
	Legacy carrier (A)	**Low-cost carrier (B)**	**Legacy carrier (A)**	**Low-cost carrier (B)**	**Legacy carrier (A)**	**Low-cost (B)**
Revenue (in mil. €)	16,066	5,654	15,412	6,535.8	16,441	6,647.8
Profit before taxation (in mil. €)	813	982.4	1,678	1,721.9	2,067	1,470.3
Number of passengers carried	62,372,000	106,431,130	62,418,000	116,800,000	66,234.000	128,770,000
Revenue rentability	0.051	0.174	0.109	0.264	0.126	0.221
Profit per passenger (in €)	13.03	9.23	26.9	14.74	31.2	11.4

Source : Compiled by the author from the annual reports of two sample airlines

Table 1 records secondary data from the last three years collated from airline websites. The airlines' comparative revenue increased annually during the period under the review, with the exception of the legacy carrier in Year 2. The profits increased annually with the exception of the low-cost carrier whose profit dropped by 14.6% from Year 2 to Year 3. The profit of the legacy carrier increased by more than 150% from Year 1 to Year 3. Despite the fact that Airline B had transported nearly double the number of the passengers compared to the Airline A during the three years under study, the revenue of the airline A was more than double that of the Airline B, attributed to the year-on-year increase in the profit per passenger in Airline A. This finding supports the general hypothesis that the cost of the legacy carrier's flight ticket is on average several times higher than the cost of the ticket of the low-cost carrier.

Another intriguing finding is that, in Year 3, the ability to generate revenue for the low-cost carrier was 22.1% while for the legacy carrier just 12.6% (revenue rentability). These differentials could be interpreted as follows: While Airline A is able to earn 0.13 € from the revenue of 1 €, Airline B can earn from the revenue of 1 € approximately 0.22 €. The annual percentage difference for this indicator between the carriers is even more discrepant in Year 1 (12%) and Year 2 (15%). When comparing the profit generated per passenger, it is noted that the legacy carrier generates higher per capita profit, which is understandable, due to low average flight ticket prices achieved by the cost minimisation in low-cost airlines.

Table 2 Overview of Services Provided in the Sample Economy Class Packages

Legacy carrier (A)	**Economy 1**	**Economy 2**	**Economy 3**
1 carry-on bag up to 8 kg	X	X	X
Snack & beverages	X	X	X
23 kg check-in bag		X	X
Seat reservation		X	X
Priority boarding			X
Security fast track			X
Earlier flight on day of travel			X
Rebooking possible			X
Low-cost carrier (B)	**Economy 1**	**Economy 2**	**Economy 3**
1 small cabin bag	X		
Priority boarding and 2 cabin bags		X	X
Seat reservation		X	X

20 kg check-in bag		X	
Security fast track			X
Free airport check-in			X
Flexible tickets			X

Source : Compiled from information available from the websites of sample airlines

Table 2 was compiled to illustrate the differing price options in economy class (Economy 1, Economy 2 and Economy 3) which include specific types of service provision. The flight ticket price includes prespecified services in each class ; passengers are also able to book additional services for extra charges. Based on the characteristics of the services provided within the specific tariffs (package of services) of the economic class of both airlines, several conclusions are drawn. Despite the fact that many legacy airlines are guided by the philosophy of providing a higher standard for the passengers, our selected legacy carrier, and many other airlines, takes on various distinctive features of the low-cost companies. Within the lowest possible fare, they offer only basic services (in the case of Airline A it is only a hand luggage and on-board refreshments). Until recently, passengers on Airline B were able to take two pieces of cabin baggage on board even within the lowest fare class ; this allowance changed to the disadvantage of the passengers when a new luggage policy was introduced by the low-cost airline.

The great competitive advantage of the legacy carrier is the on-board refreshments, which are identical for all economy passengers, regardless of class ; the diversity and form of the offering is directly dependent on the length of the flight and the final destination. In addition, on long haul flights, passengers have the option of ordering special meals ; the low-cost airline under study serves all beverages and meals using a 'Buy on Board Service', so adding a supplement to the flight cost for those passengers who opt to make purchases. Airline A offers many benefits for loyal passengers and alliance members by collecting miles to qualify for different grades of membership (such as priority check-in and boarding, free access to airport lounges, additional checked-in luggage limit, etc...), while Airline B offers no benefits to its loyal passengers. The legacy carrier offers travellers in the Economy 3 package, the option to re-book the flight ticket at no additional cost, but the fare difference must be paid, and the possibility of a refund for a cancelled flight ticket with a fee of 70

€ . The advantage of the low-cost carrier compared to the legacy airline is the priority boarding in the Economy 2 package and the option to choose a seat with more legroom at an emergency exit of the aircraft, or in the first row

Summary

The current market for the air carriers is extremely diverse. One cannot deny the fact that the 21st century brought with it a boom of air transport and, in particular, a commercial model of low-cost carriers. The success of low-cost airlines is grounded in their ability to reduce their costs throughout the whole operation, passed on to their passengers who can sometimes travel at very discounted prices according to the route and time of booking. Even though legacy carriers are reputed to charge relatively higher fares and offer higher service standards even in their cheaper fares, over the last few years, they have begun to adopt some of the characteristic traits of the low-cost carriers, such as offering cheaper flight tickets but with fewer inclusive services. This practice has led to a series of hybrid business models with some legacy airlines charging for baggage, seat selection and on-board refreshments, for example. Reference to the comparative tariffs in Table 2 indicates that, within the economy fare options, the low-cost options have approached the range of legacy carrier services. Airline business models are easily identifiable by comparing the economic indicators of selected carriers.

References:

Alderighi, M., Cento, A., Nijkamp, P., & Rietveld, P. (2004). *The entry of low-cost airlines*. Retrieved from https://research.vu.nl/ws/portalfiles/portal/2021533

Doganis, R. (2006). *The airline business.* New York: Routledge.

Novacká, Ľ. (2014). Letecká doprava. In Novacká Ľ. et al. (Eds.), *Cestovný ruch, technika služieb, delegát a sprievodca* (3rd ed.) (pp 111-155). Bratislava, Slovakia: Vydavateľstvo EKONÓM

O´Connell, J., & Williams, G. (2011). *Air transport in the 21st century*. New York: Routledge

Pruša. J., Brandýský, M., Hlinovský, L., Horník, J., Pazourek, M., Slabý, F., Třešňák, M., & Žežula, J. (2015). *Svět letecké dopravy*. Praha, Czech Republic: Galileo Training.

Acknowledgements: Prof. JUDr. Ľudmila Novacká, PhD for her supervision and advice.

Activities

1. If you have flown and booked on-line via the official website with both types of carrier, draw up a table to compare your experience with both low-cost and legacy airlines. Try to focus on the:
    a. process of buying flight tickets
    b. communication with the airlines (if there was any)
    c. check-in process
    d. boarding process
    e. comfort on board the aircraft
    f. services on board (beverages, snacks, meals, duty free sale, etc.)
    g. professionalism of the crew, including problem solving skills if applicable

    Note: If you have no experience of flying, choose two contrasting airlines then locate and discuss passenger reviews in the above contexts.

2. You have to arrange a business trip abroad which enables you to be available for work on two full week days. Find a route from destination A to destination B that is served by both a low-cost and a legacy carrier on the same dates and compare the total cost of a package with each of the carriers. Your preference is to have two full working days at your chosen destination with return flight tickets, carry-on luggage (20 kg bag), meals on board, transportation to the city centre from the airport of your arrival and accommodation for 2/3 nights depending on the flight times. Calculate all these costs for both carriers and decide which airline you would choose for your trip with justification. Write a report and/or present the results to your group.

Hunting Tourism as a Specific Product

by Markéta Kalábová

Hunting tourism is a very specific form of tourism; various authors characterise hunting tourism differently. Hunting tourism shares various characteristics with natural tourism, rural tourism or ecotourism, each of which may be considered as a part. Ristic, Gabriela, Simat and Matejevic (2013) refer to hunting tourism as a form of tourism related to natural locations, in which game are hunted. Milojica, Drpic and Nakovski (2014) define hunting tourism as a special form of sustainable tourism that creates a synergistic link across ecotourism, rural and sport tourism. They maintain that it was developed because of the great desire of hunters not only to hunt beyond the borders of their own hunting grounds, but also to reside 'in the wild' and, at the same time, to watch and take care of wild animals. According to Haakana (2007) tourists attracted to hunting tourism are willing to pay large amounts of money for this option; they have a high purchasing power, strong ecological feelings, love nature and wilderness, and are sporting. Haakana (2007) considers hunting tourism as a niche market - a homogenous target group with very specific characteristics; however, hunting, in general, is a very controversial topic because it involves firearms and the killing of wild animals. Nevertheless, in many developed countries hunting is an indispensable game management system, because of overpopulation of wild animals. Hunting tourism is still an unrecognised business sector in many countries and, therefore, may be an untapped resource for regional and rural development (Kalábová, 2018).

Wild game species may be seen as a living natural heritage. The use of this renewable natural resource through hunting can, under sustainable conditions, contribute to the protection of biodiversity. This principle was established in October 2000 in Amman, Jordan, by the International Union for the Conservation of Nature (IUCN, See https://www.iucn.org/). Based on their position statement (FACE, 2004), it is clear that sustainable use of game is an important tool for nature conservation and also because of the social and economic benefits that it brings to the population, reflecting the need to protect and treat it with care. This principle is fully applicable to hunting of all kinds of game from large herbivores, which often cause damage to agriculture and forestry, to carnivores, small game and waterfowl (FACE, 2004). This principle is also confirmed by Resolution on the importance of hunting for European rural areas, adopted in 1987 by the European Council (Council of Europe, 1987) Hunting of game, especially by foreign hunters, is an important source of income for rural development in many countries. It is reflected not only for economic development of countries but also it is a direct source for funding rescue programmes by: strengthening animal welfare legislation; monitoring animal stock; supporting science in the field; providing financial resources for damages' compensation and funding projects increasing the education of the local population in relation to wild animals (Kalábová, 2018).

Within the European Union, 7.3 million hunters are registered; the average annual consumption (per capita expenditure per hunter per trip) within the European Union is 1,500 euro, which is around 11 billion euros per annum (Milojica et al., 2014). Although over 330,000 hunters are registered in Germany, but there are insufficient possibilities in Germany for the registered number of hunters, so the German hunters form the largest groups in foreign hunting tourism (Vach, 2015). Hunting tourism appears to offer a good business opportunity for countries with great potential for the development of this form of niche tourism.

References

Council of Europe (1987). *Importance of shooting for Europe´s rural regions.* Retrieved from assembly.coe.int/nw/xml/XRef/Xref-DocDetails-en.asp ?FileId=5908

FACE (2004). *Hunting abroad – position paper of FACE*. Retrieved from: www.face.eu/sites/default/files/documents/english/position_paper_hunttour_-_en.pdf

Haakana, H. (2007) *Product development in hunting tourism – German hunters as a target group for a Finnish service provider*. Unpublished Bachelor thesis, Jyvaskylan University of Applied Sciences, Jyvaskyla, Finland. Retrieved from: https://www.theseus.fi/bitstream/handle/10024/17547/TMP.objres.410.pdf

Kalábová, M. (2018). *Lovecký cestovní ruch v České republice a v mezinárodních souvislostech.* Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Economics, Prague, Czech Republic.

Retrieved from:
https://vskp.vse.cz/72331_lovecky_cestovni_ruch_vceske_republice_avmezinarodnich_souvislostech

Milojica, V., Drpic, D., & Nakovski, D. (2014). Developing hunting tourism – a new perspective of achieving competitiveness of rural Croatia. In *Medunarodni Znanstveni Simpozij Gospodarstvo Istocne Hrvatske-Jucer Danas Sutra*. (pp.107-121). Osijek, Croatia: University of Osijek.

Ristic, Z., Gabriela, S., Simat, K., & Matejević, M. (2013). Comparative review of hunting tourism in the Czech Republic and Hungary. *Researches Reviews of the Department of Geography, Tourism and Hotel Management. 42,* 205-220.

Vach, M. (2015) *Myslivost 1. Díl – Základy myslivosti*. Uhlířské Janovice: Silvestris.

Questions and Activities

Refer to the recommended reading prior to responding to the questions

1. Which characteristics does hunting tourism have in common with nature tourism, rural tourism and ecotourism ?
2. Locate and compare definitions of commercial hunting, trophy hunting, recreational hunting, canned hunting, conservation hunting, fair-chase hunting, sport hunting and sustainable hunting. What are your personal views on each of these forms of hunting ?
3. What species of wildlife is it possible to hunt in your country ? Do they have hunting seasons ? If so, when are they ?
4. What conditions do foreign hunters have to meet if they want to hunt in your country ?
5. Research for hunting providers and identify the kinds of game they allow to be hunted.
6. Choose 3/4 hunting providers in a region, search for consumer reviews of their offers, draw up a pricelist/list of features, compare the offers then recommend the best deal for (i) a national guest and (ii) an international guest. Justify your response.
7. Make suggestions for promoting and expanding the market in your chosen region/destination.

Recommended Reading

Baldus, R., Damm, G., & Wollscheid, K. (2008). *Recreational trophy hunting: "What do we know and what should we do?"– Best practices in sustainable hunting – A guide to best practices from around the world.* Retrieved from http://www.fao.org/3/a-aj114e.pdf

Matilainen, A. (2007). *Sustainable hunting tourism – Business opportunity in northern areas?* Seinajoki, Finland: University of Helsinki

IUFRO (2015). *Glossary of wildlife management terms and definitions.* Retrieved from https://www.iufro.org/fileadmin/material/science/spps/silvavoc/wildlife-glossary.pdf

Special Interest Tourism: Focus on Churches and Cathedrals

by Roselyne Okech

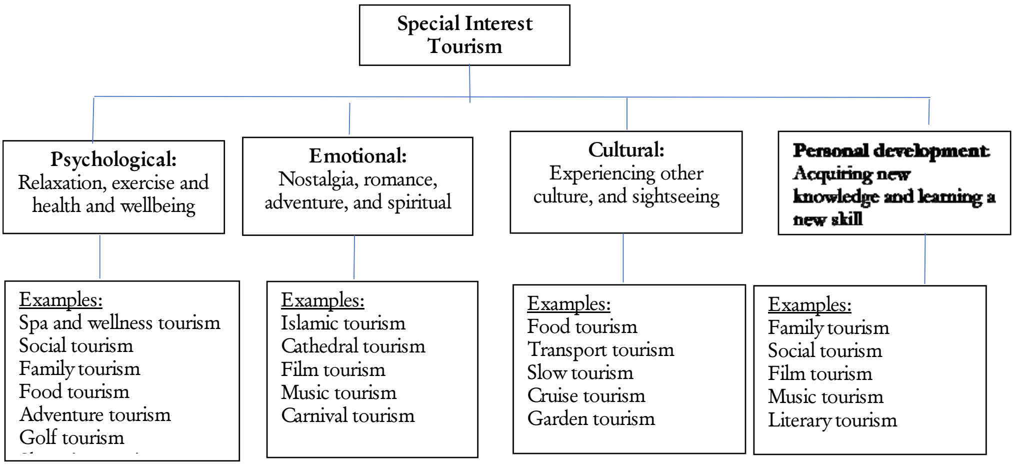
Special Interest Tourism: Introduction

Special Interest Tourism (SIT) is a term that can be used to describe products that have been tailored to meet the needs of a specific audience and/or market segment (Agarwal, Busby & Huang, 2018). They comment that SIT has grown rapidly in volume and value across both the developed and developing worlds since the 1980s, fuelled on the one hand by the increasing diversity of leisure interest which characterise contemporary society, and on the other by an increasingly sophisticated and heterogeneous travel market. Given that SIT may be understood as the desire for distinctive products, Agawal et al. (2018) maintain it is possible to identify a SIT spectrum, underpinned by a set of motivations which are driving demand and participation (See Figure 1). Authenticity is an extremely complex and contestable term that has been used in a variety of different ways within the tourism literature. SIT is perhaps arguably no more or less authentic than mass tourism; it is unique to each individual tourist, and thus its meaning and importance can only be assessed alongside an understanding of the various manifestations of special interest tourist experiences (Agarwal et al., 2018; Li, 2000; Reisinger & Steiner, 2006; Wang, 2007).

Church and Cathedral Tourism

People have always travelled for reasons pertaining to visiting religious places or taking part in religious activities. Visiting cathedrals is one such activity; it is often referred to as religious tourism (Oriade & Cameron, 2018). Similarly, increasing numbers of people are visiting churches and other religious heritage sites – awareness of their significance as attractions is growing (Duff, 2009) so offering great potential for tourism professionals to help enhance the contribution such places make to the overall visitor experience destinations. Meanwhile, those involved in the care and maintenance of churches look for ways in which the cultural and spiritual assets of which they are stewards can be opened up more effectively for both residents and visitors (Duff, 2009). Normally, cathedrals are much larger structures than churches. Voase (2007) drew a distinction between cathedrals that are iconic in terms of scale, quality and antiquity, and parish churches which in latter days were upgraded to cathedral status. Robinson, Oriade, Southall and Dimos (2013) noted that some of the popular religious visitor attractions in the United Kingdom are churches, rather than cathedrals; although they are usually smaller buildings, the churches attract significant numbers of visitors.

Figure 1. Special Interest Tourism Spectrum



Source: Agarwal et al. (2018, p.5)

Historical and Education Significance

In many cultures, religion has played a historical role, so taking families and students to visit religious sites can be an important part of their educational experience. The historical and heritage significance of cathedrals (Oriade & Cameron, 2018) is exemplified in the number that have been designated UNESCO World Heritage Sites. Often prominent people and noblemen, most of whom form an important part of the history of religion, politics, science and economics, are buried in cathedral vaults or chapels. It may be assumed that touring religious buildings is confined to curious adults. However, some parents and teachers have found that taking their children to these sites has a major impact, in that they connect stories they have heard to past events. On visiting the actual location of the story, they appreciate its significance as the connection becomes reality. While in many modern cultures educators may tend not to stress religious venues, there are still some educators who do consider the intertwined stories of religion and culture to be of major importance; generally, their goal is not to convert their charges to any specific religion, but rather to promote knowledge and understanding of historical religious events.

Figure 2. The Allure of Cathedrals' Architecture

St. Vitus Cathedral, Prague

Byzantine Church in Cyprus

Basilica of our Lady of the Angels, Cartago

Source: Author

Architecture and Art

Religious sites present a wide variety of offerings ranging from regular and on-demand services, music and other structured activities of a religious nature, to more secular visitor facilities such as museums and treasuries located within their beautiful historic buildings. In many places, visitors are encouraged to respect the sanctity of the site – to pause for reflection, light candles and engage in spiritual practices, while also being encouraged to climb the bell-tower or gaze in wonder at the aesthetic beauty of the architecture (Griffin & Raj, 2017). In numerous cities, throughout the world, the most dominant and iconic architectural feature is the Cathedral (For examples, see Figure 2). St. Peter's Basilica in St. Peter's Square, the Vatican, is probably the most photographed religious site in the world because of its monumental architectural statement. Cathedrals display a wide variety of architectural styles, ranging from Byzantine (Hagia Sophia, Istanbul), Gothic (Notre Dame, Paris) and Romanesque (Pisa Cathedral) to Renaissance (St. Paul's, London; Brunelleschi's Santa Maria del Fiore, Florence). Many cathedrals and churches around the world are 'pieces of art' in their own right as most of them harbour artwork, paintings, sculptures and unique ornaments and decorations. In contemporary tourism, the various works of art, particularly medieval ones, are now the subject of experiential consumption which may stimulate affective and cognitive feelings and attitudes in visitors (Oriade & Cameron, 2018).

Economic Impact

Cathedrals and churches play a significant role in the local economy. Most of the sites charge entrance fees and they are often located next to shops and markets where tourists can buy food and souvenirs. Shackley (2006) revealed that Anglican cathedrals (in England) welcomed 10 million visitors per year, generated about £ 150 million per annum and employed 1885 people on a full-time basis. It was reported by Ecorys (2014) that British cathedrals brought in an estimated £220 million in local spending per year and created over 5,500 local jobs. A recent article in The Telegraph by Rudgard (2017) indicates that British cathedrals and churches have seen drop-in visitors suggesting that entrance fees appear to be discouraging tourists. It is noted that, while tourist attractions across the country experienced a 2 per cent rise in visitors from 2015 to 2016, religious destinations experienced an 8 per cent drop; there was a 12 per cent drop among sites charging an entry fee. However, many cathedrals which do not impose entry charges, including Bath Abbey, Durham

Cathedral and Ripon Cathedral, reported strong growth in visitor numbers (Rudgard, 2017). In contrast, it was noted that visitors were deterred from visiting Chester Cathedral by the entrance charges, so they were scrapped. Since then, volunteers have been trained to inform visitors about the cathedral and to encourage them to donate; combined with an exciting series of events and free entry, this initiative has 'sent visitor numbers soaring' and the cathedral now brings in more income than when it was charging for entry (Department for Communities and Local Government, 2017).

Cathedrals and Churches may generate further income from weddings, baptisms and dedications, funerals and other community functions. One might presume that such avenues of income can impact on the attractiveness and retention of cathedrals and churches as significant tourism products and contributors to the local economy. Perhaps the question that destination managers need to pay attention to is whether to charge or not to charge.

Conclusion

Historic cathedrals and churches may not appear to be the initial reason or motivator for many visitors to a destination, but the evident scale of visitor activity, together with the wide geographical spread and local distinctiveness of the heritage assets, suggest that cathedral and church tourism offers a viable opportunity for some destinations. Historic cathedrals and churches can respond to a wide range of interests, from casual curiosity through family history and exploring local heritage to more serious engagement; they offer ample scope and added value, so contributing towards sustainable and authentic community tourism.

References

Agarwal, S., Busby, G., & Huang, R. (2018). Special interest tourism: An introduction. In S. Agarwal, G. Busby, & R. Huang (Eds.), *Special interest tourism: Concepts, contexts and cases* (pp. 1-17). Oxfordshire, UK: CABI.

Department for Communities and Local Government (2017). *Cathedrals and their communities a report on the diverse roles of cathedrals in modern England.* Retrieved from https://assets.publishing.service.gov.uk/government/uploads/system/uploads/attachment_data/file/671081/Cathedrals_and_their_communities.pdf

Duff, A. (2009). Unlocking the potential of church tourism. *Tourism Insights,* September, 1-8.

Ecorys (2014*). The economic and social impacts of England's cathedrals: A report to the Association of British Cathedrals.* Retrieved from https://bristol-cathedral.co.uk/images/uploads/EcorysReport_-_ final.pdf

Griffin, K., & Raj, R. (2017). The importance of religious tourism and pilgrimage: Reflecting on definitions, motives and data. *International Journal of Religious Tourism and Pilgrimage*, *5*(3), Article 2.
doi:10.21427/D7242Z. Retrieved from https://arrow.dit.ie/ijrtp/vol5/iss3/2.

Oriade, A., & Cameron, H. (2018). Cathedral tourism. In S. Agarwal, G. Busby, & R. Huang (Eds.), *Special interest tourism: Concepts, contexts and cases* (pp. 40-51). Oxfordshire, UK: CABI.

Reisinger, Y., & Steiner, C. (2006). Reconceptualizing object authenticity. *Annals of Tourism Research,33*(1), 65-86.

Robinson, P., Oriade, A., Southall, C., & Dimos, C. (2013). *An evaluation of the economic impact of Lichfield Cathedral upon the local economy in the City of Litchfield: Project report.* Wolverhampton, UK: University of Wolverhampton.

Rudgard, O. (2017, August 18). Visits to churches and cathedrals fall as fees and terror scare off tourists. *The Telegraph*. Retrieved from https://www.telegraph.co.uk/news/2017/08/18/visits-churches-cathedrals-fall-fees-terror-scare-tourists/

Shackley, M. (2006). Costs and benefits: The impact of cathedral tourism in England. *Journal of Heritage Tourism, 1*(2), 133-141.

Voase, R. (2007). Visiting a cathedral: The consumer psychology of a 'rich experience'. *International Journal of Heritage Studies, 13*(1), 41-55.

Wang, Y. (2007). Customized authenticity begins at home. *Annals of Tourism Research, 34*(3), 789-804.

Activity

Plan a trip to any Church or Cathedral of your choice. Conduct observational research, and an interview if there is a suitable knowledgeable person on site, to identify which aspects can be classified as historical, educational or art resources. Present your findings to your group and initiate a discussion.

Comparison of Performances in Tourism in the Czech and Slovak Republic

by Pavol Plesník

Introduction

Both the Czech Republic and Slovakia (or Slovak Republic) are small central European countries, covering an area of 78,867 km² (ČSÚ, 2019) and 49,035 km² (SŠÚ, 2019) respectively. They rank amongst the smaller countries of the European continent. Despite their size, both small-scale countries have a wealth of landscape types and historical monuments, so they may compete favourably for tourism with those of larger European or global countries. The present case compares their primary potential for tourism by examining their international tourist arrivals. In order to increase the objectivity, the coefficients of the tourist arrivals, which reflect objectively the levels of tourism in each country (Plesnik, 2016), are calculated.

Potential for Tourism in the Czech Republic and Slovakia

To some extent, it might be argued that the definition of tourism potential may be somewhat subjective although there appear to be commonalities in terms of the ability of a site/area/destination associated with the organisation of tourist activity with respect to local nature, culture, history and socio-economic background to attract and receive tourists, taking into consideration accessibility, quality and interpretation of resources (Anderson, 2007; Kuskov & Dzhaladyn, 2006); Bassey (2015) mentioned a destination or community having a local, transformable pool of resources that can be developed into finished products and/or tou rist attractions. Yan, Gao and Zhang (2017, p. 355) considered these viewpoints and concluded that: “tourism potential should not be understood exclusively from a resource-based perspective; operational factors are important additions to the concerns about tourism potential”, ... “in line with Bassey’s (2015) emphasis on the needs of tourist sites in terms of facilities, services and infrastructure to make attractions visitor-ready”. Their study develops and tests an operable, quantitative approach for measuring and comparing the tourism potential of heritage sites by weighting indicators based on resource values (aesthetic value; historical value; awareness level; ambience or setting; complementarity with adjacent attractions; value for money; authenticity) and development state (accessibility or transportation; proximity to other attractions; tourist facilities; interpretation in situ; tourist information; time for on-site visitation; catering services in situ).

Bearing in mind the above information, both the Czech Republic and Slovakia have substantial potential for tourism; their landscapes are rugged but the mountains in Slovakia reach higher altitudes and are more diverse geographically. Both countries offer high potential for building ski resorts and also for summer sports (mountain tourism, cycling, climbing, etc.). Due to the fact that Czech Republic and Slovakia are inland countries, their limited water resources are often used only for seasonal recreational purposes. However, groundwater plays an exceptional role in their tourism as it includes a high content of minerals and chemical elements; moreover, some of this water is thermal, meaning its temperature is often above 20°C. Although the fauna and flora are almost identical in both countries, there is a minor difference in the use of the former environmental component in tourism. In the Czech Republic, there is a higher potential for hunting tourism, due to its more developed infrastructure and tourism superstructures. The climates in both countries are almost identical; alternating cold and warm seasons increase the variety of tourism offers (Novacká & Plesník, 2000).

Table 1 Comparative Potential for Tourism in the Czech Republic and Slovakia

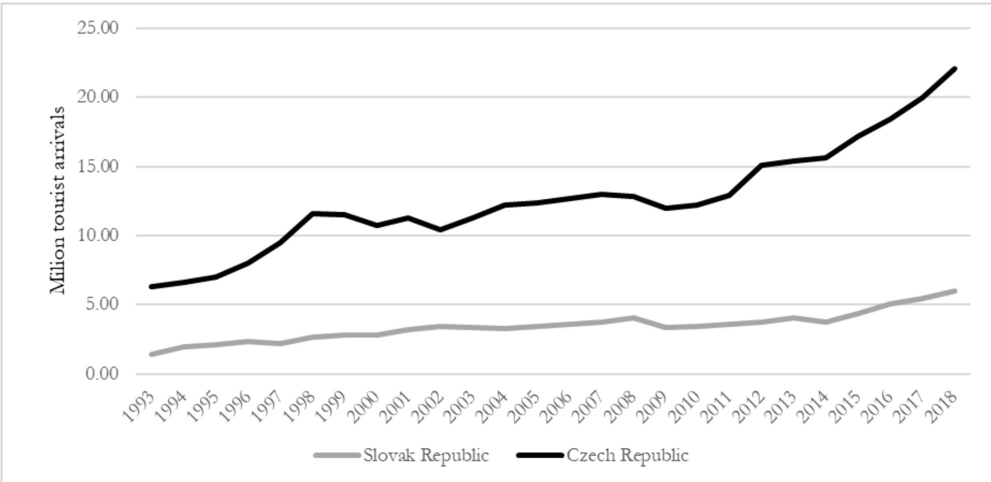
Czech Republic				**Slovakia**			
	Basic level	High level	Very high level		Basic level	High level	Very high level
Relief		x		Relief			x
Surface waters	x			Surface waters	x		
Groundwater			x	Groundwater			x
Flora & Fauna		x		Flora & Fauna		x	
Climate		x		Climate		x	
Cultural			x	Cultural heritage		x	

heritage

Source: Author's perspective

The cultural and historical features also offer great potential for tourism in both countries. In the Czech Republic there are 12 historical monuments registered on the UNESCO list and there are 4 records in Slovakia, each of which comprises 13 historical buildings including urban areas as well. The Czech Republic has a higher potential for tourism development, which is given by a better technical status of the sites, their accessibility and the level of animation (UNESCO World Heritage Centre, 2019); however, both countries have considerable cultural and historical potential for tourism. The extraordinarily high advantage is the fact that the distances between the different components of the cultural and historical environments are minimal. It is possible to visit a number of monuments in a short period of time, which predestines them to become major destinations of cultural tourism in Europe. It can be concluded that, on average, both countries have a very high primary potential for tourism, which would appear to be almost identical on average (Plesník, 2016, 2017a) as may be deduced from Table 1.

Figure 1. International Tourist Arrivals in the Czech Republic and Slovakia



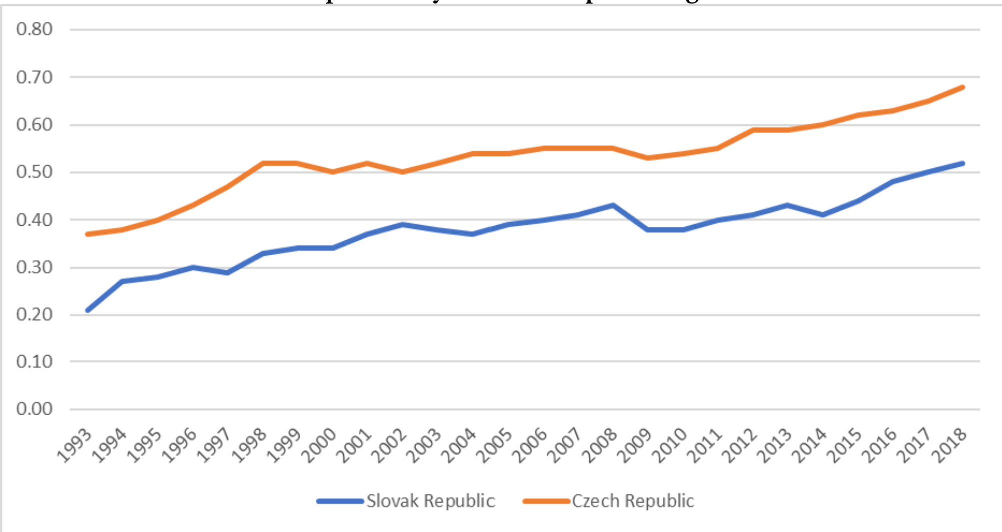
Sources: Processed from data retrieved from Czech Statistical Office www.cso.cz; and Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic www.slovak.statistics.sk

The Position of Tourism in the Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic

The Czech Republic and the Slovak Republic were founded on the 1st of January 1993 when Czechoslovakia was divided into two separate states. Since then, the author considers that the Czech Republic has become a well-known country, often perceived as the basis of Czechoslovakia. He believes that a relatively stable and favourable socio-political situation has helped the development of tourism in the country. Based on the author's experience during this period, relatively high-quality and targeted marketing of the landscape was initiated as tourism destinations were rediscovered. In contrast, the author supposes that Slovakia has become a relatively unknown country by the division due to its relatively unstable socio-political situation with frequent political changes and the unconventional development and promotion of Slovakia as a tourism destination by foreign markets. Stabilisation and conceptuality began to manifest only after the turn of the century, when Slovakia was presented as a small, but attractive destination for tourism (Plesník, 2016). Figure 1 employs data from the Czech and Slovak Statistical Offices to compare their tourist arrivals.

As may be seen from Graph 1, performance in tourism in the Czech Republic has been consistently higher than in Slovakia since the split; however, it can be said that the performance trend in both countries has been rising since their independence. The exception was in 2009, when the global economic crisis caused a worldwide decline in tourism performance (UNWTO, 2018). In addition, the Slovak Republic, as the only group of V4 countries (the community of four Central European countries: the Czech Republic, Hungary, Poland and Slovakia), joined the Eurozone on January the 1st 2009. It should be noted that the main source of income in tourism in Slovakia was precisely the V4 countries (especially the Czech Republic, which participated in nearly one third of tourist arrivals). The exchange rate of local currencies in the V4 countries declined sharply against the euro, making Slovakia a more expensive destination than the surrounding countryside. This reflected a year-to-year decline in traffic by 26.5% (UNWTO, 2018). In the Czech Republic, the year-to-year drop in traffic was only 8.7% in 2009 (UNWTO, 2018).

Figure 2. Tourism Developments in the Czech and Slovak Republic expressed by the tourist percentage



Source: Data calculated from: Czech Statistical Office www.cso.cz and Statistical Office of the Slovak Republic www.slovak.statistics.sk

In order to be more factual and objective with respect to the performance evaluation in tourism, the countries are compared based on the calculation of the tourist percentage (Silver, 2014). This is expressed by the formula:

$$\textit{Tourist percentage} = \frac{\textit{Average Number of Tourists}}{\textit{Average Number of Tourists} + \textit{Resident Population}}$$

The author views this comparison (See Figure 2) with a certain objectivity regarding the touristic performances of both countries. In 1993, the Czech Republic had a tourist percentage mathematical value of 0.37 and Slovakia 0.21. The share of both countries reached 1.76 while in 2018 the share was only 1.3 when the tourist percentage in the Czech Republic was 0.68 and in Slovakia 0.52. These data suggest an improvement in tourism performance in Slovakia compared to the Czech Republic over the period under study.

Conclusion

In this case study, the two countries, which were created 25 years ago, with a relatively long common history of 75 years (Hucáková, 2018), are compared from social, economic and cultural perspectives. The potential for tourism development appears to be almost identical in both countries. On the one hand Slovakia has a higher natural potential, but on the other hand the Czech Republic has a higher cultural and historical potential. Nevertheless, tourism has developed differently in both countries since the separation. From the outset, the Czech Republic has established itself as a good quality destination which is attractive for tourism in contrast with Slovakia (UNWTO, 2018). With the international market being subject to constant change, the revived domestic tourism has systematically created attractive product lines for all segments of clients (UNWTO, 2019).

References

Anderson, G. (2007). *The living heritage survey of the designated buffer zone of the Ukhahlamba drakensberg world heritage site*. Retrieved from : www.sahra.org.za.

Bassey, B. E. (2015). Transforming the Nigeria tourism industry through tourism entrepreneurial development. *African Journal of Business Management, 9*(15), 569-580.

ČSÚ (2019). Český statistický úřad. Retrieved from https ://www.czso.cz

Hucáková, M. (2018). *Spoločná krajina Čechov a Slovákov.* Retrieved from http ://vedanadosah.cvtisr.sk/spolocna-krajina-cechov-a-slovakov

Kuskov A., & Dzhaladyn U.(2006). *Basics of tourism.* Anatalya, Turkey : Biblio Globus.

Novacká, Ľ., & Plesník, P. (2000). *Cestovný ruch v regiónoch a cezhraničná spolupráca.* Bratislava, Slovakia : Ministerstvo hospodárstva SR.

Plesník, P. (2016). Aktivizácia domáceho cestovného ruchu v Slovenskej republike. In : Z. Zborník (Ed.), *medzinárodnej konferencie Príčiny a riešenia cestovného (ne)ruchu* (pp. 4-6). Nitra, Slovakia : Univerzita Konštantína filozofa Nitra.

Plesník, P. (2017a). *Valorizácia kultúrneho dedičstva pre tvorbu ponuky v cestovnom ruchu.* Jihlava, Czech Republic, Studia turistica, Ročník, Vysoká škola polytechnická Jihlava.

SŠÚ (2019). Slovenský štatistický úrad Retrieved from https ://slovak.statistics.sk

Silver, N. (2014). *The countries where you're surrounded by Tourists.* Retrieved from https ://fivethirtyeight.com/features/the-countries-where-youre-surrounded-by-tourists

UNESCO World Heritage Centre (2019). Retrieved from https://whc.unesco.org/

UNWTO Tourism Highlights (2018). Retrieved from https://www.e-unwto.org/doi/book/10.18111/9789284419876

Yan, L., Gao, B. W., & Zhang, M. (2017). A mathematical model for tourism potential assessment. *Tourism Management*, *63*, 355-365.

Questions and Activities

1. Is tourism potential directly proportional to client demand ? Why ? Why not ? Justify your answer.
2. Do tourist arrivals at a destination depend only on the potential for tourism ? Why ? Why not ? Justify your answer.
3. Which European country has the highest potential for tourism ? Justify your response.
4. Research the 10 countries with the greatest tourist arrivals globally and compare them with the tourist arrivals in your country. Analyse the potential for tourism in each of these 10 countries and compare them with the country in which you live.
5. Make suggestions for increasing the potential for tourism in the country in which you live.

Recommended Reading

Yan, L., Gao, B. W., & Zhang, M. (2017). A mathematical model for tourism potential assessment. *Tourism Management*, *63*, 355-365.

Part 3

Points for Discussion

Part 1 Non-revealed Case Studies

Working in Hospitality
by Daniela Matušíková

Points for Discussion

- Hospitality services.
- Staff training: instruction in the workplace (internal rules).
- Managerial training.
- Critical situations' handling.

Reel around the Fountain: Using Free Association Narrative Analysis (FANA) for the Collection of Dark Tourism Subject Matter
by Neil Robinson, Crispin Dale and Mike Evans

Points for Discussion

- FANA technique as a social research method
- Factors to be considered when deploying FANA to generate rich data at dark visitor sites

Tourism Company Mergers: The Pros and Cons
by Sheree Anne O'Neill

Points for Discussion

- Types of organisational structure
- Leadership styles
- Organisational culture

Managing Tourism Destinations Sustainably: From Governance to Metagovernance
by María de la Cruz Pulido-Fernández and Juan Ignacio Pulido-Fernández

Points for Discussion

- Governance is nowadays a key factor to sustainably manage tourism destinations which have an increasingly comprehensive system of actors.

- Metagovernance to achieve greater coherence and eliminate conflicts in the governance of tourism.
- The role of public administrations is decisive to implement metagovernance in tourism destinations.
- Would it be possible for a private entity to launch a metagovernance process ? Justify your answer.

Part 2i Revealed Case Studies

Front Office Management
by Anna Šenková and Daniela Matušíková

Points for Discussion

- Creation and functioning of formal and informal groups at the workplace
- Training of employees and creation of standardised work procedures
- Managerial communication
- Organisational changes and spontaneous resistance of employees to changes in work procedures

Business Case of Combining Offline and Online Marketing
by Detlev Remy and Wolf Magnus Gerstkamp

Points for Discussion

- New and digital marketing vs. repeat customers' satisfaction, does it match ?
- Importance of collaboration and coordination within times of change, who embraces it ?
- Leadership style and employee engagement, what are the critical aspects involved ?

Big Data (In)Security of Hospitality Organisations
by Matthew H. T. Yap

Points for Discussion

- Characteristics of big data and big data warehousing
- Infrastructure to support big data warehousing
- Data protection legislation in the United States of America, European Union and China

Overview of Street Vendors and the Informal Sector in the Tourism Industry in Ghana
by Mike Evans, Neil Robinson and Crispin Dale

Points for Discussion

- Female empowerment and the informal sector in tourism
- Impacts of street vending on tourism destinations

Allergens in the Hospitality Industry - Food Allergy Risk Management
by Predrag Tošić, Bojana Kalenjuk and Maja Banjac

Points for Discussion

- Issues (responsibilities, procedures etc.) pertaining to cases 1-3
- Common food allergies and potential reactions
- Local restaurants suitable for guests with allergies
- Problems faced by restaurateurs in the context of allergies

"Gringo Trails" – the Dark Side of Tourism
by Alina Katunian and Lina Žirnelė

Points for Discussion

- In the light of globalisation and organised tourism expansion, is it possible to avoid such scenarios as Koh Phangan island ?
- Recall or locate other examples of *victim* tourist destinations around the world, where local communities suffer because of the development of mass tourism ? Consider and discuss actual and potential impacts on these communities.

Methodologies for Analysing and Assessing a Territory's Tourist Resources
by Jairo Casado-Montilla and Juan Ignacio Pulido-Fernández

Points for Discussion

- Creation of an inventory of resources and the value of keeping it updated.

- Assessing a territory using offer analysis methodologies before it is recognised as a tourism destination.
- Is evaluating tourism attractiveness more or less useful when the tourism destinations are already mature ?
- The need for consensus regarding homogeneous methodologies that allows global comparisons of tourism destinations.

Destination Management Organisations: Definition, functions, characteristics and financial structure
by Isabel Carrillo-Hidalgo and Juan Ignacio Pulido-Fernández

Points for Discussion

- Suitability of tourism management through a DMO.
- Similarities and differences between DMkOs and DMOs.
- Financial diversity in the budget structure of the DMOs.
- Possible solutions to financial and budgetary problems in tourism management.

Life Beyond Tourism
by Liběna Jarolímková and Jiří Vaníček

Points for Discussion

- What do you understand by the term : 'Life beyond tourism' ?
- Offer an appropriate translation for the 'Vo per Botteghe' project headline in your language or propose an equivalent name for such activity.
- What could be the benefits of such a project in your city ?

Part 2ii Further Revealed Case Studies

Food Waste Management
by Klára Karakasné Morvay

Points for Discussion

- Food you cannot use does not always need to become waste. The difference between 'surplus food' and 'waste food'.

- Ways in which "Reduce; Reuse; Recycle" can help the hotels, the community and the environment.

For the Sake of Fun: How Humour can Backfire in Business Communication
by Eszter Benke and Andrea Szőke

Points for Discussion

- Importance of the behaviour of frontline employees in creating first impressions during a service encounter.
- How might different age groups and genders exhibit differences in appreciating and interpreting humour ?
- Importance of customer loyalty to business success.
- Extent to which humour is an efficient and effective communication tool in business contexts.

Low-Cost Airlines versus Legacy Carriers
by Alexander Frasch

Points for Discussion

- Reasons why the legacy carriers are taking on some characteristic features of the low-cost airlines
- Ways in which low-cost airlines might further reduce their costs

Hunting Tourism as a Specific Product
by Markéta Kalábová

Points for Discussion

- Alien and native species of wildlife in your country
- Equipment required for hunting
- Famous hunters
- Positive and negative impacts of hunting tourism

Special Interest Tourism: Focus on Churches and Cathedrals
by Roselyne Okech

Points for Discussion

- Discuss the role of religious institutions in tourism development.
- Explain in detail the socio-cultural and historical impacts that come with promoting religious tourism.
- In what ways should destinations address the challenges that might arise in promoting Church and Cathedral tourism ?

Comparison of Performances in Tourism in the Czech and Slovak Republic
by Pavol Plesník

Points for Discussion

- Landscape elements that form the potential for tourism
- Types of cultural heritage that are most important for creating an attractive offer for tourists
- Potential of tourism in relation to client demand
- Factors that affect tourist arrivals in a destination

This book offers a range of cases written by specialists from industry and academia, who have drawn on their knowledge and experiences to offer problem solving exercises and activities in hospitality, tourism and event management. Although reference is made to specific national settings, most of the problems can be transposed to other locations and so offer management students and trainees a wide range of opportunities for interactive learning.

Each case concludes with a series of questions for students and trainees and/or ideas for associated activities. In addition to references, recommendations for further reading and links to websites and videos are provided as appropriate. Furthermore, for the guidance of teachers, trainers, students, trainees and managers, the authors have indicated points for discussion and suggested follow-up activities relevant to the scenarios.

The cases may be used for individual, group or team exercises and offer students and trainees, who aspire to hospitality, tourism or event management careers, opportunities for considering, debating, analysing and evaluating real and simulated scenarios set in various international locations.

"Truly fascinating and eye-opening transnational, multicultural and multi-faceted insights spanning 15 countries across 5 continents that are well researched and explored by a plethora of subject matter experts through a board range of contemporary tourism and hospitality disciplines."

Ed Kastli, MBA
Vice President, International Sales
American Hotel & Lodging Educational Institute

ISBN 978-606-687-351-2

9 786066 873512