

Copyright 2019. Business Science Reference. All rights reserved. May not be reproduced in any form without permission from the publisher, except fair uses permitted under U.S. or applicable copyright law.



# Neoliberalism in the Tourism and Hospitality Sector

EBSCO Publishing : eBook Collection

(EBSCOhost) - printed on 2/8/2023 9:45 PM via

AN: 1906726 ; Nadda, Vipin, Sahidi, Bilan,

Azam, Muhammad, Mulindwa, Dirisa.

Vipin Nadda, Sahidi Bilan, Muhammad Azam,

and Dirisa Mulindwa

Neoliberalism in the Tourism and Hospitality Sector



Account: ns335141

# Neoliberalism in the Tourism and Hospitality Sector

Vipin Nadda  
*University of Sunderland, UK*

Sahidi Bilan  
*University of Sunderland, UK*

Muhammad Azam  
*University of Sunderland, UK*

Dirisa Mulindwa  
*University of Sunderland, UK*

A volume in the Advances in  
Hospitality, Tourism, and the  
Services Industry (AHTSI) Book  
Series



Published in the United States of America by  
IGI Global  
Business Science Reference (an imprint of IGI Global)  
701 E. Chocolate Avenue  
Hershey PA, USA 17033  
Tel: 717-533-8845  
Fax: 717-533-8661  
E-mail: [cust@igi-global.com](mailto:cust@igi-global.com)  
Web site: <http://www.igi-global.com>

Copyright © 2019 by IGI Global. All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced, stored or distributed in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopying, without written permission from the publisher.  
Product or company names used in this set are for identification purposes only. Inclusion of the names of the products or companies does not indicate a claim of ownership by IGI Global of the trademark or registered trademark.

#### Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: Nadda, Vipin, 1970- editor. | Sahidi, Bilan, 1964- editor. | Azam, Muhammad, 1974- editor. | Mulindwa, Dirisa, editor.  
Title: Neoliberalism in the tourism and hospitality sector / Vipin Nadda, Sahidi Bilan, Muhammad Azam and Dirisa Mulindwa, editors.  
Description: Hershey, PA : Business Science Reference, 2019. | Includes bibliographical references.  
Identifiers: LCCN 2018011678 | ISBN 9781522569831 (hardcover) | ISBN 9781522569848 (ebook)  
Subjects: LCSH: Tourism. | Hospitality industry. | Neoliberalism.  
Classification: LCC G155.A1 N4235 2019 | DDC 338.4/791--dc23 LC record available at <https://lccn.loc.gov/2018011678>

This book is published in the IGI Global book series Advances in Hospitality, Tourism, and the Services Industry (AHTSI) (ISSN: 2475-6547; eISSN: 2475-6555)

#### British Cataloguing in Publication Data

A Cataloguing in Publication record for this book is available from the British Library.

All work contributed to this book is new, previously-unpublished material.  
The views expressed in this book are those of the authors, but not necessarily of the publisher.

For electronic access to this publication, please contact: [eresources@igi-global.com](mailto:eresources@igi-global.com).



# Advances in Hospitality, Tourism, and the Services Industry (AHTSI) Book Series

ISSN:2475-6547  
EISSN:2475-6555

Editor-in-Chief: Maximiliano Korstanje, University of Palermo, Argentina

## MISSION

Globally, the hospitality, travel, tourism, and services industries generate a significant percentage of revenue and represent a large portion of the business world. Even in tough economic times, these industries thrive as individuals continue to spend on leisure and recreation activities as well as services.

**The Advances in Hospitality, Tourism, and the Services Industry (AHTSI)** book series offers diverse publications relating to the management, promotion, and profitability of the leisure, recreation, and services industries. Highlighting current research pertaining to various topics within the realm of hospitality, travel, tourism, and services management, the titles found within the AHTSI book series are pertinent to the research and professional needs of managers, business practitioners, researchers, and upper-level students studying in the field.

## COVERAGE

- Destination Marketing and Management
- Leisure & Business Travel
- Customer Service Issues
- International Tourism
- Tourism and the Environment
- Cruise Marketing and Sales
- Travel Agency Management
- Service Training
- Health and Wellness Tourism
- Casino Management

IGI Global is currently accepting manuscripts for publication within this series. To submit a proposal for a volume in this series, please contact our Acquisition Editors at [Acquisitions@igi-global.com](mailto:Acquisitions@igi-global.com) or visit: <http://www.igi-global.com/publish/>.

The Advances in Hospitality, Tourism, and the Services Industry (AHTSI) Book Series (ISSN 2475-6547) is published by IGI Global, 701 E. Chocolate Avenue, Hershey, PA 17033-1240, USA, [www.igi-global.com](http://www.igi-global.com). This series is composed of titles available for purchase individually; each title is edited to be contextually exclusive from any other title within the series. For pricing and ordering information please visit <http://www.igi-global.com/book-series/advances-hospitality-tourism-services-industry/121014>. Postmaster: Send all address changes to above address. ©© 2019 IGI Global. All rights, including translation in other languages reserved by the publisher. No part of this series may be reproduced or used in any form or by any means – graphics, electronic, or mechanical, including photocopying, recording, taping, or information and retrieval systems – without written permission from the publisher, except for non commercial, educational use, including classroom teaching purposes. The views expressed in this series are those of the authors, but not necessarily of IGI Global.

## Titles in this Series

*For a list of additional titles in this series, please visit:*

<https://www.igi-global.com/book-series/advances-hospitality-tourism-services-industry/121014>

### ***Managing Sustainable Tourism Resources***

Debasish Batabyal (Amity University, India)

Business Science Reference • ©2018 • 330pp • H/C (ISBN: 9781522557722) • US \$215.00

### ***GIS Applications in the Tourism and Hospitality Industry***

Somnath Chaudhuri (Maldives National University, Maldives) and Nilanjan Ray (Adamas University, India)

Business Science Reference • ©2018 • 343pp • H/C (ISBN: 9781522550884) • US \$205.00

### ***Global Perspectives on Religious Tourism and Pilgrimage***

Hatem El-Gohary (Birmingham City University, UK & Cairo University, Egypt) David John Edwards (Birmingham City University, UK) and Riyad Eid (United Arab Emirates University, UAE)

Business Science Reference • ©2018 • 236pp • H/C (ISBN: 9781522527961) • US \$185.00

### ***Legal and Economic Considerations Surrounding Reproductive Tourism Emerging ...***

Anastasia Paraskou (CROSSBEEES Healthcare Consultancy, Cyprus & Swiss Management Center University, Switzerland) and Babu P. George (Fort Hays State University, USA & Swiss Management Center University, Switzerland)

Business Science Reference • ©2018 • 235pp • H/C (ISBN: 9781522526940) • US \$165.00

### ***Handbook of Research on Technological Developments for Cultural Heritage and ...***

João M. F. Rodrigues (University of Algarve, Portugal) Célia M. Q. Ramos (University of Algarve, Portugal) Pedro J. S. Cardoso (University of Algarve, Portugal) and Cláudia Henriques (University of Algarve, Portugal)

Business Science Reference • ©2018 • 535pp • H/C (ISBN: 9781522529279) • US \$295.00

### ***Innovative Perspectives on Tourism Discourse***

Magdalena Bielenia-Grajewska (University of Gdansk, Poland) and Enriqueta Cortes de los Rios (Almeria University, Spain)

Business Science Reference • ©2018 • 360pp • H/C (ISBN: 9781522529309) • US \$225.00

*For an entire list of titles in this series, please visit:*

<https://www.igi-global.com/book-series/advances-hospitality-tourism-services-industry/121014>



701 East Chocolate Avenue, Hershey, PA 17033, USA

Tel: 717-533-8845 x100 • Fax: 717-533-8661

E-Mail: [cust@igi-global.com](mailto:cust@igi-global.com) • [www.igi-global.com](http://www.igi-global.com)

# Table of Contents

**Preface**..... xiii

## **Section 1 Neo-Liberalism and Tourism**

### **Chapter 1**

Developing Tourism Sector With Neoliberalism Orientated Strategies in  
Countries With Scarce Financial Resources ..... 1  
*Sumesh Singh Dadwal, Northumbria University – London, UK*

### **Chapter 2**

The End of Tourism as We Know It: Neoliberalism, Thana-Capitalism, and  
Touring..... 14  
*Maximiliano Emanuel Korstanje, University of Palermo, Argentina*  
*Babu George, Fort Hays State University, USA*

### **Chapter 3**

Tourism as a Neoliberal Economic Messiah: The Case of South Africa .....29  
*Unathi Sonwabile Henama, Tshwane University of Technology, South  
Africa*

## **Section 2 Glocalization**

### **Chapter 4**

Glocalisation and Sustainable Business Solutions: Business and  
Environmental Sustainability .....53  
*Michael Abayomi Fowowe, Ekiti State University, Nigeria*

<b>Chapter 5</b>	
Creating Business Value and Competitive Advantage Through Glocalization.....	83
<i>Husam Helmi Alharahsheh, University of Wales Trinity Saint David, UK</i>	
<i>Abraham Pius, Arden University, UK</i>	

<b>Chapter 6</b>	
Wine and Glocal Gastronomy in Mexico.....	99
<i>Hugo Giovanni Aguayo Diaz, De La Salle University Bajío, Mexico</i>	
<i>Celeste Nava Jiménez, De La Salle University Bajío, Mexico</i>	
<i>Marisol Martínez del Campo Castro, De La Salle University Bajío, Mexico</i>	

### Section 3 Neo-Liberalism and the Global Business

<b>Chapter 7</b>	
The Business Environment as a Global Village.....	118
<i>Sahidi Maman Bilan, University of Sunderland in London, UK</i>	

<b>Chapter 8</b>	
Globalization and Global Code of Tourism Ethics.....	132
<i>António dos Santos Queirós, Lisbon University, Portugal</i>	

<b>Chapter 9</b>	
Understanding Neoliberalism Regimes and the Operations of Global Corporations.....	158
<i>Sahidi Maman Bilan, University of Sunderland in London, UK</i>	

<b>Compilation of References</b> .....	174
--	-----

<b>Related References</b> .....	204
---------------------------------	-----

<b>About the Contributors</b> .....	236
-------------------------------------	-----

<b>Index</b> .....	240
--------------------	-----

# Detailed Table of Contents

**Preface**..... xiii

## **Section 1** **Neo-Liberalism and Tourism**

### **Chapter 1**

Developing Tourism Sector With Neoliberalism Orientated Strategies in  
Countries With Scarce Financial Resources ..... 1  
*Sumesh Singh Dadwal, Northumbria University – London, UK*

This chapter explores the idea of tourism development and discusses ideologies and strategies for developing and least developing countries. The chapters explore the ideology of neoliberalism for developing the tourism as a sector. The paper argues that in the era of a dearth of resources, and decreasing trends and rationality for state intervention, it is pertinent and significant to develop tourism sector by following the strategies based on principles and ideals of neoliberalism. The chapter also cautions about some limitations of using neoliberalism as a model of development.

### **Chapter 2**

The End of Tourism as We Know It: Neoliberalism, Thana-Capitalism, and  
Touring..... 14  
*Maximiliano Emanuel Korstanje, University of Palermo, Argentina*  
*Babu George, Fort Hays State University, USA*

One of the main problems of “neoliberalism” seems to be associated to the countless interpretations revolving around the term. Originally formulated to serve as an opposite alternative against neo-pragmatism, neoliberalism toyed with the belief that the world can be united through the consumption and free trade. During 1980s and 1990s, the theory of development adopted tourism as an efficient instrument to struggle with poverty. Under the auspices of neoliberalism, modern tourism not only paved the ways for an “Kantian eternal peace,” but also conducted a much deeper process of democratization beyond the borders of Western civilization. At



some extent, tourism played a crucial role as the ambassador of capitalism, indexing some peripheral economies into what Hardt and Negri dubbed “the Empire.” After the recently-happened stock and market crisis in 2008, tourism not only was placed in jeopardy -by the advance of jihadist terrorism- but mutated towards more morbid forms of consumption, which made from human`s suffering a tantalizing criterion of attraction. Thana-Tourism, War tourism, Dark Tourism or Slum tourism are only indicators that the society is changing towards new horizons. In the book *The Rise of Thana Capitalism and Tourism* (Routledge, 2016) this author coined the term “Thana-Capitalism” to describe the passage of a society of risk towards a new culture where death is the main commodity to exchange.

### **Chapter 3**

Tourism as a Neoliberal Economic Messiah: The Case of South Africa .....29  
*Unathi Sonwabile Henama, Tshwane University of Technology, South Africa*

Tourism has grown in leaps and bounds since the democratic transition in 1994, which heralded the end of apartheid in South Africa. The growth of tourism has been so spectacular that today, tourism is regarded as the new gold, as it is South Africa’s number one export. Tourism is now 2.9% of GDP in South Africa, whilst mining contributes 8% of GDP. The rise of tourism as a GDP contributor has been premised on the sustained and perennial growth of tourism. For the past 24 years, tourism’s growth rate has always exceeded the national growth rate of the country. The sustained growth of tourism caught the attention of policy makers and private investors. Tourism has been primarily private sector led, which has seen the emergence of several forms of special interest tourism such as religious tourism, sports tourism, medical tourism, cultural tourism, and etc. South Africa is sold primarily as a sand, sea, sun and wildlife destination because it is home to the big five. The state has been providing an enabling environment, and this enabling environment was picture perfect when South Africa hosted the 2010 FIFA World Cup. The hosting of a successful 2010 FIFA World Cup improved the image of South Africa and this led to an increase in tourism arrivals. The growth of tourism has mitigated the decline of mining, especially gold mining that was the primary driver of the economy for decades. Mining has been the primary driver of the economy for decades. South Africa has one of the deepest mineral deposits in the world. The over concentration of mining on the South Africa economy has led to little economic diversification. The decline of mining has thrown millions of South Africans out of employment. When mining sneezes, the South African economy catches a flu. The economy of South Africa is suffering from a decline in mining production, a decline in the commodity prices, and the shedding of jobs in mining. The decline of mining has a negative

impact on the economy, because of mining's deep forward and forward linkages within the economy. The rise of tourism occurred when the economic fortunes were dampened by the decline of mining and agriculture, leading to widespread poverty associated with unemployment. The growth of international tourism was 13% year on year in 2016, whilst the economy failed to reach 1% economic growth. To ensure sustained growth in tourism, a standalone Ministry of Tourism has been established to allow for dedicated attention. Spreading the developmental benefits of tourism has been the major challenge of the tourism industry. Tourism which is labour intensive, has the potential to absorb the critical mass of unemployed South Africa, where unemployment has exceeded 27%. The decline in economic growth has impacted on the economy, and tourism's sustained growth has mitigated the decline of mining. Tourism has become an economic messiah for South Africa. The literature review adds to a paucity of academic gaze on the tourism industry in South Africa.

## **Section 2** **Glocalization**

### **Chapter 4**

Glocalisation and Sustainable Business Solutions: Business and Environmental Sustainability .....53

*Michael Abayomi Fowowe, Ekiti State University, Nigeria*

With respect to the ever increasing and fast-growing business economy in the global world, diverse business ideologies, paradigms and business strategic policies have been developed by economists, political analysts, business philosophers, theorists and researchers in providing sustainable business solution across the globe. However, due to the dynamic nature of people, business evolvement and consistence of change in politics and business activities, different ideologies (e.g., resurgence of colonialism, post-colonialism, classical liberalism, traditional conservatism, modern conservatism, to mention but a few) has played significant roles in shaping the political and economic perspectives of people overtime. Meanwhile, none of these ideologies was able to provide workable solution in sustaining business growth and development across the globe, hence, the emergence of neo-liberalization. Therefore, the mission and concern of this proposal is to provide sustainable business solution through instrumentality of glocalization in the tourism industry. However, in achieving this broad objective, rationale, effects, criticisms and failure of existing ideologies in providing sustainable business solution will be discussed, while the predominance of neo-liberalization and glocalization in relation to the tourism industry will be critically evaluated.

## Chapter 5

### Creating Business Value and Competitive Advantage Through Glocalization.....83

*Husam Helmi Alharahsheh, University of Wales Trinity Saint David, UK*  
*Abraham Pius, Arden University, UK*

Glocalization is considered as one of the main contributors to value creation and development as well as for competitive advantage enhancement at a global stage. Previous studies suggest that globalization indicate to the co - presence of universal and local practices. Globalization is based on the phenomenon that products or services providers have further consideration and sense of the locality needs and wants in foreign markets instead of the assumption that parent market practices can be applied in foreign markets. The term of glocalization is a combination of “Globalization” and “Localization.” Therefore, the glocalization approach has become increasingly important for multi-national organizations to further understand foreign markets and how to make certain minor or major amendments to the original offering within the parent market to adapt to the local trends and preferences leading to further development and enhancement of the business value offered for the customer as well as creation of a competitive advantage with the consideration of local and global players competing in a particular market. The aim of the chapter to provide an overview supported by a range of examples of how glocalization as an organization approach to international growth and expansion can develop a business value and create a competitive advantage.

## Chapter 6

### Wine and Glocal Gastronomy in Mexico.....99

*Hugo Giovanni Aguayo Diaz, De La Salle University Bajío, Mexico*  
*Celeste Nava Jiménez, De La Salle University Bajío, Mexico*  
*Marisol Martínez del Campo Castro, De La Salle University Bajío,  
Mexico*

Wine as part of the cuisine continues to gain ground as one of the central elements in the table of the Mexicans, although not all tables, the culture of wine represents an opportunity for glocal development. Mexican cuisine is a delight to the senses of the human being, wine is, therefore, a means to promote the gastronomic experience through the perfect combination of food and wine. The consumption of wine has the possibility of re-creating the gastronomic experience in tourist destinations, combining possibilities of marriage with the culturally Mexican foods par excellence. In a global way, the production, the consumer and the social dimension of wine in Mexican gastronomy must be gastronomic tourism processes that deserve to be understood in order to offer sensorial experiences connected with a sociocultural context, a destination and a tourism product that contributes to local development. The research, which is of a conceptual nature, seeks to connect wine with the pairing of Mexican

dishes through the exploration of organoleptic qualities of wine in accompaniment of some Mexican dishes. The research is presented in four dimensions, the first explores the qualities of Mexican cuisine, followed by the organoleptic description of the wine and its use at the Mexican table. Later, a contribution is made to the construction of matrices of pairing promoting the global development of the tourist destination and the inclusion of the kitchen and its ingredients, in such a way that it can be concluded with certain reflections of the pairing matrices as inclusion in the tourist experience gastronomic of some tourist destination of Mexico.

### **Section 3**

#### **Neo-Liberalism and the Global Business**

#### **Chapter 7**

The Business Environment as a Global Village..... 118  
*Sahidi Maman Bilan, University of Sunderland in London, UK*

Globalization is undoubtedly one of the most debated and controversial topics of our time. For some people Globalization has a positive connotation, for others a negative one. Globalization is thought of as the fast-growing move towards a world in which national economies are merging into an interdependent global economic system. A more business view of globalization conceives it as a process by which industries transform themselves from multi-national to global competitive structures. ICT, transportation technologies and global institutions have played a determinant role in the phenomenon of globalization. Various levels of integration have been established. Globalization of companies has been identified as the micro level, whereas the interconnectedness of economies is termed as the macro level of globalization. The merging of businesses is referred to as the meso level. Thus, all these levels must be differentiated when dealing with its issues and should be understood as different interrelated stages. If at the heart of globalization is the interdependence and integration of the national economies into global economy, does it also mean that cultural differences for instance have been subsumed or sublated?

#### **Chapter 8**

Globalization and Global Code of Tourism Ethics..... 132  
*António dos Santos Queirós, Lisbon University, Portugal*

In the framework of the globalization of tourism this chapter discusses the concepts of modern Ethics and Moral, on a critical perspective to the dominant standpoint that sets the morale in the order of the rules and social conventions and leaves the ethics on the field of personal experience. The author follows a research line trying to discover the complex and dialectical connection between ethics and moral, from Aristotle's Ethics and Aristotle's Politics to the contemporary environmental philosophy and environmental ethics. This chapter analyses the contribution of the

environmental philosophy from the twentieth century philosophy renovation and, in this context, the particular contribution to rethink globalization and the code of ethics for tourism. Their analytic perspective is that the fundamental push of environmental philosophy is the ethical issue and the moral problems. Contrasting with the history of philosophy, that the core problems are the human condition, the environmental philosophy drive their thought to the *raison d'être*, the sense of the existence of the world and their phenomenology, without becoming a philosophy against the Human being, because the nature of the Human being, the nature of all entities and beings from the universe, is that they was generate by the same “star dust.” Modern environmental reason emerged, with a new categorical imperative to the men’s action, beyond the Kantian principle conforming individual acts with a universal law, configuring the human conduct within the limits that safeguard the continuity of life and its diversity, a new ethical framework built by environmental philosophy.

## **Chapter 9**

Understanding Neoliberalism Regimes and the Operations of Global Corporations.....	158
<i>Sahidi Maman Bilan, University of Sunderland in London, UK</i>	

The present-day political and economic ideology constitutes a veritable challenge—due to its complexity—for managers in charge of global corporations, especially when it comes to crafting global strategies. Therefore, an understanding of the Neoliberalism system and the circumstances which led to the global dominance of corporations are crucial. The aim of this chapter is first and foremost to evaluate the political and economic circumstances which led to the emergence of the new world order coined as Neoliberalism. That means that the external environment of current global businesses paper will be discussed. A particular focus will then be on the new world order and how this is conducive to the free operations of global corporations. Finally, a third part of this paper deals with a critical assessment of the entire neoliberal project and the corporate governance.

<b>Compilation of References</b> .....	174
<b>Related References</b> .....	204
<b>About the Contributors</b> .....	236
<b>Index</b> .....	240

## Preface

“Neoliberalism” is a concept that has come to dominate the socio-economic and political debates of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. It is considered to be one of the most dominant economic policy agenda for the late 20<sup>th</sup> century and the early part of the 21<sup>st</sup> century. Some commentators have gone on to suggest that we now live in the age of neoliberalism, and this concept is the key ideology that is shaping the world today (Thorsen, 2009).

Neoliberalism’s anonymity is both a cause and symptom of its power. Commentators such as Monbiot (2016) have blamed neoliberalism for everything that has happened in the socio-economic and political arena citing BREXIT in the UK and the election of Trump in the US as results of Neoliberalism. It is also claimed that the 2007-8 financial meltdown was a result of neoliberalism policies that left the private sector to operate with no regulation. Venegupal (2015) regarded neoliberalism as a powerful political agenda of class domination and exploitation, the manifestation of ‘capital resurgent’, and an overarching dystopian zeitgeist of late-capitalist excess. Whilst Anderson (2007, p. 17) referred to neoliberalism as “...the most successful ideology in world history.”

Neoliberalism has been widely studied from a variety of disciplines including political science, economics, geography, cultural studies and tourism. In all these disciplines neoliberalism considered both as an approach to government as well as a defining political and economic movement. All these perspectives are grounded in the assumption that government is poor business operator that cannot create economic prosperity, instead governments make the world worse not only for business but for everyone most especially the poor. Neoliberalism sees competition as the defining characteristic of human relations. It redefines citizens as consumers, whose democratic choices are best exercised by buying and selling, a process that rewards merit and punishes inefficiency. It maintains that “the market” delivers benefits that could never be achieved by planning.

## **TOURISM AND NEOLIBERALISM: EMERGING COUNTRIES PERSPECTIVE**

The tourism sector is tied to neoliberalism forces which favour maximum use of market mechanisms and limited government or state sector. Tourism particularly in the emerging economies is naturally both a product of modernity and a direct remnant of the colonial history. It is linked to modernity in its role as being enabled by, and contributing to globalisation (Reid 2003). Hazbun (2004) argued that international tourism is but one aspect of neoliberalism transforming patterns of economic development across the globe. It is argued in by some scholars that without the advancing tide of neoliberalism and its cousin globalisation on many fronts, tourism as an industry would be nearly impossible (Harrison, 2001). In many emerging economies tourism fitted well to one of the World Bank/IMF Structural Adjustment Programmes (SAP) fundamental aspects of development of exports strategies and a shift to manufacturing and service industry-based economies (Brohman, 1996, Brown, 2000). With the advent of neo-liberalism developing countries increasingly turned to tourism to serve as a catalyst for economic development (Sharpley and Telfer, 2014; Mowforth and Munt, 2015).

Tourism in the emerging economies world has been conceptualised by some scholars as an exploitative form of ‘neo-colonialism’ (Brohman, 1996; Mowforth and Munt, 2015) or ‘leisure imperialism’ (Crick, 1989) entrenching inequality and deepening poverty. Britton (1982) in particular, argues that monopolistic controls over ownership and organisational structure by foreign owners have rendered mass-tourism in developing countries ‘a neo-colonial extension of economic forms of underdevelopment’ reflecting historical inequalities between developed and developing nations (Brohman, 1996).

It could also be argued that the current trends towards globalisation have resulted in a lessening of power of governments to the public and an augmentation of power of a few Multinational Corporations (MNC) and financial institutions compelled only by profitability. Tourism in many developing countries is now dominated by vertically integrated multinational firms and conglomerates generally controlling the three most lucrative components of tourism: securing consumers; transportation; food and accommodation (Brohman 1996; Scheyvens, 2002). On this basis, some scholars challenge the apparent advantages offered by the larger revenue of concentrated, foreign-owned mass tourism compared to small-scale and locally-owned alternative forms of tourism (Brohman, 1996; Scheyvens, 2002).

Furthermore, recent global economic trends also indicate that developing economies are highly vulnerable and are increasingly being affected by processes of

## **Preface**

economic globalisation and increasing dominance and control by the multinational corporations of global markets. As Debbage (1990, p. 515) postulates, "...the increasing oligopolistic structure of the international tourism industry indicates the intrinsic value of the profit cycle in explaining how oligopoly can shape the product-cycle of a resort..." In consequence, the development of tourism, particularly in the Developing World, is increasingly being influenced by unpredictable processes of global oligopoly (i.e. the increasing control of the international tourism market by a small number of multinational companies). The multinational tourism and travel companies can, for instance, shift international tourism demand among various undifferentiated Developing World destinations, depending on emerging profit considerations, thus causing unforeseeable disruption to tourism development and to evolutionary trends of Developing World destination areas.

This book discusses neoliberalism and the tourism sector. Most writings on tourism and neoliberalism is done by western scholars and the views they present tend to be Eurocentric. However, the authors of this book come from the emerging world in Asia, Africa and Latin America, though most of them are scholars based in the developed world. The views in this book represent ideas and opinions from people who have experienced neoliberalism from both a developing and developed world perspective. Though the title of the book is neoliberalism in tourism and hospitality, the authors come from various disciplines including philosophy, economic, business, tourism, environmental studies and sociology.

The book is divided into three sections: the first part of the book presents ideas on tourism and neoliberalism. Dawdal in chapter 1 discusses neoliberalism and tourism in the developing and emerging countries. He proposes that tourism in developing economies is best suited to the neoliberalism policies. His arguments are that in the era of a dearth of resources, and decreasing trends and rationality for state intervention, it is pertinent and significant let the private operators to develop the tourism sector. Maximillano and George in the following chapter discuss neoliberalism as main reason for the rise and popularisation of Thanatourism. They examine the complex interlinkages between neoliberalism, Thana capitalism, and tourism. The chapter interrogates the evolution of neoliberalism and the rise of emergent morbid forms of consumption, which left behind the classic tourism products. The authors hold that tourism as we know is changing towards new horizons and forms that commercialize tragedy for profit. Henama in chapter three discusses the tourism in South Africa and looks at tourism as a neoliberal economic messiah due its potential to create employment and generate income. Tourism development spearheaded by the private companies provided opportunities for employment and also filled the economic void left that was left by the collapse of the mining and agriculture sectors in South Africa.



The chapters in section two of the book take the focus away from tourism to approach neoliberalism from a globalisation perspective. However, the authors of these chapter emphasise the need to international corporations to incorporate local traditions in their operations. Thus, the main discussion in these chapters is on glocalisation. When looking at neoliberalism processes in emerging countries, one can get the impression that it is always external forces, coming from outside, that determine globalisation. However, as has been stressed before, global processes or networks are not disconnected from the local. Ejderyan and Backhaus (2007) argued that Glocalisation expresses the way globalisation dynamics are always reinterpreted locally, leading to an interpenetration of the local and global scales that creates context-dependent outcomes. Micheal in chapter four presents similar argument when discusses Glocalisation as an alternative sustainable strategy for business solutions. His discusses the different theories culture and globalization and argue how the international firms in Nigeria can benefits by focusing on local resources for sustainability. Helmi and Puis in chapter five take similar perspectives like Micheal to discuss how international businesses can create value and competitive advantage through glocalisation. The chapter argues that it is important for multinational organisations to understand foreign markets and make minor amendments to the original products within the parent market to adapt to the local trends and preferences. This will in return provide a competitive advantage in the local markets. Chapter seven by Diaz, Jiminez and Campo focus food tourism with particular interest in wine in Mexico. The authors argue that the culture of wine represents an opportunity for glocal development of the gastronomy sector in Mexico.

The last section of the book focus on neoliberalism from philosophical perspective. The authors of these chapters discuss neoliberalism using theories from the study of philosophy. Antonio discuss contribution of the environmental philosophy to the tourism code ethics. The author attempts to discuss the complex and dialectical connection between ethics and moral, from Aristotle's Ethics and Aristotle's Politics to the contemporary Environmental Philosophy and Environmental Ethics. And their influence in the global code of ethics for tourism. The last two chapters are written by Bilan who introduces the concept of neoliberalism as globalization. In these two chapters the author attempts to justify that globalization is a product neoliberalism that opened up markets in emerging economies for international organizations to exploit thus spreading globalization and turning the world into a global village.

The main purpose of the book was to give a platform for scholars from the emerging market to present their views on neoliberalism. This is achieved in the nine chapters of this book. We hope that the ideas initiated here, will generate further discussion of neoliberalism in tourism in the emerging economies.

## REFERENCES

- Anderson, P. (2000). Renewals. *New Left Review*, 1.
- Britton, S. G. (1982). The political economy of tourism in the third world. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(3), 331–329. doi:10.1016/0160-7383(82)90018-4
- Brohman, J. (1996). New Directions in Tourism for Third World Development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(1), 48–70. doi:10.1016/0160-7383(95)00043-7
- Crick, M. (1989). Representations of International Tourism in the Social Sciences: Sun, Sex, Sights, Savings, and Servility. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 18(1), 307–344. doi:10.1146/annurev.an.18.100189.001515
- Davidson, L., & Sahli, M. (2015). Foreign direct investment in tourism, poverty alleviation, and sustainable development: A review of the Gambian hotel sector. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(2), 167–187. doi:10.1080/09669582.2014.957210
- Debbage, K. G. (1990). Oligopoly and the Resort Cycle in the Bahamas. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(4), 513–527. doi:10.1016/0160-7383(90)90024-L
- Harrison, D. (Ed.). (2001). *Tourism and the less developed world: issues and case studies*. CABI International. doi:10.1079/9780851994338.0000
- Hazbun, W. (2004). Globalization, Reterritorisation and the political economy of tourism in the Middle East. *Geopolitics*, 9(2), 310–341. doi:10.1080/14650040490442881
- George, M. (2016). *How Did We Get Into This Mess?: Politics, Equality, Nature*. London, UK: Verso Books.
- Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (2015). *Tourism and Sustainability: Development, globalisation and new tourism in the Third World*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Scheyvens, R. (2002). *Tourism Development: Empowering Communities*. Harlow, UK: Prentice Hall.
- Sharpley, R., & Telfer, D. (2014). *Tourism and development: concepts and issues*. Sydney, Australia: Channel View Publications.
- Thorsen, D. E. (2009). The Neoliberal Challenge: What is Neoliberalism? (Working paper 10). University of Oslo, Department of Political Science.
- Venugopal, R. (2015). Neoliberalism as concept. *Economy and Society*, 44(2), 165–187. doi:10.1080/03085147.2015.1013356

Section 1

# Neo-Liberalism and Tourism

# Chapter 1

## Developing Tourism Sector With Neoliberalism Orientated Strategies in Countries With Scarce Financial Resources

**Sumesh Singh Dadwal**  
*Northumbria University – London, UK*

### **ABSTRACT**

*This chapter explores the idea of tourism development and discusses ideologies and strategies for developing and least developing countries. The chapters explore the ideology of neoliberalism for developing the tourism as a sector. The chapter argues that in the era of a dearth of resources, and decreasing trends and rationality for state intervention, it is pertinent and significant to develop the tourism sector by following the strategies based on principles and ideals of neoliberalism. The chapter also cautions about some limitations of using neoliberalism as a model of development.*

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-5225-6983-1.ch001

Copyright © 2019, IGI Global. Copying or distributing in print or electronic forms without written permission of IGI Global is prohibited.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Tourism consists of activities or process of tourists. A tourist is someone who travels for 24 hours or more outside the normal country of residence (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). The activities and purpose other than the normal instrumental life of making a living and with a visitor (tourist) motivational purposes of for temporary business, leisure, pleasure, health, entertainment, travel and for experiencing change soon (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). the activities of tourism are related to temporary escapism from routines. The activities are supported by diverse, fragmented and multi-sector industries. The tourism activity is largely dependent on physical social, cultural and historical attributes of the destination. So, a perfect tourism requires a perfect ecosystem of core and allied industries. However, to develop such an ecosystem requires socio, political and economic investment. Tourism is ecosystem requires investment and cannot solely rely on either on private or government sector. It needs the support of a range of stakeholders. The sectoral development requires a developmental model. traditionally economic development had relied on a fight between two extreme poles of capitalism and socialists. However, with less success, there is a need for an efficient Economic model of tourism development. The recently many economies have focused towards neoliberalism as a solution to develop their tourism industry. The sector is at the forefront of the economic development of countries. Hence there is huge interested in developing this sector.

### **The Tourism and Development**

The main objectives of development are sustenance, self- esteem, and freedom. The development includes a development ideology (ends) as well as a development strategy (means). The development ideology could be capitalism- conservative, liberal or social radical (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). Historically the paradigm of development strategies has changed in four phases- modernisation (1950-60), international dependency (1960-170), Economic neoliberalism of markets (1970-180s) and alternative sustainable development (the 1990s). The agents of tourism development can come from public or private sector or both. In developing countries where the private sector has been less developed the role of development of tourism has been undertaken by the government but with lower success. Britton (1992) had developed three tired- structured model of tourism development – headquarters, branch offices and small-scale tourist enterprises in less developed countries. In late a960s, the neoliberal paradigms argued for international aids for developing tourism in the developing and least developed countries. However, very recently the researchers have shifted focus on suitable development in the tourism, and local dependency and development rather than international dependency.

## **Neoliberalism in Tourism**

In the late seventies, four major social economy acts were transforming turning point in the history of socioeconomic policy. China started liberalisation under Deng Xiaoping, major overhaul of US Federal Reserve and monetary policy by Paul Volcker, Margaret Thatcher in the UK and Ronald Reagan in the USA took a new turn in policies aimed at deregulating industry, curbing union power, and liberalisation financial and economic policies at national and international stage (Robertson, 2007). The new era of new-liberalism had started and its ripples start reaching other parts of the world.

This titanic shift from 'state welfare' to 'individual freedom' start changing the discourses of national and international economic and social policies. The shift has transformed how we talk about future of different sectors and industries of a country, be it education, manufacturing, banking or tourism. The industries and government start thinking of being open, international, faster growth without state funding, patents & copyrights, new ways of redistribution of wealth, enhancing competitions and breaking state monopoly. An era of Neoliberalism had arisen, from inefficiencies of socialistic command economies and overexploits of monopolies. This new era has been not entirely new but was sitting on the laps of liberalisation that had been propounded by various philosophers in the past, including Adam Smith's 'invisible hand' or Locke and Hobbes's liberalism. The liberalism stands for individual freedom, non-dependency, possessive individualism and opposite to collectives and state controls. It is seen or made to be seen is considering true democratic spirit.

## **Neoliberalism as A Concept and Economic Model**

The concept of Neoliberalism is loose and shifting in its meaning over the years. It is an ideology, a discourse, a paradigm, a policy, philosophy, faith or a belief and set of ideas and practices of the capitalist system of political governing rationality as a backlash against welfare state (Sparkes 2007; Rustin 2016, cited in Walt, 2017). Historically, neoliberal ideas are rooted in the principles of "classic" liberal economic and political theory, that believes in the notion that the human being as free, free to profit, a limited form of state, possessive individualism, freedom, equality, ownership of private property, self-interest, free trade and the right to accumulate capital (Hall 2011, cited in (Walt, 2017). The ideology gets a setback post-1929 recession and was overtaken by a Keynesian view of state intervention and the welfare state. However, post the 1970s, the liberalism again appeared as -neoliberalism ideology. Though in the 1930s, Freiburg School of Economics argued that only some kind of competition good and not all kind of competition is good and require sight by the state; however,

the idea was not appreciated, until 1970s (Walt, 2017). the post-World War II, many state-led strategies of development gave way to market-oriented neoliberal ones, based on the ten Washington Consensus principles.

The economic policies have argued for liberalism and globalisation based on the principles of ideas such as fiscal discipline, tax reform, reduction in public expenditure market-determined exchange rates, trade liberalisation, an open door to foreign direct investment, privatisation of public service and state-owned enterprises, deregulation and secure private property rights (Marois & Pradello, 2015 cited in Walt, 2017).

The neoliberalism has become such a stealth weapon that it has become a political and social logic of rationality and arguments. Under the curtain of efficiency, productivity, individual freedom, and individual possessiveness; the neoliberalism has very stealthy has percolated into minds, consciousness, and logic of the people such that it is hard to say 'no' to neoliberalism.

The concept claims that what is rationality? and how it is rational that 'pure laws of supply and demand should determine the basis of economic policies! The concept is smart enough to understand Darwinism and so evolve itself to fit the new environment. With the passage of time, more ideas were added to these set of principles, such as independent central banks, inflation targeting, corporate governance, anti-corruption, World Trade Organisation agreements flexible labour markets, "prudent" capital account opening, financial codes and standards, non-intermediate exchange rate regimes, and poverty reduction (Hall, 2011 cited in cited in Walt, 2017). According to Paley (2009 cited in Walt, 2017), the Thatcher and Reagan regimes can be viewed as inaugurating the formal period of neoliberal economic policy dominance.

Neoliberalism has evolved with many variants, not only in USA, UK, Europe as a variant of the social market but also in other forms in other markets. For instance, Chinese growth is attributed to state capitalism, Russian expansion is linked to oligarchic state approach and the In Latin America it took the form of monetarist experiments.

Neo-liberalism slightly differs from liberalism and argues that some state interventions are necessary for the efficient working of Adam Smith's 'Invisible hand' (Robertson, 2007). This means the state should govern just to protect the rights to trade, right to choose, private property, and freedom of the market etc. The one cause of new liberalism was that in many countries policymakers had used Keynesian socioeconomic policies to institutionalise demand management, collective bargaining, deficit spending, monopoly pricing, state controls and manage cyclical monetary and fiscal policies (Robertson, 2007).

In the 1970s, post-recession recovery in many countries in trade- USA, Japan and Europe saw their domestic demand saturated and were forced to look for international export and expansion. The international expansion needed an ecosystem of international liberalised policies and fighting against import substitution policies of third world countries. The replacement of human effort with technology, and government debts means a rise in unemployment and thus further fall in domestic demands. MNCs started thinking of offshoring their operations and outsourcing manufacturing, as the inherent contradictions of capitalism became more and more apparent the national governments started feeling the heat of problems and concern of national employment and social policies.

Some contemporary authors such as Hayek and Milton Friedman have convincingly argued against drawbacks of state welfare economics and favoured the liberal economic policies. The new liberal policies are seen better than state policies as the latter is hypothesised that state should intervene for increasing wages, for full employment and thus consumer demand that GDP expansion. On the other hand, neoliberalism propounded for control of inflation, efficient cost cutting, leading to higher individual profits that are the real motor of economic growth (Robertson, 2007).

## **Neo-Liberalism and Tourism: Growth of Hotel and Tourism Industry**

There are many important ways in which tourism sectors in the developed and developing economies have been transformed by neo-liberal policies with varying success. In many countries the policies are unevenly and often half-heartedly implemented.

The expansion of globalised neoliberal capitalism has driven communities to seek innovative ways to commodify natural resources as it to allow states and communities a way to both profit from and save environments by casting tourism as an ecological service (Keul, 1914)

The boom of global hotel and tourism industry, uncured in parallel with growth in other industry in general and global financial sector capitalism (Buades, 2010). the positive social image of tourism as an “industry without chimneys” and a “passport to development” is main arguments for great future of this industry (Buades, 2010). The sector can develop by participating in strategic alliances and employing all kinds of financial investment strategies. The win-win strategies for States and MNCs is only possible due to fruits of neoliberalism.



The free flow of capital and finance without government intervention through a network of tax havens (from the City of London to the Cayman Islands via the New York Stock Exchange) is a source of abundant funds for the world-dominating MNCs has been possible due to neoliberalism's policies. In the year 2000, the 140-member states of the World Trade Organization produced the General Agreement on Trade in Services (GATS) to promote globalisations with a new framework which supplants national economic, environmental or social laws and regulations and is entirely favourable to MNCs investments. However, GATS ignored an aspect of "equitable distribution of wealth," "environmental sustainability," "fiscal transparency," "environmental conservation" or "participation of local communities" and support and level playing fields for local players (Buades, 2010). At times local population has perceived that MNCs exploit local resources, hoodwink local governments to agree for big bargains in return for investments. For instance, In Jamaica, when faced with public and governmental pressure to comply with the law, many MNCs had opted to withdraw from new developments or put them on holding them (Buades, 2010).

In tourism sector in the age of neoliberalism, the role of government is changing in form of restructuring of governance during both roles back and roll out phases of development of the sector. As government institutions are shifting their activities from regulating economies to facilitating economic opportunities, new actors have entered the governance arena - in public-private partnerships, or pre-existing actors at sub-national scales are gaining more responsibility - local and regional governments (Mosedale, 2003).

In 1973, post a coup in Chile, a pure neo-liberal experimented with a withdrawal of state welfare policies in favour of privatisations of national resources, free trade policies and the opening of the national economy to the international market (Robertson, 2007). In the 1980s neo-liberal policies in form of restructuring: deregulation, competitiveness, and privatisation were imposed on developing countries in Latin America and sub-Saharan Africa by active intervention of the IMF and World Bank. Deregulation means removing of the role of the state in the economy, except as a guarantor of the free movement of capital and profits. Competitiveness meant to let the market work freely and getting rid of state's bureaucratic procedural and welfare interventions. Privatisation is defined as selling the public-sector business, services, and agencies to profit-oriented individuals and shareholders (Robertson, 2007).

The powers of labour unions and welfare state policies were curtailed subsequently in favour of these three principles of deregulation, competitiveness, and privatisation in many countries. Digital technologies and the internet enable the rapid movement of ideas, images, finance, goods and services across space. The neoliberals argue that if the markets must work efficiently and effectively then it is important that they should be free to respond to signals of right cost, price, quality, quantity, availability, flexibility etc. and the state intervention often makes this automatic

response of 'invisible hand' slow or at times no response at all. Neo-liberalism found sufficiently broad appeal—particularly in the ideas of resources efficiency, individual freedom, individual rights, choice, and democratic values. They could have influenced public discourses with these kinds of arguments in favour of liberal economic policies. They could resonant with poor, diverse people as well as ruling class with these ideas of freedom, equal rights, freedoms, and democratic values.

Neo-liberalism, however, met with its own internal problems like, market imperfections, market failures, economic disparities, social dislocation, economic and social exclusion, non-sustainable development, environmental pollutions, social unrest and social fascisms ((Dale and Robertson, 2004 cited in (Robertson, 2007). Thus, post-Thatcher (UK) and Reagan (USA) eras the neoliberalism changed its face under the leadership of Clinton (1992, USA) and Blair (1997, UK). Thus, emerged a third way or consensual complimentary way between the state and the market economies. The new face of new liberalism argues for more instruments to develop social capital, not just GDP. Social capital the internal social and cultural coherence of society that glues the society together rather than divide it. It means a true independence of the communities - Stamata- self-governed system driven by values, norms, customs and cultures of the communities. Such a system could achieve growth through social cohesion.

## **THE WORKING MODEL FOR DEVELOPING TOURISM WITH NEOLIBERALISM**

The question is whether neo-liberalism is a good development model? Does this deliver long-term gain despite the short-term pain? And are the gains widely distributed without inequality and poverty?

There are many pieces of evidence to suggest that the globalisation of neo-liberalism has not delivered greater equality and reduce poverty across the globe and increase in levels of inequality within a significant number of developed countries - measured through the GINI coefficient (Robertson, 2007).

There are many pieces of evidence where neoliberalism model in its various forms has delivered results in the tourism sector. In South Africa, Nyahunzvi (cited in Mosedale, 2003) found that as the state budgets declined in managing national parks in South Africa, many of service provisions in the parks were privatised with success. The commercial of services in the national conservation parks leads to expansion of the market and development of nature-based ecotourism. In India, tourism was a key sector under neoliberal policies. During the liberalisation in India, the government had retailed some aspects of public services apparatus based on British colonial policies and other aspects were modified in line with structural

adjustment suited by IMF and world bank. Indian government worked with private players to develop ecotourism as a global strategy of capital gains from natural resources. In the USA the transformation of city centers was undertaken by following the principles of neoliberalism. In Jordan, the government successfully promoted tourism by applying neoliberalism policies by creating special economic zones rather than opening the whole nation to the neoliberal phase. In Ghana, the tourism sector was under public sector and was not growing until the state implemented some neoliberalism policies in some areas and let the tourism's product be 'commodities'. The government controls on the production of some authentic weaved products led to non-growth and attraction of this sector to a new generation. hence, there was an argument for neoliberalism based policies in Ghana.

## **Tourism Neoliberalism and National Development**

The tourism is not only a natural domestic but also an export industry. It contributes to the local and national economy. It is also seen as an effective source of income and employment. For many national economies with lack of technologies, limited industrial sector, a few national resources, and dependence on foreign aid, tourism can be the main sector for earning foreign exchange in addition to microvan g domestic employment.

As international and domestic tourism continues to grow, there is stronger evidence that tourism, if properly managed, can make a significant contribution to tackling poverty and fostering development, especially in rural areas, where most of the poor live. During 2001-10 the tourist arrivals in the 48 least developed countries tripled to 17 million people and leading to a growth of tourism growth in these countries from \$2.8 B to more than \$10 b in 2010 (UNWTO, 2018). International tourist arrivals grew by a remarkable 7% in 2017 to reach a total of 1,322 million and expected to continue to grow from 4-5% during 2018 (UNWTO, 2018). The trends in tourism growth have been positive over the years as well geographically (see Table 1 and Figure 1). the growth during 2016- 17 increased from 2% to 8.4% in different parts of the world, with Asia and Africa leading at around 8% growth rate (UNWTO, 2018).

Some studies still argue that despite such a good growth the international tourism is skewed towards and in-between developed and fast developing countries- North-North countries and is lesser in low developed third world countries or less developed and least developed countries. (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). As can be seen from Table 2, even in 2017, the share of tourist arrivals into Africa (4.7%), South America (5.5%) and Middle East (4.4%) were quite low as compared to taken by Europe (50.85). The cause of low development in the certain parts of the world is not due to political factors but also economic and infrastructure of tourism and allied an

## Developing Tourism Sector With Neoliberalism Orientated Strategies

Industries. The government in those less developed economies has lack of resources and the potential can be exploited by using either neoliberalism or social economy. Hence clearly there is a case of neoliberalism in the tourism sector.

The tourism sector has been growing over years.

Being in the export-oriented industry, this industry often gets supports from international aid agencies for infrastructure investment. For example, European Union (EU) provided resources to Africa, Carrabin and Pacific for development of infrastructure, human resources, products, and market development in tourism sector under LEADER and Lome Programmes. Similarly, the World Bank has funded Nusa Due resort in Bali (US\$ 14.3 MI), Pomum lake resort Korea (US\$ 25 MI), Puerto Resort in Dominique republic (US\$ 25 MI), and Tourism related projects in Turkey, (US\$ 26 MI) etc. Similarly, international financial cooperation (IFC) provides aid for creating hotel infrastructure in transzonal economies. Also, Multilateral Investment Guarantee Agency (MIGA) works to ensure the flow of foreign investment into and between developing countries. On similar lines, IMF and world bank also favour the development of tourism sector (R. Sharpley and D.J. Telfer, 2002). However, to avail such aids, the host countries need to adopt neoliberal economic policies.

Table 1. International tourist arrival in world market

International Tourist Arrivals by (Sub)region	Full year													Share		Change Monthly/quarterly data series												
																(percentage change over same period of the previous year)												
	2000	2005	2010	2013	2014	2015	2016*	2016*	2014	10/15	2017*													2016				
	(million)							(%)	(%)	YTD	Q1	Q2	Q3	Jun	Jul	Aug	Sep	Oct	Q1	Q2	Q3	Q4						
World	674	860	953	1,094	1,130	1,191	1,237	190	4.6	3.9	6.8	3.6	9.1	6.9	8.6	6.4	7.2	7.0	5.9	7.5	1.4	3.1	5.1					
Advanced economies*	424	470	517	589	623	654	685	55.4	5.0	4.8	5.9	4.1	8.4	5.3	7.1	4.4	5.5	6.4	4.3	8.3	2.8	4.0	6.3					
Emerging economies*	250	339	437	505	516	537	552	44.6	4.1	2.8	7.6	3.2	10.0	9.1	11.0	9.6	8.8	7.8	7.9	6.6	-0.4	1.7	3.8					
<b>By UNWTO regions:</b>																												
Europe	306.6	453.2	489.0	566.4	576.2	603.6	618.8	50.0	4.8	2.5	8.4	3.9	11.3	8.9	11.5	8.4	8.8	9.8	6.6	7.4	-0.3	1.1	4.9					
Northern Europe	44.8	59.9	62.8	67.2	70.8	75.4	80.0	6.5	6.5	6.1	5.6	7.8	8.6	3.0	7.2	2.7	2.9	3.6	2.2	10.1	2.8	5.5	7.3					
Western Europe	139.7	141.7	154.4	171.5	175.3	181.4	181.5	14.7	3.5	0.0	6.6	2.1	12.2	5.5	10.9	4.8	7.3	4.0	4.1	6.3	-3.0	-1.6	5.3					
Central/Eastern Eur.	69.6	95.3	98.5	126.7	115.3	121.7	127.1	10.3	5.6	4.4	3.8	1.8	4.8	4.2	5.7	4.2	4.6	3.8	3.4	6.5	2.4	3.1	2.1					
Southern/Medit. Eur.	132.6	156.4	173.3	201.0	214.8	225.1	230.2	18.6	4.8	2.3	13.3	5.7	14.8	15.4	16.2	15.1	13.5	18.3	11.1	7.9	-0.6	0.9	5.4					
- of which EU-28	330.5	367.9	394.3	433.4	453.6	477.7	499.6	40.4	5.3	4.6	7.9	5.0	11.3	7.4	10.5	6.7	7.3	8.5	5.3	8.6	2.1	3.4	6.8					
Asia and the Pacific	110.4	154.7	208.2	254.2	269.5	284.0	305.0	24.7	5.4	7.7	5.4	5.8	6.1	4.1	5.8	3.2	4.9	4.4	6.3	8.5	8.5	9.4	6.2					
North-East Asia	58.3	85.9	111.5	127.0	136.3	142.1	154.3	12.5	4.3	8.6	2.8	-5.3	2.3	0.9	0.6	0.2	0.9	1.5	3.6	8.9	8.6	10.3	6.8					
South-East Asia	36.3	49.0	70.5	94.3	97.0	104.2	110.8	9.0	7.4	6.3	7.8	5.6	9.4	8.0	11.4	7.0	9.5	7.6	9.4	10.1	8.1	9.4	5.3					
Oceania	9.6	10.9	11.5	12.6	13.3	14.3	15.6	1.3	7.3	9.5	6.6	4.8	11.6	4.9	9.9	5.0	8.3	1.6	4.4	9.9	9.4	10.6	8.0					
South Asia	6.1	8.3	14.7	29.3	22.9	23.4	25.2	2.0	2.3	7.6	10.2	9.7	13.4	7.2	13.1	3.4	7.4	11.2	12.5	10.3	9.0	3.5	5.5					
Americas	128.2	133.3	150.1	167.6	181.9	192.7	199.7	16.1	5.9	-3.7	2.8	1.1	5.7	2.1	3.4	1.8	2.2	2.2	1.5	7.2	0.6	4.1	2.9					
North America	91.5	99.9	99.5	110.2	120.9	127.5	130.9	10.6	5.5	2.7	1.6	-0.4	4.0	1.2	2.4	0.7	1.4	1.8	0.5	5.3	0.0	2.4	3.4					
Caribbean	17.1	18.8	19.5	21.1	22.3	24.1	25.2	2.0	8.1	4.7	3.7	0.8	7.8	2.5	7.3	3.3	3.9	-0.8	4.6	7.2	3.2	5.0	2.3					
Central America	4.3	6.3	7.8	9.1	9.6	10.2	10.7	0.9	6.8	4.9	3.6	-0.8	10.1	1.4	1.8	0.2	0.4	4.7	0.3	9.6	2.9	6.4	0.6					
South America	15.3	18.3	23.2	27.2	29.1	30.8	32.8	2.7	5.9	6.7	6.7	5.6	10.2	6.2	5.6	7.3	6.1	5.2	4.3	11.7	-0.1	11.8	2.0					
Africa	26.2	34.6	50.4	54.7	55.0	53.4	57.0	4.6	-2.9	6.6	7.9	-4.6	10.0	8.6	8.6	8.5	10.2	6.7	8.9	6.6	-0.8	8.8	8.9					
North Africa	10.2	13.9	19.7	20.7	20.4	18.0	18.9	1.5	-12.0	5.0	13.3	14.2	14.0	11.9	12.7	9.8	17.3	7.3	15.5	-4.8	-7.9	13.2	15.9					
Subsaharan Africa	16.0	20.9	30.7	34.0	34.6	35.4	38.1	3.1	2.4	7.5	5.0	1.0	7.9	6.0	6.5	7.2	4.4	6.5	5.8	11.6	3.4	5.7	6.1					
Middle East	22.4	33.7	55.4	59.8	55.9	57.0	55.6	4.5	2.0	-2.4	4.7	-1.7	10.9	-4.9	2.2	7.1	8.2	0.4	8.7	0.1	-8.4	-5.3	5.2					

Source: World Tourism Organization (UNWTO) ©

(Data as collected by UNWTO November 2017)

\* Classification based on the International Monetary Fund (IMF), see the Statistical Annex of the IMF World Economic Outlook of April 2016, page 146, at [www.imf.org/external/ma/ca.aspx?id=25](http://www.imf.org/external/ma/ca.aspx?id=25).

See box at page 'Annex-1' for explanation of abbreviations and signs used

Figure 1. Trends in the tourist arrival in different regions

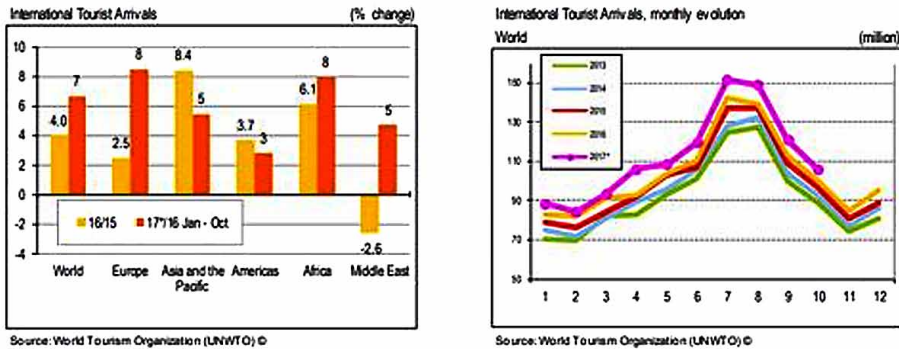


Table 2. International tourists' arrivals in 2017 distribution by world market

Region	Tourists in Millions	Percentage
Europe	671.1	50.8%
Asia and Pacific	324	24.5%
North America	134	10.1%
Rest of the America	73	5.5%
Africa	62.1	4.7%
Middle east	58	4.4%
Total	1322.2	

Source: (WTTC, 2017)

As per world travel and tourism council (WTTC 2017, see Table 3 and Figure 2), the travel and tourism sector has directly (US\$ 2,306.0bn -3.1% of total GDP) as well indirectly 9 US\$7,613.3bn -10.2% of GDP) contributed to the economic GDPs and employment (108,741,000 jobs - 3.6% of total employment, and 292,220,000 jobs - 9.6% of total employment).

The tourism sector is considered as one of the best ways of redistribution of the wealth from one part of the world to other part and subsequently, it has trickle-down effects. The tourism is a sector that mostly utilises natural or historical resources and free infrastructure. Further, some authors also argue that the sector does not face trade barriers in the international market. However, there are some barriers like

**Developing Tourism Sector With Neoliberalism Orientated Strategies**

*Table 3. International tourists contribution world market*

Contribution	Year 2016	Est in Year 2027
GDP: DIRECT CONTRIBUTION	USD2,306.0bn (3.1% of total GDP)	USD3,537.1bn (3.5% of total GDP)
GDP: TOTAL CONTRIBUTION	USD7,613.3bn (10.2% of GDP)	USD11,512.9bn (11.4% of GDP) in 2027.
EMPLOYMENT: DIRECT CONTRIBUTION	108,741,000 jobs (3.6% of total employment)	138,086,000 jobs (4.0% of total employment)
EMPLOYMENT: TOTAL CONTRIBUTION	292,220,000 jobs (9.6% of total employment)	381,700,000 jobs in 2027 (11.1% of total).

Source: (WTTC, 2017)

*Figure 2. Direct and indirect contribution to different industries by the Tourism sector*

<b>DIRECT</b>			
Travel & Tourism contribution			
<b>COMMODITIES</b>			
• Accommodation			
• Transportation			
• Entertainment			
• Attractions			
<b>INDUSTRIES</b>			
	Indirect T&T Contribution	Induced contribution (Spending of direct and Indirect Employees)	
• Accommodation services contribution (spending of direct and contribution)	T&T investment spending	Food and beverages	Total T&T contribution
• Food & beverage services indirect employees)	Government Collective and T&T Spending	• Recreation	To GDP
• Retail Trade	Impact of purchase from suppliers	• Clothing	To Employment
• Transportation services		• Housing	
• Cultural, sports & recreational		• Household goods	
<b>SOURCES OF SPENDING</b>			
• Residents' domestic T&T suppliers			
• Businesses' domestic travel Spending			
• Individual government T&T spending			

immigration rules, transportation and air links and local infrastructure bottlenecks and concerns for tourists' safety, etc., or controls by MNCs, (Sharpley & Telfer, 2002). For instance, although the tourism economy is a free economy, however, the suspension of Lufthansa airlines to Kathmandu in Nepal had adversely affected the flow of international tourists to that country. Also, the development of tourism in any country requires provisions for a variety of goods and services for the tourist at the destinations. The goods and services include transportation facilities, local infrastructure, utilities, accommodations, foods & beverages, souvenirs, and support of supplier and allied industries. Thus, in addition to core tourism product, one needs to develop allied industries like food and farming, constructions, transportations, local governance and so on. All these require huge investment and innovation, and hence there is a clear case for neoliberalism in tourism.

Thus, the trend now is toward disengagement from tourism by the public sector and more private-public partnership, especially at the local level (Arch\_ived, 2008). Further, under budgetary constraints, a public sector-led marketing organization is often less entrepreneurial and effective than the private sector. In most countries, semi-public tourism organizations have been established or recognized to promote international tourism.

## **CONCLUSION**

The tourism sector is a tool of economic development by not only for the developed countries but also developing, emerging, and least developed countries. As per World Travel and Tourism Council (WTTC 2017) the travel and tourism sector has directly (US\$2,306.0bn -3.1% of total GDP) as well indirectly (US\$ 7,613.3bn -10.2% of GDP) contributed to the economic GDPs. There is often debate on ideology and strategy for development. This paper argues that neo-liberalisation as an ideological thought that is based on the principles of deregulation, competitiveness, and privatisation has been already effectively applied by many countries across the world with good success. However, the debate is still an ongoing discourse in less developed countries with a range of arguments about neoliberalism and thus commoditising of tourism products and thus lost opportunities of developing a sustainable tourism in the least developed and developing countries of the World.

## REFERENCES

- Arch\_loved. (2008). Neoliberalism-World tourism [blog]. Retrieved Feb 15, 2018, from <http://neoliberalism-worldtourism.blogspot.co.uk/>
- Buades, J. (2010). The Role of Tourism Corporations: The Neoliberal Attack on Local and Global Democracy. *Tourism Watch*. Retrieved Feb 5, 2018, from <https://www.tourism-watch.de/en/content/role-tourism-corporations-neoliberal-attack-local-and-global-democracy>
- Keul, A. (1914). Tourism neoliberalism and the swamp as an enterprise. *AREA, Royal Geographical Society*, 46(3). Retrieved from <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/area.12106/full>
- Mosedale, J. (2003). Tourism and neoliberalism: states, the economy, and society. Retrieved Feb 12, 2018, from [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/282800882\\_Tourism\\_and\\_neoliberalism\\_states\\_the\\_economy\\_and\\_society](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/282800882_Tourism_and_neoliberalism_states_the_economy_and_society)
- Robertson, S. L. (2007). Remaking the World: Neo-liberalism and the Transformation of Education and Teachers' Labour. Centre for Globalisation, Education and Societies, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK. Retrieved Jan 5, 2018, from <http://www.bris.ac.uk/education/people/academicStaff/edslr/publications/17slr>
- Sharpley, R., & Telfer, D. J. (2002). *Aspects of Tourism - Tourism, and Development-concepts and Issues*. Channel View Publication. Retrieved Feb 10, 2018, from [https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=Wvo1sIjZH3UC&pg=PA56&lpg=PA56&dq=neoliberalism+in+tourism&source=bl&ots=rULvk3sdA&sig=U1p2e4GY-MnEOOIubeDGfUWk0hs&hl=en&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwic7J-Y2K\\_ZAhWMmbQKHdDoC6IQ6AEIZjAH#v=onepage&q=neoliberalism%20in%20tourism&f=false](https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=Wvo1sIjZH3UC&pg=PA56&lpg=PA56&dq=neoliberalism+in+tourism&source=bl&ots=rULvk3sdA&sig=U1p2e4GY-MnEOOIubeDGfUWk0hs&hl=en&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwic7J-Y2K_ZAhWMmbQKHdDoC6IQ6AEIZjAH#v=onepage&q=neoliberalism%20in%20tourism&f=false)
- UNWTO. (2018). UNWTO. Retrieved Feb 12, 2018, from <http://www2.unwto.org/>
- Walt, J. L. (2017). Neoliberalism and education: A reformational-pedagogical perspective (part 1). *Koers*, 82(1). Retrieved Jan 6, 2018, from [http://www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?script=sci\\_arttext&pid=S2304-85572017000100002](http://www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S2304-85572017000100002)
- WTTC. (2017). Travel and Tourism - Economic Impact 2017 World. Retrieved Feb 14, 2018, from <https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/regions-2017/world2017.pdf>



## Chapter 2

# The End of Tourism as We Know It: Neoliberalism, Thana- Capitalism, and Touring

**Maximiliano Emanuel Korstanje**  
*University of Palermo, Argentina*

**Babu George**  
*Fort Hays State University, USA*

### **ABSTRACT**

*The present chapter posits an interesting discussion revolving around the term Thana Capitalism, which was originally formulated in earlier works. Originally formulated to serve as an opposite alternative against neo-pragmatism, neoliberalism toyed with the belief that the world can be united through the consumption and free trade. During 80s and 90s decades, the theory of development adopted tourism as an efficient instrument to struggle with poverty. Under the auspices of neoliberalism, modern tourism not only paved the ways for an “Kantian eternal peace,” but also conducted a much deeper process of democratization beyond the borders of Western civilization. After the recent, stock market crisis in 2008, tourism not only was placed in jeopardy by the advance of jihadist terrorism but mutated towards more morbid forms of consumption, which made from human suffering as a tantalizing criterion of attraction. Thana-Tourism, War tourism, Dark Tourism or slum tourism are indicators that the society is changing towards new horizons.*

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-5225-6983-1.ch002

Copyright © 2019, IGI Global. Copying or distributing in print or electronic forms without written permission of IGI Global is prohibited.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Neoliberalism is the re-embodiment of the 19th-century ideals associated with the laissez-faire economic liberalism. By definition it is neo, meaning it has to keep renewing and reinventing its meaning in accordance with the changing times. Neoliberalism institutionalized the original ideas and branded them with terms like deregulation, privatization, free trade, etc. Classical liberalist economists would not have approved corporations, despite recognizing the downside of leaving everything to the “invisible hand”. They did not anticipate some higher-level authorities (e.g. shareholders) determining the fate of employees in the workplace as the face of liberalism in the future.

Just as neoliberalism meant the curtailment of individual freedom for the elites and the corporations controlled by them, neoliberal forms of tourism have brought in similar changes. It envisages “environmental bubbles,” within the protective boundaries of which, tourists can experience host cultures. It also created classes of people with different degrees and kinds of licenses to the common property resources such as mountains, forests, and beach sides. Classical liberalists would have considered such resources available for the free pursuit of leisure for everyone. The spirit of tourism is liberal, but its conduct in our times is neoliberal.

The shift from liberal philosophies to neoliberal forms of tourism is driven at least partly by the ideology of Thana Capitalism. Death, destruction, and doomsday projections drive our society and its aspirations (Korstanje & George, 2012). The birth of various neoliberal forms of tourism could be seen in the light of this. This paper examines the complex interlinkages between neoliberalism, Thana Capitalism, and tourism. The present chapter interrogates on the evolution of neoliberalism and the rise of emergent morbid forms of consumption, which left behind the classic tourism products. The thesis authors hold here is that tourism, as we know, is changing towards new horizons and forms.

## **THE LIBERAL MAN**

For the sake of clarity, liberalism poses a great challenge to social sciences today. In part, each discipline has developed its own interpretation of neoliberalism, which sometimes contrasts with others. As Richard Pells (1989) puts it, though neoliberalism enthralled the concept of liberty as a main discourse within the troops, no less true is that the definition is subject to change decade after decade. Originally liberals not only supported the Soviet Union as the last shelter against the advance of Adolf

Hitler, but also Marxism was cataloged in the decades to come as the main dangers to liberal democracies. This dichotomy is expressed by the arrival of McCarthyism inaugurating a new conservative age as never before (Pells 1989). At a closer look, E. Hobsbawm (1995) observed that the history of twentieth-century is torn between capitalism and Marxism glossing over their commonalities and complicities in the configuration of modern nation states. In view of this, A. Stilz (2009) presents a more innovative book which is entitled *Liberal Loyalty*. She holds the thesis that the liberal reasoning is inextricably intertwined with the nationhood and state. From thinkers of the caliber of Hobbes to Levi Strauss, social sciences have theorized on the reason why the society keeps united. While the possibilities of some claims or discrepancies were always there, framers paid heed to the needs of inventing a meta-discourse which fostered the social cohesion of the nation. In this respect, Stilz argues convincingly that the citizens of modern democracies are simply educated to think while they work and pay taxes, they are good boys. This logic leads to a philosophical dilemma because citizens are hand-tied to prevent the passing of unjust laws. The Hobbesian conception of state signals to the doctrine of security as the platform all citizens agree, the collective rights are redeemed in view of a much broader goal. She proffers an interesting model to understand the loyalties of modern citizens to nation states, escaping to the ethical burdens of what politicians do. For the sake of clarity, nationality plays a leading role in limiting the loyalties of individuals into a specific law-making. Citizens should be prone to abide their laws but only when they stay in their native soil. While traveling, they are subject to new jurisdictions and laws. As Stilz (2009) observed, the concrete discourse of liberalism succumbs when we imagine the situations some unjust laws, which are passed in the parliament with a majority should be abided. At this point, the principle of redistributive justice not only does not work but also turns counterproductive. If citizens are morally pressed to obey a new emerging dictator (as Hitler, or Stalin), how do they supposedly behave? are they reliable for the political crimes of their new regime or simply companions of such immoral acts?

In order to sort with this quandary, liberal thinking claimed the notion of civil obligation, which starts from the premises citizens are fully invested to abide by the law. Based on a taken-for-granted definition of nation-states, liberals alternate a proportion of nationalism with the idea of democracy, going towards a new alternative dubbed as “liberal-nationalism. As the previous argument given, while states are legally oriented to protect the shared tradition (heritage), citizens compromise to respect the necessary reciprocity -through tax payment or abiding the current law- to reinforce the authority of nation-states. To put this in bluntly, the success and expansion of neoliberalism depend not only on the imposition of western cultural values to other cultures but also in the belief that egalitarianism and democracy should be defined as universal values (Stilz, 2009).

In a seminal book, *They Thought they were free*, M. Mayer (2013) offers an interesting point revolving around Nazi Germany and Hitler's discourses about liberty. Departing from his own travels to German, the author describes his experiences during the lodge, giving interesting insights into how widely-spread Nazism indoctrinated the minds of citizens. Hitler recovered the lost national self-esteem after Germany's recovery insofar he was a success in manipulating allegorically the sense of liberty by the introduction of ancient Norse Sagas and other elements of lore. The new degree of comfort at the disposal of Germans was sufficient for Hitler to impose a new regime where dissidence was gradually annihilated. The Other whatever it founds was labeled as an enemy of the nation, the Fuhrer, or as an obstacle towards the greatness Germany deserved.

As earlier discussed, Toby James has widely validated the assumption of modern democracy far from being cleaner forms of government represents and protects the interests of the elite. Democracy does not suffice to answer to the point who really govern, but as James adheres, citizens sometimes remain familiar with the legal manipulation of the necessary rules to win elections (James, 2012). Finally, over the recent decade's neoliberalism has situated as the best metaphor of egalitarianism, multiculturalism, and democracy. However further discussion should be done.

## **FROM NEOREALISM TO NEOLIBERALISM**

Even if the term neoliberalism has amply used within many contexts, little is known about the nature of what really neoliberalism is. This begs a more than an interesting question, what are the differences and commonalities of neorealism and neoliberalism?

At a preliminary stage, neorealism is defined as the conceptual theory which coined in the international relations fields, indicates the power is the centerpiece of politics. As K Waltz (2000) noted, neorealism emphasizes on human nature as a platform towards pleasure maximization or goal achieving, while states enter in a complete competition in dispute with further degrees of power. States are marked by an internal drive for surviving which leads stronger nations to intervene to avoid further harms in their own soil. For some reasons, neorealism and precautionary platform were inevitably entwined. In this context, neoliberalism goes in the opposite direction as a reactionary theory which signals to the needs of the state to achieve "absolute gains" instead of relative gains. Like the neoliberal economic ideology, which forged the Washington consensus, neoliberalism is based on the games theory. Adherents to this theory claim that states are oriented to cooperate with others while further gains are perceived or at best presented. At the time coordinated efforts are crystallized in more stable institutions, the Kantian peace was not a utopia. This point alludes to international free trade as a valid organizer of inter-state relations as well

democracy populates the basis for a complex interdependence among states (Keohane, 1990; 1993; Powell 1994). The quest for security is pitted against the autonomy of nations, this is as Powell writes, one of the differences between neoliberalism and neorealism. The discussion centers on the role of governance in the international political theory. Following this, neoliberalism focuses on the emergency of adopting free trade to keep the world united and in peace. In retrospect, although this project emphasized on the urgency of creating solid liberal institutions, the successive failures in forging stable economies paved the ways towards new horizons where neoliberalism adjusted the original goals and mutated into new forms. In this respect, the exegetes of the free market and neoliberal discourses replied energetically that the problems of Third World to reach economic maturation depended on many factors, but two were of importance to discuss. At first glance, corruption as a mainstream cultural value in undemocratic societies accelerated the decline of what specialists dubbed as “failed states.” Secondly and most important, the failure of neoliberalism -through IMF and World Bank- corresponded with the incapacity of governments in dismantling the extractive institutions, which curbed the potentialities of emerging economies (Friedman, 2010, 2012; Robinson & Acemoglu, 2012; Rawls, 2005). Instead, others voices exerted a radical criticism of neoliberalism as the combination of strategic factors that led to economic decentralization and workforce’s exploitation. In parallel, the material asymmetries between the haves and the have-nots enlarge the center-periphery dependence (Chomsky, 1999; McChesney, 1999; Brohman, 1995; Taylor, 2002; Gunder, 2010; Baudrillard, 2016). Of course, it creates a paradoxical situation simply because while in the US liberalism was strongly used to guide the war against tyrannies, in other continents as Latin America the term obtained a pejorative connotation, more oriented to legitimate the bloody dictatorships happened in the 70’s decade (Caraway, Cook & Crowley, 2015). The importance of discussing neoliberalism equals the limitations and speculations revolving around the term; while social imaginary has made of this a buzzword. But neoliberalism suggests two important assumptions. On the one hand, the term lacks the necessary consensus within academic cradles (Giroux, 2002; Cahill, 2013; Springer, 2010, 2011, 2012; Korstanje & Skoll, 2011). On another, one might speculate that liberalism has played a starring role in the configuration of neoliberal theories (Martell, 2007). Equally important, while neoliberalism is often associated it should not be limited to globalization in the strict sense of the term (Luke, 2001).

One of the experts in the field, Joseph Grieco (1993) wrote, “Neoliberals argue that they accept the salience of anarchy, which they say means that, because of the absence of effective international government, states fear being cheated by others. Yet realist argues that anarchy means that states fear not just being cheated but

also being dominated or even destroyed by others. As a result, while neoliberals see states as rational egoist interested in positionalists interested in achieving and maintaining relative capabilities sufficient to remain secure and independent in the self-help context of international anarchy” (Grieco, 1993, p. 303)

Steve Smith (1997) calls the attention to the epistemological problems that the international relations theory experiences today. To some extent, it is very hard to define neoliberalism and neorealism as two opposing contrasts, when really both shares several commonalities. While realism and neorealism still dominating the future of the discipline, neoliberalism fails to breach with Europeaness or the American ethnocentrism which subordinate other cultures to what is important for capitalist societies. In the middle of this mayhem, tourism plays a vital role in the configuration of a transforming landscape, which aims to recycle old structures and economies into a new globalized economy of signs (Lash & Urry, 1993)

## **NEOLIBERALISM AND TOURISM**

To start this section, one might pose the question of what tourism is. And what has been its historical influence in the shape of globalization?

One of the most authoritative voices in the fields of sociology, Dean MacCannell equals tourism to the primitive totem, which is the architect of political authority. Taking his cue from Marxism and French sociology, he toys with the belief that the process of secularization eroded not only the social cohesion in urban cities but also the roots of religion, which sets the pace to emerging forms of consumption as tourism a leisure (MacCannell, 1973, 1992, 2001). From an opposite angle, Urry left an interesting legacy to expand the current understanding of tourism as derived from the industrial revolution. He acknowledges that mobilities have opened the doors to the acceleration of speed which though connecting disperse geographical points represents a serious cost for human liberty. To set an example, the industry of cars has grown exponentially year to year replacing other forms of movements as the train or public transport. This suggests that “automobility is thus a system that coerces people into an intense flexibility” (Urry, 2004, p. 28), albeit it liberates the power of eyes to subordinate aesthetically the landscape. As a source of freedom, citing Urry’s terms, automobility facilitates drivers to move elsewhere but always limited into a system of roads and ways, which are prefixed in favor of a structure of auto-space. To put things in other terms, Urry defines automobility as a Frankenstein-created monster which paradoxically emancipates drivers to new sensations and landscapes but constraining them into specific time-compressed ways (Urry, 2004).

The arrival of modernity caused serious changes not only in the means of production - this is the point Urry and MacCannell agrees - but in the monopolization of manpower and workforce. The sense of mobilities results from the adoption of gazing as an articulator of agency and the structure. The analogy of gaze, which is borrowed from the medical discourse, is used by Urry as a tug-of-war in the discussion that spotlighted the arrival of a new aesthetic reflexivity. While gazing supposes the introduction of recent psychological needs, Urry adds, no less true is that doctors revise their patients to find a problem, a pathology which should be first diagnosed and corrected. Since the medical eye starts from the principle of scarcity by offering a solution, the same applies to modern societies, where gazing reproduces the social background monopolizing vision in the control of surrounding environment. In order for the state to propose a cure, the medical gaze should perform its task with efficacy and efficiency. It reminds that the pathology, which means deviation from normalcy, should be identified and eradicated for the body to restore the balance. That way, western societies embrace “ocular-centrism” to surveill the external world. The same prone to gaze, which prompted the rise of capitalism, played a crucial role in the control of epidemics and illness. While traveling, we watch to others and in doing so we control them, but paradoxically we are the object of desire for others. Urry held the thesis that we often travel to watch and everything we watch becomes in our individual possession. All these practices, Urry adheres, are systematically orchestrated according to a much deeper cultural matrix that precedes the well-functioning of the productive system. Hence Urry invites readers to an epistemological debate when he writes that understanding how these gazes function is a good way to expand the current comprehension of society (Larsen & Urry, 2011; Lash & Urry, 1992; Urry, 1988; 1992; 1999). R. Tzanelli in this vein called the attention on the role of new morbid forms of consumption that are changing the dynamic of gazing, as well as defying the classic tourism product. Sociologically speaking these new styles of morbid tourism are ideologically designated to place Europe as the best civilization while the history of colonialism, exploitation, and slavery are overlooked or at best romantically consumed through the lens of a camera (Tzanelli, 2016). In recent works, Korstanje & Seraphin (2017) enumerates some of the limitations found in French sociology at the time of exploring the nature of capitalism. With basis on the original worries of Durkheim and the founding parents of sociology, those scholars who embrace the French sociology has developed a negative connotation of globalization and tourism, expressing their discontents against the advance of tourism as an ideologically-based activity

oriented to pervert the sense of reality. Equally important, the emergence of new forms of consumption in tourism as Thana Tourism, War Tourism, Slumming or Dark sites lead us to think the classic allegories around beach and sun are mutated towards new gothic lifestyles.

## **THANA CAPITALISM AND THE MORBID CONSUMPTION**

One of the main problems of “neoliberalism” seems to be associated with the countless interpretations revolving around the term. Originally formulated to serve as an opposite alternative against neo-pragmatism, neoliberalism toyed with the belief that the world can be united through the consumption and free trade. During the 80s and 90s decades, the theory of development adopted tourism as an efficient instrument to struggle with poverty. Under the auspices of neoliberalism, modern tourism not only paved the ways for a “Kantian eternal peace,” but also conducted a much deeper process of democratization beyond the borders of Western civilization. To some extent, tourism played a crucial role as the ambassador of capitalism, indexing some peripheral economies into what Hardt & Negri dubbed “the Empire.” After the recently-happened stock and market crisis in 2008, tourism not only placed in jeopardy -by the advance of jihadist terrorism- but mutated towards more morbid forms of consumption, which made from the human’s suffering a tantalizing criterion of attraction. Thana-Tourism, War tourism, Dark Tourism or Slum tourism are only indicators that the society is changing towards new horizons. In the book, *The Rise of Thana Capitalism and Tourism* (Korstanje, 2016) Korstanje coined the term “Thana-Capitalism” to describe the passage of a society of risk towards a new culture where death is the main commodity to exchange.

The term Thana comes from Greek Thanatos which means death. As Korstanje ascribed, the risk society as it was imagined by sociologists in 90s decade, sets the pace to a new stage of capitalism, where the risk was replaced by others’ death consumption. The society of Thana Capitalism made from others’ suffering not only the main commodity but also the touchstone as well as cultural forms of entertainment. In days of Thana Capitalism, the life is seen as a long trace where the only one will be the winner. The death of others, which is present in Media, Journalism, TV Programs not only feel us special because we are in trace after all, but also remind how special we are. This is the reason why disasters captivate today to a global audience. At the time, they exhibit the disgrace in Others news reinforces



the supremacy of West over other cultures. Secondly, leisure practices as classic Sun and Sea tourism are changed to new forms where mass-disaster or mourning spaces are the main attraction. This new segment, known by some specialists as Thana-Tourism or Dark Tourism, recycles spaces of disasters or mass-death to be visually commoditized to international consumers who need to be close to Other's death. If older leisure practices embraced an Apollonian view of business that invited workers to spend time and money in paradise-alike destinations, now we are a witness of the rise of a new class, death-seekers. What would be more than interesting to discuss is the intersection of death and consumption. It signals to radical shifts that certainly denote the beginning of a new capitalism, Thana-Capitalism. The epicenter of Thana capitalism derives from 9/11 whither radical Islam perpetrated a blow against the symbolic core of capitalism and globalization. Educated in the best Western universities terrorists employed the means of transport as real weapons against civil targets, in which case this was cataloged as one of the worst man-made disasters in American history. From that moment onwards, the US experienced not only a climate of panic but also understood the technology, as well as the infrastructure for mobilities, were not enough to deter terrorism, if not they were weaponized by terrorist to impose a message of extortion. Still, further, the doctrine of precautionary principle and security diluted into a spectacle of death that captivated the attention of western audiences.

As the previous argument given, Thana-Capitalism offers death (of others) as a Spectacle not only revitalizes the daily frustrations but enhances a harmed ego. Visiting spaces of disasters during holidays, or watching the news on terrorist attacks at home, all represent part of the same issue: the advent of new class death seekers. As a fieldworker, I have developed a psychological profile after visiting several spaces of dark tourism in third and first worlds. To some extent, far from being a naïve activity, tourism exhibits the main values of society and her economic production. Therefore, observing closer how the patterns of holiday-makers, as well as leisure practices, evolved is a valid lens to understand much deeper social changes. Detractors of industrialism, as Hofstadter, ignite the discussion around social Darwinism. We are playing a game, which has fewer probabilities of success. In Thana-Capitalism we feel happy with the Others' failure. The competition fostered by the ideology of capitalism offers the salvation for few ones, at the expense of the rest. To realize the dream of joining the "selected people," we accept the Darwinist rules. Whenever one of our direct competitors fails, we feel an insane happiness. I argue that a similar mechanism is activated during our visit to dark tourism sites: we do not strive to understand, we are just happy because we escaped death and

have more chances to win the game of life. As adamantly and incessantly discussed, the unpleasant sensation of reading newspapers is compensated by the happiness the self-develops through the other's suffering - a rite necessary to avoid or think about one's own potential pain. Starting from the premise that the self is morally obliged to assist the other to reinforce a sentiment of superiority, avoidance preserves the ethical base of social relationships. Nonetheless, this in-born drive has been manipulated beyond the limits of a reasonable narcissism. The best example that explains how Thana Capitalism works is the novel *The Hunger Games*. The plot tells of a futurist scenario where a richer capitol exploits 13 districts. President Snow opted to organize an annual game where each district delivers two representatives who will fiercely combat with others for the prize. The fact is that each combatant over valorizes the opportunities and probabilities to win, given only one participant can win. Instead of cooperating, actors have involved a climate of social Darwinism which is functional to Snow. Those stragglers who lag behind as slum-dwellers are considered weak or unworthy of salvation in the same way, for converting workers into commodities, Capitalism needs to disorganize social trust. In so doing, the sense of uniqueness plays a vital role in leading towards narcissism. Contextually, slum tourism revitalizes "the needs to gaze Other's suffering" to feel one might be so special. As earlier discussed, to what extent tourism or slum tourism are valid option to pacify conflictive hot-spots is a point which merits a much deeper research in the academy. Consuming death in sites of mass destruction, disasters, or even after a terrorist attack gives viewers an exemplary aura that reminds how special they are. In a highly-secularized society where death is the end of all known life, there is no room for death. A new theory of capitalism merits a further discussion on the complexity and disparity of perspectives, which oscillates from the world of risk to the hegemony of medical gaze to produce a revolution in the genome. While we expand our understanding of fact and events, less attention is given to the effects of our discoveries.

## **CONCLUSION**

Dark tourism offers a unique way for individuals to understand who they are in the world. The premise is that the wisdom gains thus will liberate people. This liberation is a triumph over the institutionalized versions of liberalism offered by modernity. A content analysis of the visitor records at various dark tourist sites will attest to this. Our fascination with others' death also corresponds with a Darwinist attempt

to adapt based on what survived. By means of “thanaptosis”, sites or communities obliterated by natural disasters, catastrophes, traumatic stories, or even terrorism may very well be reconstituted in order for survivors to make senses of these events. At a closer look, the act of gazing at the other’s death is not new lest today it is a factor of self-hedonism and status. Instead of what the specialized literature suggests, we go in the opposite direction, there is no empathy in the dark tourism encounters. Rather, it is interesting to discuss to what extent visitors feel special because they live in more democratic societies which escape to disasters and poverty. Dark tourism plays an ideological role in the configuration of a gap between having and have-nots. In this context, we hold the thesis that the concept of beauty as something related to apollonian logic has changed to more morbid ways of consumptions. Lay-People when planning their holidays do not opt for paradisiacal destinations, located in Caribe but for in morbid museums or spaces characterized by the presence of mass-suffering or death. This means that new practices of tourism allude to the rise of a new society, where death plays a crucial role not only by setting new values associated to social Darwinism or the supremacy of stronger, a legacy of defeated Nazism, but dividing the world between salved and doomed peoples. The sections organized in this chapter are aimed at discussing to what extent dark tourism practices opened the doors or were further indicators of a new society, which was dubbed as “Thana-capitalism”. At a closer look, death not only is commoditized by tourists who travel towards sites of mass suffering as New Orleans, Ground Zero or Auschwitz-Birkenau Museum in Poland; rather death is present in many of the current social institutions which range from the journalism which today portrays news related to local crime on a daily basis, to realities shows like Big Brother or movies consumed by teenagers like Hunger Games, or Divergent.

## REFERENCES

- Brohman, J. (1995). Economism and critical silences in development studies: A theoretical critique of neoliberalism. *Third World Quarterly*, 16(2), 297–318. doi:10.1080/01436599550036149
- Cahill, D. (2013). Ideas-centered explanations of the rise of neoliberalism: A critique. *Australian Journal of Political Science*, 48(1), 71–84. doi:10.1080/10361146.2012.761174
- Caraway, T. L., Cook, M. L., & Crowley, S. (Eds.). (2015). *Working Through the Past: Labor and Authoritarian Legacies in Comparative Perspective*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1999). *Profit over people: Neoliberalism and global order*. Seven Stories Press.
- Friedman, T. L. (2000). *The Lexus and the olive tree: Understanding Globalization*. New York: Straus, and Giroux.
- Friedman, T. L. (2012). Why nations fail. *New York Times*.
- Giroux, H. (2002). The war on the young: Corporate culture, schooling, and the politics of “zero tolerance.” In *Growing up postmodern: Neoliberalism and the war on the young* (pp. 35-46).
- Grieco, J. M. (1993). Neorealism and neoliberalism: The contemporary debate. In D. Baldwin (Ed.), *Understanding the Problem of International Cooperation: The limits of Neoliberal Institutionalism and the Future of Realist theory* (pp. 301–338). New York: Columbia University Press.
- Gunder, M. (2010). Planning as the ideology of (neoliberal) space. *Planning Theory*, 9(4), 298–314. doi:10.1177/1473095210368878
- Hardt, M., & Negri, A. (2001). *Empire*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- James, T. (2012). *Elite Statecraft and election administration. Bending the rules of the game?* Basingstoke: Palgrave-Macmillan. doi:10.1057/9781137035097

- Keohane, R. (1993). Institutional Theory and the Realist Challenge after the Cold War. In D. Baldwin (Ed.), *Neorealism and Neoliberalism* (pp. 269-300). New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Keohane, R. O. (1990). Multilateralism: An agenda for research. *International Journal (Toronto, Ont.)*, 45(4), 731–764. doi:10.1177/002070209004500401
- Korstanje, M., & Seraphin, H. (2017). Revisiting the Sociology of Consumption in Tourism. In *The Routledge Handbook of Consumer Behaviour in Hospitality and Tourism* (pp. 46-55). Routledge.
- Korstanje, M. E. (2016). *The Rise of Thana Capitalism and Tourism*. Abingdon: Routledge.
- Korstanje, M. E., & George, B. (2012). Global warming and tourism: Chronicles of the apocalypse? *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 4(4), 332–355. doi:10.1108/17554211211255684
- Korstanje, M. E., & Skoll, G. (2016). Ethical assumptions: A criticism against modern pragmatism. *International Journal of Criminology and Sociology*, 5, 68–74. doi:10.6000/1929-4409.2016.05.06
- Larsen, J., & Urry, J. (2011). Gazing and performing. *Environment and Planning, D, Society & Space*, 29(6), 1110–1125. doi:10.1068/d21410
- Lash, S., & Urry, J. (1993). *Economies of signs and space* (Vol. 26). London: Sage.
- Luke, C. (2001). *Globalization and women in academia: North/west-south/east*. London: Routledge.
- MacCannell, D. (1973). Staged Authenticity: Arrangements of social space in tourist settings. *American Journal of Sociology*, 79(3), 589–603. doi:10.1086/225585
- MacCannell, D. (1992). *Empty meeting grounds: The tourist papers*. London, UK: Psychology Press. doi:10.4324/9780203412145
- MacCannell, D. (2001). Tourist agency. *Tourist Studies*, 1(1), 23–37. doi:10.1177/146879760100100102
- Martell, L. (2007). The third wave in globalization theory. *International Studies Review*, 9(2), 173–196. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2486.2007.00670.x
- Mayer, M. (2013). *They thought they were free: The Germans, 1933-45*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.

***The End of Tourism as We Know It***

- McChesney, R. W. (1999). Noam Chomsky and the struggle against neoliberalism. *Monthly Review (New York, N.Y.)*, 50(11), 40. doi:10.14452/MR-050-11-1999-04\_4
- Pells, R. H. (1989). *The Liberal Mind in a Conservative Age*. University Press of New England.
- Powell, R. (1994). Anarchy in international relations theory: The neorealist-neoliberal debate. *International Organization*, 48(2), 313–344. doi:10.1017/S0020818300028204
- Rawls, J. (2005). *Political liberalism*. New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Robinson, A. D., & Acemoglu, R. (2012). *Why nations fail. The Origins of Power, Prosperity and Poverty*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Smith, S. (1997). the Self Images of a discipline: a Genealogy of International Relations Theory. In *International Relations Theory Today* (pp. 1–37). University Park, PA: The Pennsylvania State University Press.
- Springer, S. (2010). Neoliberalism and geography: Expansions, variegations, formations. *Geography Compass*, 4(8), 1025–1038. doi:10.1111/j.1749-8198.2010.00358.x
- Springer, S. (2011). Articulated neoliberalism: The specificity of patronage, kleptocracy, and violence in Cambodia's neoliberalization. *Environment & Planning A*, 43(11), 2554–2570. doi:10.1068/a43402
- Springer, S. (2012). Neoliberalism as discourse: Between Foucauldian political economy and Marxian poststructuralism. *Critical Discourse Studies*, 9(2), 133–147. doi:10.1080/17405904.2012.656375
- Stilz, A. (2009). *Liberal Loyalty: freedom, obligation & the state*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press. doi:10.1515/9781400830701
- Taylor, M. (2002). Success for whom? An historical-materialist critique of neoliberalism in Chile. *Historical Materialism*, 10(2), 45–75. doi:10.1163/156920602320318084
- Tzanelli, R. (2016). *Thanatourism and Cinematic Representations of Risk: Screening the End of Tourism* (Vol. 176). Abingdon, UK: Routledge.
- Urry, J. (1988). Cultural change and contemporary holiday-making. *Theory, Culture & Society*, 5(1), 35–55. doi:10.1177/026327688005001003

Urry, J. (1992). The Tourist Gaze and the environment. *Theory, Culture & Society*, 9(1), 1–26. doi:10.1177/026327692009003001

Urry, J. (1999). Mobile cultures. Department of Sociology, Lancaster University. Retrieved from <http://www.comp.lancs.ac.UK/sociology/030ju.htm>

Waltz, K. N. (2000). Structural realism after the Cold War. *International Security*, 25(1), 5–41. doi:10.1162/016228800560372

## Chapter 3

# Tourism as a Neoliberal Economic Messiah: The Case of South Africa

**Unathi Sonwabile Henama**

*Tshwane University of Technology, South Africa*

### **ABSTRACT**

*Tourism has grown since the democratic transition in 1994. The growth of tourism has been so spectacular that today, tourism is regarded as the new gold, as it is South Africa's number one export. For the past 24 years, tourism's growth rate has always exceeded the national growth rate of the country. The sustained growth of tourism caught the attention of policy makers and private investors. The growth of tourism has mitigated the decline of mining, especially gold mining, that was the primary driver of the economy for decades. The economy of South Africa is suffering from a decline in the commodity prices, and the shedding of jobs in mining. The rise of tourism occurred when the economic fortunes were dampened by the decline of mining and agriculture, leading to widespread poverty associated with unemployment. Tourism has become an economic messiah. The literature review adds to a paucity of academic gaze on the tourism industry in South Africa.*

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-5225-6983-1.ch003

Copyright © 2019, IGI Global. Copying or distributing in print or electronic forms without written permission of IGI Global is prohibited.



## **INTRODUCTION**

The rapid growth of tourism has been associated with export promotion by countries to acquire from form tourism consumption. Services have been growing at a fast pace within the world economy and signify an increasing percentage of global GDP. “Services, estimated at 61% of global GDP, are key factors that shape the global economy in today’s transnational production chains” (George & Henthorne, 2007, p. 137). Tourism has been located within the neoliberal doctrine as tourism is promoted for private sector businesses providing tourism product offerings to tourists, with the state given an enabling role to support private sector businesses to flourish. Tourism has therefore been located within the doctrine of a minimalistic state, that does not interfere in the business market, but acts as an enabler of growth, led by private sector players. The dominance of the West in tourism outbound tourism has led to the recreation of neoliberalism in destination countries that seek to develop tourism. “The period in which the largest number of dimensions of economy and social development began, which is usually called the neoliberal period in the full meaning of the term, is the period of the reign of Margaret Thatcher and Ronald Reagan i.e. the period between 1978-1980, in which neoliberalism became the leading economic and political thought” (Pavlovic & Knezevic, 2018, p. 61).

Tourism was introduced as an export promotion avenue for many countries that had fragile and subsistence economies. Tourism because is a final product consumed at the destination level, represents an export product that can bring in highly sought after the foreign exchange. Sharpley and Telfer (2004) noted that structural adjustment programmes using tourism looked at supply-side factors such as private investment, market-led growth, and import substitution. The privatisation of nationally owned tourism enterprises became the international consensus. The privatisation of national carriers took precedence in the West, and this was the gospel being shared with African countries. The privatisation of national carriers in African countries has been the slowest, which has come at the expense of greater aviation traffic, lower prices, and greater frequencies. There was privatisation of some aspects of the tourism industry in South Africa. The government-owned resorts company Aventura was sold, whilst the national carrier, South African Airways sold a 20% stake to Swiss Air which was later bought back when Swiss Air become bankrupt.

## **STRUCTURAL CHALLENGES FACING SOUTH AFRICA**

South Africa has a stubborn unemployment rate which is a major contributor towards poverty. Economic growth has been pedestrian and has failed to create the jobs necessary jobs to address unemployment. In addition, the majority of private companies are busy with an investment strike, sitting on records amounts of cash in a bank account instead of investing in the economy of South Africa. “Since 1996, the Growth, Employment, and Redistribution (GEAR) programme have been the central economic programme. The idea was to stimulate growth above 6%, which in turn would lead to 500,000 jobs being created. Between 1996 and 2008. South Africa’s economy did grow but at an average of 3.2%. Since the financial crisis, growth has slowed even further” (Mbele, 2014, p. 1). According to Ryan (2018), the Minister of Finance projected that the economy will grow by 2%. “Poverty eradication is a long-term project that in South Africa began in earnest only eight years ago. Following the first racially inclusive democratic elections in 1994, the government’s efforts to eliminate poverty has been frustrated by the continued shedding of jobs from the formal economy” (Aliber, 2003, p. 473).

Ngonyama (2016) noted that SA has an unemployment rate higher than 25%. Faulkner, Loewald and Makrelov (2013) noted that the high levels of unemployment in part reflect a skills mismatch in the economy. The unemployed do not have the skills required by the economy, which effectively locks out the unemployed opportunities, that require a divergent set of skills. This means that a skills shortage co-exists with a high rate of unemployment. According to Merten (2017), 30.4 million of South Africa’s 55 million citizens live in poverty or below the upper poverty line of R992 per person per month. In addition to unemployment contributing to poverty, South Africa has an inequality challenge. According to Landman (2003), the Gini score for South Africa is about 0,6 which means South Africa has one of the most unequal income distributions in the world. Elbra (2013) noted that since the fall of the apartheid regime in 1994, levels of inequality have worsened. “In many developing countries, informal employment constitutes up to 75% of all employment. And yet in South Africa, despite high levels of unemployment and impediments to formal sector job creation, the informal sector remained small and measured growth in the sector was low” (Faulkner, Loewald & Makrelov, 2013, p. 7).

The low levels of entrepreneurship in South Africa are further stifled by the high failure rate of small businesses within 5 years of operating. “Stubbornly high unemployment combined with low levels of job creation and educational attainment has resulted in large numbers of semi-and-unskilled workers at a time when the labor-intensive industries such as farming, agriculture, mining and manufacturing

that might traditionally employ them, have downsized their workforces” (Luke, 2016, p. 3). South Africa depends on outside money to drive its economy, and hence the economy depends on foreign direct investment. According to Ensor (2016) foreign direct investment (FDI) into South Africa plunged 74% to \$1,5 billion. There has been a decline in commodity prices, which has had a negative impact on a country such as South Africa, with deep forward and backward linkages associated with mining. There has been a decline in mining investment to South Africa, which has limited mining output. The decline in mining’s contribution to the GDP has a negative impact on the economy of South Africa. According to Mbele (2014) strikes in South African mines have damaged output, particularly in the platinum sector.

Luke (2016) noted that as an economy that is heavily dependent upon commodities exports, reduced demand from China for South African raw materials has hit hard. A decline in mining negatively impacts on the economy, which has deep forwards and backward linkages. The fact that the majority of South African are poor, and unemployed has led the state to extended safety nets to vulnerable citizens. The welfare state in South Africa is a major drain on the country’s finances. “There are now more people receiving social grants in SA than there are people with jobs” (Ryan, 2018, p. 1). Mbele (2014) noted that debt has grown to 44% of GDP and the trade deficit at 6%. The increase in state debt is one of the issues cited by the rating agencies that have downgraded the sovereign credit rating of South Africa to above junk status. This has led to the increase in Value Added Tax (VAT) from 14% to 15%. According to Shazi (2018) noted that there is a massive gap in the country’s finances, as there is an R48 billion hole in the fiscus, leading to the first VAT increase in 25 years.

The currency, the rand has been very volatile, reacting to political changes such as the several Cabinet reshuffles that have occurred in South Africa. This resulted in and weakness, which always leads to inflationary pressures for the economy, leading to the raising of interest rates by the central bank, the South African Reserve Bank. “A weaker rand will also have an effect on the cost of petrol and imported food” (Fischer-French, 2017, p. 1). South Africa has a corruption problem which has led to the misallocation in government expenditure. Trying to make economic growth happen has been a major desire of the state, what is interesting is that since 1994, the growth of tourism has always surpassed the annual growth rate of the economy. In the year 2016, year-on-year tourism growth was 13% when compared to an annual economic growth rate that did not surpass 2%. Tourism has been assimilated within the economic policies of the state in South Africa. According to Lea (1988), poor developing countries have few alternatives to raise income and adopt tourism as a last resort.

South Africa is a country known for its rich mineral deposits, which has led to mining dominating the economy. According to Brown (1991), minerals make up a major part of South Africa's natural endowment and should be exploited optimally for the benefit of the country. "The importance of the mining industry can be gauged from a look at some figures-foe example, in 2009 the South African mining industry had over 1000 mines and 483 212 employees; 168 888 were in platinum, 148 832 in gold, 68 006 in coal and the rest in other commodities" (Van Niekerk, 2013, p. 3). Ashman and Fine (2013) noted that South Africa is the largest producer of platinum, estimated to hold 87% of the world's reserves of Platinum Group Metals. Workers in the mining industry have increasingly become organised, leading to a surge in unprotected strikes, which have led to labor instability in the economy. Twala (2012) noted that the tragic events at Marikana left 34 miners dead and 78 others wounded. "Marikana was essentially a dispute about remuneration and living conditions. The rock drill operators demanded a threefold increase in their salary package to R12,500 per month and they embarked on a wildcat strike to support their demands...The mine was closed in consequence, to be reopened on 20 September 2012 after the resolution of the strike, with mine management agreeing to pay increases of between 11 and 22%" (Sorensen, 2012, p. 871).

PriceWaterhouseCoopers (2012) noted that the higher labor cost base, coupled with the contraction of mining activities, has already led to significant retrenchments and more are likely to follow. The immediate aftermath of the Marikana tragedy is the increase in the cost of labor, which has led to the restructuring of mining operations and this had led to job losses. The fact that the country has deep forward, and backward linkages linked to mining, the decline in mining employment has a devastating impact on many towns and cities in South Africa. "Many of South Africa's citizens are yet to benefit from their country's natural resource wealth-and in many cases of those directly affected by mine violence or poor working conditions they have been harmed. Using Sachs and Warner's original definition, South Africa has been shown to suffer from the effects of the resource curse" (Elbra, 2013: 556). "The term 'Dutch disease' has sometimes been used in a generic sense to convey the overall tendency of resource-rich nations to perform badly on a whole range of development indicators, and in that sense, it has become partly interchangeable with 'resource curse'" (McKay, 2012, p. 7).

## **THE ECONOMIC BENEFITS OF TOURISM**

"Travel and tourism are emerging as a leading global economic driver for the 21st century. Internationally, tourism is the world's biggest industry, growing at compound interest of about 4% per annum. It is an industry whose growth appears

to be virtually unstoppable” (Steyn & Spencer, 2011, p. 178). “Tourism is one of the largest and fastest growing industries in the world. It is an increasingly important source of income, employment and wealth in many countries. However, its rapid expansion has also had detrimental environmental (and socio-cultural impact in many regions” (Neto, 2003, p. 1). “Over the past 50 years, international tourism has grown extraordinarily, and it is now one of the most important industries in the world in employment creation and generation of foreign revenues. Tourism receipts for 2010 are expected to surpass the \$851 billion registered in 2009. The World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO) estimates that by 2020 there will be 1.6 billion international tourist arrivals worldwide” (United Nations Development Programme, 2011, p. 3). “Tourism is often welcomed as an industry bringing desperately needed foreign exchange, employment and a modern way of life” (Wall & Mathieson, 2006, p. 73).

Tourism has a cross-cutting nature impact on the economy. “The travel industry includes hotels, motels and other types of accommodation; restaurants and other food services; transportation services and facilities; amusements, attractions and other leisure facilities; gift shops and a large number of other enterprises” (Theobald, 1994, p. 4). The fragmented nature of the travel industry results in the participation of a plethora of businesses in the production of the tourism product offering, which could be used as a means of ensuring that pro-poor outcomes are achieved from tourism expenditure. If tourism is planned to become pro-poor, tourism expenditure could stimulate other sectors such as local agriculture and the construction sector. “Tourism as an economic sector, directly and indirectly, contributes to the performance of almost all industries and to the development and prosperity of destination. Visitor’s expenditure flows through a wide range of businesses providing services to visitors and this stimulates the economy” (Litheko & Potgieter, 2016, p. 1). Divisekera (2010) noted that tourism consumption is classified into five broad commodity aggregates namely: accommodation, food, transport, shopping, and entertainment.

According to Litheko and Potgieter (2016), an amalgamation of activities, services, and industries provides a memorable experience by combining transportation, accommodation, attractions, retailing and destination marketing. This means the purchase of one offering includes the consumption of services from a range of service providers involved in the tourism industry. “Tourism is labor intensive, providing many job and enterprise opportunities, as well as direct access to ‘rich’ tourists who are often keen to buy local goods and services” (Mutayoba & Mbwete, 2013, p. 105). Tourism requires a multiplicity of skills, in the tourism industry and other support industries. According to United Nations Development Programme. (2011) tourism requires a wide spectrum of skills although it also provides opportunities for the unskilled. Transport infrastructure is critical to ensure destination competitiveness, and by leaving taxes on tourists, this can allow the tourism industry to fund the infrastructure that would make it easy for tourists to get the ease of access to a

destination country. "Tourism taxation is an appealing option for a government facing budgetary constraints and pressures to decrease reliance on a variety of taxes..." (Gooroochurn & Sinclair, 2005, p. 479).

According to United Nations Development Programme (2011) taxes and levies on tourism income can be used by governments for poverty reduction purposes. This means that revenue from tourism can be used to fund infrastructures such as roads and airports that are used by locals and tourists. This means that tourists contribute to funding development in less developed countries. "Tourism is an invisible export industry" (Wall & Mathieson, 2006, p. 73). Chok et al. (2007) noted that tourism offers a viable development option for a country with few competitive exports. Tourism because it's a service, consumed at the destination area, cannot be subjected to tariffs and other protectionist instruments that impact on physical products when they are imported into another country. The consumption of tourism has experienced a consistent upward trajectory as more and more people travel. As global wealth has increased, and the habit of holidays has become institutionalized, expenditure on leisure has increased as the costs of traveling continue to decline. The increases in discretionary income, have led to increased leisure consumption. "Since the days of privileged elite travel in the late nineteenth century and the early part of the twentieth century, participation in international travel has become a major aspiration for the consuming classes and a marker of status... Participation in travel and tourism became increasingly widespread over the course of the twentieth century and tourism itself has come to be seen as a vital social need and a right" (Bianchi & Stephenson, 2014, pp. 4-5).

Blichtfeldt (2007) noted that a family's annual vacations also act as institutions. Honkanen and Mustonen (2007) noted for real tourists, tourism has become part of a lifestyle. "Today, the desire to travel and to be a tourist is practically universal" (Wood, 2005, p. 1). The habit of holidays has led to the institutionalization of the consumption of holidays. Tourism is a consumption activity which occurs when tourists arrive at a destination country, where the majority of the expenditure occurs ranging from visiting attractions to seeking accommodation, to the purchase of food and beverages and shopping. These consumption patterns are located within the neo-liberal agenda, where the nation-states that seek to attract more tourists understand that open skies and visa friendliness are the two state measures that would unlock tourism growth. Almost all countries have jumped on the tourism bandwagon as a means to diversify their incomes, create labor-intensive jobs and to accrue the positive economic development benefits. The dominant gaze with regard to tourism has been that it is an industry without chimneys, which is an untruth, which has meant little gaze has been placed on the negative impacts of tourist at the destination. Tourism growth is not universally good, and tourism planning must be

an integral of government efforts to ensure that the tourism economic impacts are maximized, reducing the negative impacts.

## **TOURISM IN AFRICA**

“Tourism can provide one possible mechanism to redistribute wealth from rich to the poor...” (Spenceley & Meyer, 2012, p. 299). “Governments have become involved in tourism mainly because of its economic importance. In periods of industrial and economic decline, world recession, massive unemployment and a growing gap between the rich and poor, tourism are one of the growth industries, it is also able to provide the scarce foreign exchange which most governments desperately need...” (Elliott, 1997, p. 4). According to Wall and Mathieson (2006) tourism is ranked among the top five export earners for 83% of all countries. According to Agaraj and Murati (2009), tourism is an excellent potential being a catalyst for economic growth. The cross-cutting nature of tourism means that it has an impact on other sectors of the destination economy. One such sector is agriculture. “With approximately one-third of all expenditures directed towards food, creating linkages between tourism and agriculture holds great importance for host destination. This is particularly true for developing countries that typically have large agrarian populations highly dependent upon farming” (Torres, 2003, p. 546).

According to Rogerson (2015) in common with many developed and developing countries, tourism is increasingly applied as a potential vehicle for regional development in South Africa. “Tourism in developing countries is, in many cases, a relatively new activity which has grown to significant levels over a very short period of time This has resulted in a heavy strain being placed upon local infrastructure and human resources” (Wall & Mathieson, 2006, p. 78). Tourism has an impact on the trade balance for LDCs who have fragile exports, and therefore tourism has emerged as a reliable means to stabilize a trade imbalance that impacts on many destinations, that have low exports. “The characteristics of the sector as an export sector which earns foreign exchange but is consumed domestically, leading to potentially high output and employment multipliers” (Lowitt, 2006, p. 2). “A trade balance surplus. The immediate effect of the tourism expansion is an increase in export revenue which drives the trade balance towards surplus” (Saayman, Rossouw & Krugell, 2012, p. 479). “First, whilst Africa contributes little to global tourism figures, tourism contributes significantly to African economies. By 2003 tourism accounted for over 11% of total African exports and 20% to 30% of exports for most countries that exceeded the modest threshold of half a million foreign visitors a

year. In fact, tourism is disproportionately important for Africa compared to other countries” (Ashley & Mitchell, 2005, p. 1). According to Overseas Development Institute (2006), the dominance of high-income countries in tourism is striking, almost two-thirds of all international tourists in 2003 arrived in rich countries.

Sharpley and Telfer (2004, p. 17), “international tourism is still largely dominated by the industrialized world, with the major tourism flows being primarily between the more developed nations and to a lesser extent, from developed to less developed countries... As a result, international tourism contributes most, in an economic sense, to those countries or regions that least require it.” “Tourism is not the solution for all development challenges, tourism planning needs to look beyond narrow confines and incorporate broader economic, political, social and environmental issues” (Hill, Nel & Trotter, 2006, p. 173). “Unrealistic expectations abound regarding the role that tourism might fulfill as an economic growth mechanism for a town” (Ferreira, 2007, p. 191). “Tourism is too often regarded as a panacea-an economic, social and environmental ‘cure-all” (Chok, et al., 2007, p. 146). “Tourism development is not a panacea for LDCs. This sector is extremely competitive and vulnerable to external negative impacts (natural and human-made), although it does demonstrate resilience” (United Nations Development Programme, 2011, p. 6).

## **TOURISM CONSUMPTION IN SOUTH AFRICA**

Saayman and Saayman (2012) noted that in South Africa, tourism has grown to contribute more than 8% to the country’s Gross Domestic Product (GDP) and surpassed earnings from gold earnings as an important source of foreign exchange. As noted by Rogerson (2015) South Africa’s space economy manifests a core-periphery structure with massive unevenness in patterns of geographical development. The domination of urban tourism has been a feature of the tourism economy in South Africa, limiting geographical spread in tourism in rural and peripheral areas. In research conducted by Nyikana and Sigxashe (2017) the rural Eastern Cape town of Coffee Bay suffers from a lack of accommodation and infrastructure, limiting the tourism potential of the area. The vast cohort of international tourists to South Africa are regional tourists from neighbouring countries around South Africa. Countries such as Lesotho, Swaziland, Namibia, Mozambique, Zimbabwe, and Zambia dominate regional arrivals to South Africa. South Africa with its advanced economy and mega shopping malls benefits from shopping tourism. Yuksel (2004) noted that shopping is recognized as an important activity and it ranks among the



significant hard currency earners. They may delay their shopping expenditure for developing countries, where they would be able to get shopping at bargain prices when they convert their hard currencies into the local currency. Rogerson (2004) noted that Gauteng is the province that secures the greatest benefit from regional tourism in South Africa.

“In both international and domestic tourism, the second most important expenditure item is shopping, following accommodation...Although shopping is seldom mentioned as a primary reason for travel, it is perhaps the most universal of tourism activities” Turner & Reisinger (2001: 15). Saayman and Saayman (2012) noted that African tourists make up the largest percentage of tourists, use South Africa as a shopping destination, especially those from neighboring countries. In research conducted by Ezeuduji (2013) during 2011, when 35% of all African land visitors to South Africa stated that their main purpose for visiting South Africa was shopping (business and personal). Rogerson (2004) noted that the Gauteng province secured the greatest benefit from regional tourism in South Africa. Gauteng with its metropolis of Johannesburg-Pretoria. The challenge is that the majority of shopping occurs in major shopping malls, and retail parks, that reflect the interest of monopoly capital. “Outside the metropolitan areas of South Africa tourism has assumed an equally pivotal role in the search for economic diversification in secondary centers and the shift to a post-productivity countryside accompanying rural restructuring” Rogerson & Rogerson (2004a, p. 95). Steinbrink (2012) noted that township tourism in South Africa’s version of the new global phenomenon of poverty tourism. Tourism which is located within the neoliberal doctrine has shown growth rates that have exceeded the economic growth rate for 24 years. Tourism in South Africa is regarded as the ‘new gold’ as tourism-led development has been adopted. A standalone Ministry and Department in Tourism was established in 2009 to allow for dedicated attention.

## **SHARING ECONOMY IN TOURISM AS AN EXTENSION OF NEOLIBERALISM**

The sharing economy is an extension of globalization and neoliberalism, as it is premised on using private resources to provide products and services, at times against government regulations. “The so-called “sharing economy” generally refers to the phenomenon of turning unused or under-used assets owned by individuals into productive resources. For example, homes and cars represent significant

investments but are underused relative to their potential. Homes are empty much of the day or have empty rooms even when occupied by owners. Airbnb makes it possible to rent those spaces. Cars are mostly sit parked while their value depreciates. Uber, Lyft, and others make it possible for anyone to use their cars to offer taxi-like services. Unemployed and underemployed people, too, represent wasted productive services. Task Rabbit and Mechanical Turk allow anyone to offer a host of particular services. . . .” (Wallsten, 2015, p. 3). “Tourism services have traditionally been provided by businesses such as hotels, taxis or tour operators. Recently, a growing number of individuals are proposing to share temporarily with tourists what they own (for example their house or car) or what they do (for example meals or excursions). This type of sharing is referred to as the ‘sharing economy’. It is not limited to tourism and can be found in many areas of social and economic activity, although tourism has been one of the sectors most impacted” (Juul, 2015, p. 1).

The sharing economy is the best possible reflection of the entrenchment of globalized neo-liberal capital within the tourism industry. The sharing economy is displacing established big business, by creating disruption in industries, by providing a technology platform that matches supply and demand, which in turn creates a “new” supplier marketplace which competes with the established businesses. The new suppliers in the marketplace create disruption by undercutting the established companies, as they use underutilized assets to provide services in the collaborative economy. The two companies that are the face of this include Uber (e-hailing taxi service) and Airbnb (in commercial accommodation provision). By lowering the barriers to entry, the sharing economy creates additional demand to meet supply, as many players enter the market to become suppliers. Collaborative consumption that occurs in the sharing economy, is facilitated by technology and the proliferation of smartphones. Oskam and Boswijk (2016) noted that the sharing economy can be distinguished from other economic forms:

- Sharing is about consumer-to-consumer platforms and not about renting or leasing a good from a company (business-to-consumer). In the latter case, we would speak of the product-service economy, where a consumer gains access to a product whilst the service provider retains ownership.
- Sharing is about consumers providing each other temporary access to a good, and not about the transfer of ownership of the good. Thus, the sharing economy does not include the second-hand economy, in which goods are sold or given away between consumers (as occurs on online platforms such as eBay or Facebook).

- Sharing is about the more efficient use of physical assets and not about private individuals developing each other a service. After all, physical goods can go unused, but people cannot. Internet platforms that bring consumers together to provide each other with services represent the on-demand economy. An example of such platforms is Task Rabbit, through which you can hire people to carry out work around the house.

Uber competes with traditional taxi's, at times against existing regulations. Uber has been a source of contestation, in almost all countries, where it has operated from. The metered taxi drivers in South Africa have reacted violently to the introduction of Uber. Uber has been used as an alternative to drunk driving in many countries. According to Noli and Kirk (2016) noted that Uber exceeds \$62 billion in value, operating in more than 60 countries and 400 cities. According to Vetter (2016) Uber offers its services to two types of customers:

- People who offer
- People who want a ride.

The power of supply and demand in the marketplace has shifted to the customers, and the private providers of services which are now humans, instead of companies. Vetter (2016) noted that Uber's value proposition is in providing a highly flexible source of income for people who want to drive, and drivers determine when and for how many hours they work. To always match supply and demand is difficult, so Uber created a financial incentive associated with increasing prices for trips during peak demand. "When demand increases, the cost of ride increases-known as "surge pricing"-in order to encourage more drivers to become available" (Noli & Kirk, 2016, p. 3). According to Tau (2017), the death of Uber driver Zweli Ngwenya whose car was petrol bombed around Loftus Versfeld Stadium in Pretoria had escalated tensions between the Uber drivers and metered taxi drivers. According to Brophy (2017) noted that Airbnb is relatively more affordable than regularly hospitality providers, especially in sought-after destinations. According to Henama and Sifolo (2017), the night time economy which is entertainment and food-and-beverage led has benefitted from Uber's presence.

"Described as the Uber for accommodation, Airbnb challenges the traditional hotel and guest house industry by enabling ordinary property owners to rent out rooms and even entire homes to guests from anywhere in the world" (African Property News, 2016, p. 1). Guttentag (2009) notes that Airbnb shifted the entire tourism accommodation landscape, as it has introduced an innovative product that appeals to

### ***Tourism as a Neoliberal Economic Messiah***

a broad range of consumers. Van Zyl (2015) noted that Cape Town was Airbnb's top African market, with a listing growth of more than 138% in South Africa in 2014. Alfreds (2016) noted that on average South African Airbnb hosts can earn R28 600 per year. The growth of Airbnb in Cape Town had not gone unnoticed by the City of Cape Town, which is one of the top tourism destinations in Africa. Nkanjeni (2017) noted Airbnb and the City of Cape Town signed a hospitality collaboration agreement which is aimed at promoting the benefits of people-to-people tourism. The sharing economy has given economic significance to underutilized assets such as cars and house accommodation. The providers of these services are not employees but independent contractors who provide services in exchange for financial benefits. The role of the state is that of the regulator, where it is supposed to regulate the sharing economy which is something new and unknown to the state. This is the changing face of neoliberalisation and globalization, as these technology platforms are owned by private companies from the West. The sharing economy has ensured that there is new growth in tourism numbers, as the costs of tourism consumption have decreased. The sharing economy is the radical phase of how technology has decreased the cost of traveling. The first phase of a technology-induced decrease in travel was led by the emergence of low-cost carriers within aviation. The sharing economy has made travel more democratic, lowering prices and stimulating a critical mass of tourism consumers.

## **CONCLUSION**

“Tourism in so-called free market economy represents the commercialization of the human need to travel, exploiting natural and cultural resources as a means of profit accumulation” (Warning & McGehee, 2013: 125). Almost all countries have jumped on the tourism bandwagon, and an enabling and conducive business environment is regarded as the pre-requisite for tourism growth. “Many countries consider tourism as a means to increase income, generate foreign currency, create employment and increase revenues from taxes” (Botha, 2012, p. 2). “The tourism industry requires a diligent and deliberate public policy attention as well as an implementation strategy to realizing sustainable tourism benefits to a country” (Manuela & De Vera, 2015, p. 11). “Tourism is greatly reliant on public utilities and infrastructure support and tourism planning and development could not be possible without for example airports, hotels, shopping malls, nature reserves, national parks, roads, electricity and also water and sewerage” (Litheko & Potgieter, 2016, p. 1). The presence of tourists at a destination area may result in governments treating its citizens must better, through the extension of infrastructure that improves the Quality-of-Life (QoL) of the residents.

According to Briedenhann and Wickens (2004), one of the key findings is the lack of capacity at local government to assume its responsibility. This has led to tourism planning being driven by tourism consultants, and the lack of capacity makes it impossible to undertake monitoring and evaluation of their tourism industry in the destination area. Litheko and Potgieter (2016) noted that the tourism market is more competitive than ever before, as more destinations around the world are formulating strategies and action plans to establish a competitive advantage over rival destinations. Building local capacity to managing the tourism industry is imperative to ensure that there is appropriate tourism planning that would ensure that the natural resource-based on tourism is protected. Tourism planning should be used to ensure that the neoliberal principles underpinning tourism consumption are mitigated to ensure that the destination area benefits disproportionately from tourism consumption. To achieve this objective, pro-poor tourism principles must be assimilated into how the tourism industry operates.

This would ensure that local labor is employed, and supply chain opportunities are created for local enterprises. In the case of South Africa, tourism is adopted within the economic development policies of the state. Tourism is expected to act as an economic messiah considering it is called the new gold. Gold mining has lost its shine and has decreased in job creation and contribution to the economy. Tourism will be expected to be a cure-all for the economic challenges of the country. The tourism industry requires both skilled and unskilled labor and considering that the majority of the unemployed, have a skills deficiency to the needs of the economy. Tourism which requires a multiplicity of skills can tap into the poll of unskilled citizens for the labor-intensive jobs available in tourism. Tourism growth year-on-year hovers around 13% which is low considering the potential of South Africa. Structural challenges such as air access and visa friendliness continue to limit the arrival of more tourists and limiting the developmental benefits of tourism on destination South Africa. Tourism will continue to drive export earnings and improve the balance of payments challenges that the country faces. Tourism has shown interest in resolving the red tape that dampens tourism growth in South Africa. Tourism is further incorporated in economic initiatives when mining operation decline, as tourism has emerged as a mine-closure solution. Tourism in the case of South Africa is a neoliberal messiah for an economy that has no another avenue that tourism to grow.

## REFERENCES

- African Property News. (2016). Tourism, Airbnb growth boost demand for Cape Town CBD apartments. Retrieved from <http://www.africanpropertynews.com/southern-africa/>
- Agaraj, X., & Murati, M. (2009). Tourism an important sector of economic development. *Annals of the Constantin Brancusi University of Targu Jiu. Economic Series, 1*, 83–90.
- Akama, J. S. (2002). The role of government in the development of tourism in Kenya. *International Journal of Tourism Research, 4*(1), 1–13. doi:10.1002/jtr.318
- Alfreds, D. (2016). Here's how much money SA Airbnb hosts earn. Retrieved from <http://www.fin24.com/>
- Aliber, M. (2003). Chronic poverty in South Africa: Incidence, causes, and policies. *World Development, 31*(3), 473–490. doi:10.1016/S0305-750X(02)00219-X
- Angelevska-Najdeska, K., & Rakicevik, G. (2012). Planning for sustainable tourism development. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Sciences, 44*, 210–220. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.022
- Ashley, C., & Mitchell, J. (2005). *Can tourism accelerate pro-poor growth in Africa?* Overseas Development Institute.
- Bianchi, R. V., & Stephenson, M. L. (2017). *Tourism and Citizenship: Rights, freedoms, and responsibilities in the global order*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Blitchfeldt, B. S. (2007). The habit of holidays. *Tourist Studies, 7*(3), 249–250. doi:10.1177/1468797608092512
- Botha, A. (2012). *Modeling tourism demand for South Africa using a system of equations approach: The Almost Ideal Demand System*. Johannesburg: Trade and Industrial Policy Strategies.
- Briedenhann, J. (2011). The potential of small tourism operators in the promotion of pro-poor tourism. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management, 20*(3-4), 484–500. doi:10.1080/19368623.2011.562439

- Briedenhann, J., & Wickens, E. (2004). Tourism routes as a tool for the economic development of rural areas-vibrant hope or impossible dream? *Tourism Management*, 25(1), 71–79. doi:10.1016/S0261-5177(03)00063-3
- Brophy, S. (2017). Is Airbnb a threat to SA's tourism sector? Fedhasa thinks so as it calls for 'urgent regulation.' *Traveller 24*. Retrieved from <http://www.traveller24.com>
- Brown, M. (1991). South African gold mines and nationalization. *The Investment Analysts Journal*, 100–105.
- Brown, S. (2005). Traveling with a purpose: Understanding the motives and benefits of volunteer vacationers. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 8(6), 479–496. doi:10.1080/13683500508668232
- Bull, C., Hoose, J., & Weed, M. (2003). *An Introduction to Leisure Studies*. Essex: Pearson.
- Canavan, B. (2016). Tourism culture: Nexus, characterises, context and sustainability. *Tourism Management*, 53, 229–243. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2015.10.002
- Carolin, L., Lindsay, A., & Victor, Q. (2015). Sex trafficking in the tourism industry. *Journal of Tourism & Hospitality (Los Angeles, Calif.)*, 4(4), 166–171.
- Cernat, L., & Gourdon, J. (2007). *Is the concept of sustainable tourism sustainable?* Geneva: United Nations.
- Chok, S., Macbeth, J., & Warren, C. (2007). Tourism as a tool for poverty alleviation: A critical analysis of “pro-poor tourism” and implications for sustainability. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(2 &3), 144–165. doi:10.2167/cit303
- Coghlan, A. (2006). Volunteer tourism as an emerging trend or an expansion of ecotourism? A look at potential clients' perception of volunteer tourism organizations. *International Journal of Volunteer Sector Markets*, 11, 225–237.
- Cooper, C., & Hall, M. C. (2013). *Contemporary tourism: An International Approach*. Oxford: Goodfellow Publishing.
- Divisekera, S. (2010). Economic of tourist's consumption behavior: Some evidence from Australia. *Tourism Management*, 31(5), 629–636. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2009.07.001

### **Tourism as a Neoliberal Economic Messiah**

- Elbra, A. D. (2013). The forgotten resource curse: South Africa's poor experience with mining extraction. *Resources Policy*, 38(4), 549–557. doi:10.1016/j.resourpol.2013.09.004
- Elliott, J. (1997). *Tourism: Politics and public sector management*. London: Routledge.
- Ensor, L. (2016). Foreign direct investment into SA nosedives 74%. *BDlive*. Retrieved from <http://www.bdlive.co.za/>
- Essa, A. (2013). *The meaning of Marikana*. Al-Jazeera.
- Ezeuduji, I. O. (2013). Nigerian tourists to South Africa: Challenges, expectations, and demands. *Acta Commercii*, 13(1), 170–179. doi:10.4102/ac.v13i1.170
- Faulkner, D., Loewald, C., & Makrelov, K. (2013). Achieving higher growth and employment: Policy options for South Africa (Working Paper WP/13/03). *South African Reserve Bank*, Pretoria: SARB.
- Ferreira, S. (2007). Role of tourism and place identity in the development of small towns in the Western Cape, South Africa. *Urban Forum*, 18, 191–209.
- Fischer-French, M. (2017). How junk status affects you. Retrieved from <http://www.fin24.com/>
- George, B. P., & Henthorne, T. L. (2007). Tourism and the general agreement on trade in services. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 34(3), 136–146. doi:10.1108/03068290710726702
- Gloss, M., McGregor, M., & Brown, B. (2016). *Designing for Labour: Uber and the On-Demand Mobile Workforce*. CHI. doi:10.1145/2858036.2858476
- Goodwin, H. (2008). Tourism, local economic development, and poverty reduction. *Applied Research in Economic Development*, 5(3), 55–63.
- Gooroochurn, N., & Sinclair, T. M. (2005). Economics of Tourism Taxation: Evidence from Mauritius. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(2), 479–498. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2004.10.003
- Gouda, E. A. S. (2012). Problems that impede sustainable tourism development in Egypt. *International Journal of Social, Behavioural, Education, Economic, Business and Industrial Engineering*, 6(11), 2800–2807.



- Guttentag, D. A. (2009). The possible negative impacts of volunteer tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 11(6), 537–551. doi:10.1002/jtr.727
- Hampton, M. P. (2003). Entry points for local tourism in developing countries: Evidence from Yogyakarta, Indonesia. *Geografiska Annaler*, 85(2), 85–101. doi:10.1111/1468-0467.00133
- Harrison, D. (2008). Pro-poor tourism: A critique. *Third World Quarterly*, 29(5), 851–868. doi:10.1080/01436590802105983
- Henama, U. S., & Sifolo, P. P. S. (2017). Uber: The South Africa Experience. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(2), 1–10.
- Hill, T., Nel, E., & Trotter, D. (2006). Small-scale, nature-based tourism as a pro-poor development intervention: Two examples in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *Singapore Journal of Tropical Geography*, 27(2), 163–175. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9493.2006.00251.x
- Hollenhorst, S., Houge-Mackenzie, S., & Ostergren, D. M. (2014). The Trouble with Tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 39(3), 305–319. doi:10.1080/02508281.2014.11087003
- Holloway, C. J. (2009). *The Business of Tourism* (8<sup>th</sup> ed.). Essex, UK: Prentice Hall.
- Honkanen, A., & Mustonen, P. (2007). Tourism consumption revisited-an empirical study of Finish consumers. *Research on Finish Society*, 1, 41–58.
- Jaafar, M., Rasoolimanesh, M., & Lonik, K. A. T. (2015). Tourism growth and entrepreneurship: Empirical analysis of the development of rural hinterlands. *Tourism Management Perspectives*, 14, 17–24. doi:10.1016/j.tmp.2015.02.001
- Jamal, T., & Kim, H. (2005). Bridging the interdisciplinary divide. *Tourist Studies*, 5(1), 55–83. doi:10.1177/1468797605062715
- Jamieson, W., Goodwin, H., & Edmunds, C. (2004). *The contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation*. Source Unknown.
- Juul, M. (2015). *The sharing economy and tourism: Tourist Accommodation*. European Parliamentary Research Service.

### ***Tourism as a Neoliberal Economic Messiah***

Kontogeorgopoulos, N. (2014). The relationship between volunteer tourism and development in Thailand. *Tourism (Zagreb)*, 62(3), 239–255.

Landman, J. P. (2003). *Poverty and Inequality in South Africa, 2004-2014*.

Laurell, C., & Sandstrom, C. (2016). Analysing Uber in social media-Disruptive technology or institutional disruption? *International Journal of Innovation Management*, 20(5), 1–19. doi:10.1142/S1363919616400132

Lea, J. (1988). *Tourism and Development in the Third World*. London, UK: Routledge.

Lee, M. (2002). The implementation of the GATS and its impact on tourism development: A case study of Korea. Unpublished dissertation Bournemouth University, Bournemouth University.

Litheko, A. M., & Potgieter, M. (2016). Residents' awareness and support of tourism in Mahikeng, South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 5(2), 1–17.

Lowitt, S. (2006). *Sector studies and employment scenarios: A view of South Africa's Tourism Sector. Preliminary Findings*. Pretoria: HSRC.

Luke, L. G. (2016). *South Africa-Economic Challenges*. Strategic Analysis Paper. Future Directions International.

Mahony, K. (2007). Certification in the South African tourism industry: The case of Fair Trade in Tourism. *Development Southern Africa*, 24(3), 393–408. doi:10.1080/03768350701445426

Maniatis, A. (2016). Tourism and the 'rule of law.' *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 5(1), 1–13.

Manuela, W. S. Jr, & De Vera, M. J. (2015). The impact of government failure on tourism in the Philippines. *Transport Policy*, 43, 11–22. doi:10.1016/j.tranpol.2015.05.016

Mbaiwa, J. E. (2005). The problems and prospects of sustainable tourism development in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 13(3), 203–227. doi:10.1080/01434630508668554

Mbele, L. (2014). South Africa's economic challenges. Retrieved from: <http://www.bbc.com/news/business/>

- McKay, J. (2012). Natural Resources. Curse of Cure for Africa. Brenthurst Foundation Discussion Paper 5/2012. Retrieved from <https://www.thebrenthurstfoundation.org/>
- Merten, M. (2017). StatsSA Poverty Report 2017: Policies fail the people of South Africa. Retrieved from <https://www.dailymaverick.co.za/>
- Mograbi, J., & Rogerson, C. M. (2007). Maximising the local pro-poor impacts of dive tourism: Sodwana Bay, South Africa. *Urban Forum*, 18, 85-104.
- Mosedale, J. (2016). Tourism and neoliberalism: states, the economy, and society.
- Mutayoba, V., & Mbwete, R. (2013). Is booming tourism in Zanzibar pro-poor? A micro-economic impact analysis. *Kuvukoni Journal*, 1(2), 104–120.
- Nawijn, J. (2011). Happiness through Vacationing: Just a temporary boost or long-term benefits? *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 12(4), 651–665. doi:10.1007/10902-010-9221-y
- Neto, F. (2003). A new approach to sustainable tourism development: Moving beyond environmental protection. DESA Discussion Paper NO.29. United Nations.
- Ngonyama, S. (2016). Top 10 socio-economic problems in SA. Retrieved from <http://www.heraldlive.co.za/>
- Nkanjeni, U. (2017). Airbnb signs Africa's first city agreement with Cape Town. Retrieved from <http://www.fin24.com/>
- Noli, B., & Kirk, D. S. (2016). Uber and Metropolitan Traffic Fatalities in the United States. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 184(3), 192–198. doi:10.1093/aje/kww062 PMID:27449416
- Nyikana, S., & Sigxashe, Z. (2017). Owner/managers perceptions on the influence of the accommodation sector on tourism and local well-being in Coffee Bay. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(4), 1–15.
- Oskam, J., & Boswijk, A. (2016). Airbnb: The future of networked hospitality businesses. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 2(1), 22–42. doi:10.1108/JTF-11-2015-0048
- Overseas Development Institute. (2006). Can tourism help reduce poverty in Africa? Briefing Paper. Retrieved from HTTP: [www.odi.org.uk](http://www.odi.org.uk)

### **Tourism as a Neoliberal Economic Messiah**

Pastran, S. H. (2014). Volunteer tourism: A postcolonial approach. *University of Saskatchewan Undergraduate Research Journal*, 1(1), 45–57.

Pavlovic, D., & Knezevic, M. (2018). *Is contemporary tourism only a neoliberal manipulation?*

PriceWaterhouseCoopers. (2012). SA Mine: Highlighting trends in the South African mining industry. Retrieved from <https://www.pwc.co.za/mining/>

Ramukumba, T. (2016). The role of government in support of tourism businesses: A perspective from guest houses in the Eden district region. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 5(1), 1–14.

Rogerson, C. M. (2004). Regional tourism in South Africa: A case of ‘mass tourism of the South’. *GeoJournal*, 60(3), 229–237. doi:10.1023/B:GEJO.0000034730.05992.18

Rogerson, C. M. (2012). Urban tourism, economic regeneration, and inclusion: Evidence from South Africa. *Local Economy*.

Rogerson, C. M. (2013). Tourism and local development in South Africa: Challenging local government. *African Journal of Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance*, 2, 9–23.

Rogerson, C. M. (2015). Tourism and regional development: The case of South Africa’s distressed areas. *Development Southern Africa*, 32(3), 277–291. doi:10.1080/0376835X.2015.1010713

Rogerson, C. M., & Rogerson, J. M. (2004a). Agritourism and local economic development in South Africa. *Bulletin of Geography. Socio-Economic Series*, 26, 93–106.

Rogerson, C. M., & Rogerson, J. M. (2014b). *2030: The economic contours of “Linking Global City.”*. Johannesburg: American Behavioral Scientists.

Rolfes, M. (2010). Poverty tourism: Theoretical reflections and empirical findings regarding an extraordinary form of tourism. *GeoJournal*, 75(5), 421–442. doi:10.1007/10708-009-9311-8

Rosentraub, M. S., & Joo, M. (2009). Tourism and economic development: Which investments produce gains for regions? *Tourism Management*, xxx, 1–12.

Ryan, C. (2018). More people on welfare than have jobs in SA. Retrieved from <https://www.moneyweb.co.za>

Saayman, M., Rossouw, R., & Krugell, W. (2012). The impact of tourism on poverty in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 29(3), 462–487. doi:10.1080/0376835X.2012.706041

Saayman, M., & Saayman, A. (2012). Shopping tourism or tourists shopping? A case study of South Africa's African tourism market. *Tourism Economics*, 18(6), 1313–1329. doi:10.5367/te.2012.0169

Sharpley, R., & Telfer, D. J. (2004). *Tourism and Development: Concepts and Issues*. Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications.

Shaw, G., Saayman, M., & Saayman, A. (2012). Identifying risks facing the South African Tourism Industry. *SAJEMS*, 15(2), 190–206. doi:10.4102ajems.v15i2.170

Shazi, N. (2018). The impact of VAT on ordinary South Africa. Retrieved from: <http://www.huffingtonpost.co.za>

Sorensen, P. (2012). The Marikana Tragedy. *The International Journal of Environmental Studies*, 69(6), 871–873. doi:10.1080/00207233.2012.734046

Spenceley, A., & Meyer, D. (2012). Tourism and poverty reduction: Theory and practice in less economically developed countries. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(3), 297–317. doi:10.1080/09669582.2012.668909

Steinbrink, M. (2012). “We do the Slum?”-Urban poverty tourism in historical perspectives. *Tourism Geographies*, 14(2), 213–234. doi:10.1080/14616688.2012.633216

Steyn, J. N., & Spencer, J. P. (2011). South African tourism: An historical evaluation of macro tourism policies. *African Journal of Physical, Health Education, and Dance*, 17(2), 178–200.

Theobald, W. (1994). *Global Tourism: The Next Decade*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Torres, R. (2003). Linkages between tourism and agriculture in Mexico. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 546–566. doi:10.1016/S0160-7383(02)00103-2

### ***Tourism as a Neoliberal Economic Messiah***

Tribe, J., & Liburd, J. J. (2016). The tourism knowledge system. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 57, 44–61. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2015.11.011

Turner, L. W., & Reisinger, Y. (2001). Shopping satisfaction for domestic tourists. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 8(1), 15–27. doi:10.1016/S0969-6989(00)00005-9

Twala, C. (2012). The Marikana Massacre: A historical overview of the labor unrest in the mining sector in South Africa. *Southern African Peace and Security Studies*, 1(2), 61–67.

United Nations Development Programme. (2011). Tourism and Poverty Reduction Strategies in the Integrated Framework for Least Developed Countries: A Discussion Paper. Retrieved from [www.undop.org/poverty](http://www.undop.org/poverty)

Van Niekerk, J. P. (2013). The health of mine(r)s. *South African Medical Journal*, 103(1), 3–4. doi:10.7196/SAMJ.6509 PMID:23346564

Van Zyl, G. (2015). Cape Town is Airbnb's top African market. Retrieved from <http://www.fin24.com/>

Vetter, S. (2016). Uber, digital, and disruption: what's happening and why does it work. Retrieved from <https://digotal.pwc.co.nz/ideas/>

Wall, G., & Mathieson, A. (2006). *Tourism: Change, Impacts, and Opportunities*. Essex, UK: Pearson.

Walltsten, S. (2015). The competitive effects of the sharing economy: How is Uber changing Taxi's. *Technology Policy Institute*. Retrieved from <http://www.techpolicyinstitute.org/>

Wearing, S., & McGehee, N. G. (2013). Volunteer tourism: A review. *Tourism Management*, 38, 120–130. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2013.03.002

Wood, R. E. (2005). *Tourism and Globalisation (Liberate Studies Graduation Course, Spring 2005)*. Rutgers.

Yuksel, A. (2004). Shopping experience evaluation: A case of domestic and international visitors. *Tourism Management*, 25(6), 751–759. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2003.09.012

## Section 2

# Glocalization

## Chapter 4

# Glocalisation and Sustainable Business Solutions: Business and Environmental Sustainability

**Michael Abayomi Fowowe**  
*Ekiti State University, Nigeria*

### **ABSTRACT**

*This chapter presents glocalisation as a new global phenomenon in providing sustainable business solutions and preserving durability of the business environment in the tourism and hospitality industry. The chapter reveals that the ‘one strategy fits all’ (universalism) deficiency of globalization brought glocalisation into the limelight as the best alternative strategic approach in sustaining global business relevance and promoting environmental sustainability in the 21st century business era. The strategic mix of globalization and localisation inherent in glocalisation promotes unprecedented economic growth and the development of developing and emerging economies through promotion of their cultural heritage and historical values. The chapter further discloses that prevalent of global warming giving rise to climate change in the tourism and hospitality industry which can be significantly controlled through strategic implementation of a glocal strategy. It is concluded that glocalisation serves a dual-purpose of providing sustainable business solutions and preserving the business environment.*

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-5225-6983-1.ch004

Copyright © 2019, IGI Global. Copying or distributing in print or electronic forms without written permission of IGI Global is prohibited.



## **INTRODUCTION**

Due to the current prevalent changes in the global economy and climate conditions, and their associated adverse effects on business survival, diverse ideologies, paradigms, strategies, policies, theories and concepts have been developed by different industrial economists, political analysts, philosophers, theorists and academic scholars in providing suitable solutions that can both meet current and future market needs for a sustainable period of time. Similarly, dynamic global nature of people and preferences surrounding their buying decision also triggered the need to identify best alternative strategy (per time) i.e. viable in sourcing and delivering sustainable products/services that meet their respective expectations satisfactorily. However, ever since the existence of man, diverse economic ideologies and political philosophies have evolved over time e.g. resurgence of colonialism, post-colonialism, classical liberalism, traditional conservatism, modern conservatism to mention but a few. These have played significant roles in shaping the political and economic perspectives of people. Meanwhile, none of these ideologies was able to provide a workable solution in sustaining business growth and development across the globe, hence, the emergence of neoliberalism.

However, it is worthy of note that the criticism of the ‘freedom and equality’ concept of liberal ideology that gained prominence during the American and French revolution in the late 19th century in sustaining ethical, moral, religion, principle and cultural norms, which defines the concept of individualism, brought neoliberalism into the limelight. The early 20th century of political and economic dispensation experienced the integration of modern conservatism and classical liberalism which gave rise to neoliberalism business idea that supports free-market operations and elimination of trade barriers across the world. More importantly, the strategic idea behind the emergent of neoliberalism as a source of business operational sustenance significantly promotes free movement of property, people, capital and services across borders, which simultaneously gave birth to the relevance of globalization of business operations worldwide. Despite the undeniable evidence of globalisation in enhancing rapid and unprecedented market growth, socio-economic development, and socio-political integrations, it is criticized for its inability in providing sustainable business solutions in the current fast-changing business economy of the 21st century. Hence, this gave rise to the nascent discovery of ‘Glocalisation’ as a typical source of promoting business survival sustainably.

## **Main Focus of the Chapter**

This chapter – ‘Glocalisation and Sustainable Business Solutions’ will be contributing knowledge to the following subject matter:

1. The link between globalisation and glocalisation
2. The emergent of Glocalisation as an alternative sustainable strategy for business solutions
3. Conceptualization of the theory behind glocalisation ideology
4. Glocalisation as a source of sustainable business solutions
5. Glocalisation, sustainability, and tourism and hospitality industry

## **GLOCALISATION: AN EFFECTIVE ALTERNATIVE FOR SUSTAINABLE BUSINESS SOLUTIONS**

Glocalisation, as a business-oriented concept, was first initiated by the Japanese Marketer in the 1980s, which was popularized at the early 1990s by Robertson and Swyngedouw and was acknowledged as one of the new Marketing Buzzwords suitable in sustainable business practices across the globe. This is because it considered multi-faceted cultural differences in the global business operations (Robertson, 1995; Swyngedouw, 1997, 2004). The term ‘Glocalisation’ originated from the Japanese word ‘dochakuka’, which was translated by Robertson to mean amalgamation of particularism (local) and universalism (global) scales in the operationalisation of business across the globe (Khondker, 2004). As narrated by Vitureanu (2013), the essence of glocalisation is to bridge the market gap created by globalisation, with the intention of paying attention to cultural diversities, preferences and peculiarities of consumers across the world. According to Robertson, (2003), standardization practice in globalisation that assumes that “one strategy fits all” only focused on production end (the sellers’ perspectives) and failed to consider the other continuum of consumption (the consumers’ cultural perceptions). In essence, this has created business strategic lacuna that cultural hybridization approach to globalisation aimed to solve. In application and approach, the cultural hybridisation appears to provide concrete roadmap upon which the concept of glocalisation is developed in handling cultural related issues in global business operations. Some of these concepts underpinning the glocalisation ideology will be discussed later in this chapter.

The quest of a famous British-American sociologist - Professor Roland Robertson in understanding the unprecedented market growth in Japan compared to other emerging economies using comparative sociology analysis brought about the emergence of glocalisation. His keen comparative analytical interest in understanding the Japanese societal business peculiarity revealed that the key manufacturing context of Japanese production is characterized by local ideology. However, outcomes of the production are suited for global relevance (Robertson, 1995). This simply implies that Japanese products are created in alignment with local and cultural interest (localization), and also, appealing to international application and acceptance (globalisation). Therefore, the concept and practice of glocalisation in addressing business operations and sustenance are coined from the blend of localisation and globalisation i.e. – creating local context products using global thinking approach. According to the Ritzer (2010), this is referred to as “the interpenetration of the global and the local resulting in unique outcomes in different geographical areas” (p.225).

Similarly, as contributed by Khondker (2004), Menon (2014), and Svensson (2001), a standardised global product can be glocalised through modification, alteration, amendment and communication in driving home its local context. More often than not, most international, multinational and globalised business organisations entering into some of the emerging economies penetrated the market with an existing product but adapting a promotional strategy that is locally oriented through communication e.g. using local target market languages, packaging, the channel of distribution, social media advert etc. Hence, Khondker (2004) postulates that glocalisation is one of the keys undoubtedly consequences of globalisation. In the same light, Robertson (1995) in his twentieth-century postulation classified glocalisation as ‘universalisation of particularised and the particularised of universalism’. However, from the conceptual analysis of Robertson that attributes the interplays relationship between globalisation and localisation as glocalisation can be viewed from two significant marketing perspectives. The first perspective, ‘universalization of particularized’, refers to activities of indigenous organisations in producing locally enhanced products and services that can be marketed globally i.e. infusion of global orientation in the design of culturally enhanced offers by the indigenous producers. Notably, this is commonly practised by the Japanese manufacturers in the eighteenth century. While on the other hand, ‘particularized of universalism’ signifies activities of multinational and international corporations in developing standardized products that are culturally stimulated to meeting particular locale market needs; as mostly practised by Brewery, Conglomerate, and Hospitality organisations. In a simple arithmetic analysis, the first perception implies localisation + globalisation = Glocalisation, while the second option gives globalisation + localisation = Glocalisation. From the arithmetic, it can be deduced from Robertson’s submission that –the ‘interpenetration’ of either of the two ideologies will result in glocalisation.

## **Key Propositions to Concept of Glocalisation**

Based on diverse articulated academic write-ups and other publications, the fundamental ideas surrounding the emergence of glocalisation are based on the followings propositions:

1. **Diversity:** Bedrock and essence of glocalisation business orientation
2. **Globalisation:** It does not eliminate all differences as related to human social existence
3. **Culture and Individualism:** Historical autonomy in culture is a significant factor that makes groups of people in a particular periphery relevantly unique on their own right
4. **Alternative Marketing Strategies:** Glocalisation remains significant strategic marketing alternative to globalisation; it eradicates strategic deficiency created in global marketing by strengthening individual cultural uniqueness for sustainable market solutions.
5. The practice of glocalisation does not give assurance of conflict-free world economy; however, it provides a historical ground upon which cultural relevance is pragmatically based.

## **GLOCAL STRATEGY OF GLOBAL BRAND**

As opined in the contribution of Ritzer (2010), Robertson (2003), and Roudometof (2016), glocalisation is the modification of globalisation, which is necessary for meeting dynamic changes in the business operating global environment. Hence, the strategy behind its adoption and its efficacy in providing sustainable business solutions that meet current market situations, and also, significant in promoting the future relevance of business competitiveness, makes it the most sort after marketing strategy by renowned international organisations (Khondker, 2004). For instance, international organisations like McDonald's, Coca-Cola, Cadbury, Porter and Gambler, etc. adopt a glocal strategic approach in adapting their global brand products in their respective markets around the world. Without any doubt, this has significantly helped most of these corporations to successfully outweigh negative effects of unpredictable changes and unexpected challenges predominant in the operating business environment worldwide.

It is, therefore, axiomatic to know how both local and international organizations adopt the glocal strategy in promoting the reliability, viability and sustainability of their business operations across the world. In understanding the concept and strategic marketing options surrounding glocalisation.

## **Key Sustainable Benefits of Glocalisation**

Glocalisation strategy carries more value-added benefits compared to localisation and globalisation. For more clarifications, here provided are key sustainable benefits inherent in the adaptation of glocalisation strategy;

1. It stimulates a high level of customers' satisfaction and loyalty, which is the primary target of every product/service in the marketplace. Brand of the product and service is more appealing to the target market as the functionalities of the product/service are specifically designed to meet target market needs and want collectively
2. Unlike tactical and operational challenges created in globalisation marketing strategy, glocalisation checkmates these problems by providing balance in strategy formation at the strategic, tactical and operational levels for transnational, international and multinational corporations. More particularly, it harmonises global strategies at the strategic management level with local orientation at the tactical and operational levels of the management structure
3. There are more values, quality and brand loyalty that is attached to a glocal brand, which in turn helps in gaining, retaining and promoting larger market share in the global context.
4. It is the most effective nexus in stimulating economic stability, development and poverty eradication from the perspective of the local actors. As global ideas are inculcated in the local scales, economic growth, stability and development are inevitable; as the market expands through foreign investment influx. The outcome of these activities will yield massive poverty reduction in most of the third world countries.
5. It stimulates effective governance and policy formation that promotes a smooth coalition of global and local scale towards corrective measures in controlling excessiveness and shortcomings of market, economic, socio-cultural and political dynamics and inequalities worldwide.
6. Although production alteration and strategic adaptation to glocalisation increase relevant cost of production and trade from one local market to another, however, it is the best alternative marketing strategic choice that sustains business relevance and competitive trend across the globe.
7. Glocalisation, amongst many other benefits, avails local manufacturers opportunities to combine their cultural values with global quality towards achieving larger qualities, high-profit margin, global market recognition and promoting marketable national heritages.

### ***Glocalisation and Sustainable Business Solutions***

8. Glocalisation is the fastest channel that significantly promotes socio-economic, socio-political and indigenous growth of developing nations. More specifically, Japan, China and Singapore have soared on the wings of glocalisation in leveraging their internal competencies in technology, science, tourism and human capital to stimulate unprecedented economic growth and development of their respective country.
9. More often than not, glocalisation is the best alternative strategy in promoting national and local destination heritages and cultural context for business expansion, the foreign influx of tourists and investment in the tourism and hospitality industry.

### **The Link Between Globalisation and Glocalisation**

In a critical analysis, it is worthy of note that the concept of globalisation is controlled by external forces that are stimulated outside a periphery, however, its concentration and penetration are without the connection to a local context in its stance (Latour, 1993). In other words, a globalized brand is a local product from the perspective of the producer, which is believed to be superior, marketable and more profitable to explore; considering its suitability and strategic-fit in meeting global market needs. Hence, its context is connected to an origin i.e. has means of distribution in connecting to a market and influenced by culturally conscious people that crystallize its consequences. In the context of this analysis, authors like Robertson (1992) and Swyngedouw (2004) tend to analyse this convergence leading to interconnectivity between the local context and global scale as Glocalisation. Globalisation is further clarified as a responsive factor that is coordinated by glocalisation in achieving context-dependent outcomes through a combination of local and global scale. More often than not, the reality of glocalisation is achievable where a key element of global values in strategic thinking is inputted in a locale celebrated context in addressing identified market needs as best suitable in the Tourism and Hospitality Industry. For instance, a five-star hotel in Dubai carrying intercontinental structure with an international standard having touches of local culture elements in its decoration, dressing code, and food and drinks menus.

Similarly, economics field of study that has promoted the relevance and influx of globalisation in stimulating economic growth, foreign direct investment and economics strategic alliances between nations through the theory of comparative advantage is recently adopting the concept of glocalisation in redefining the economic goals of business relationship (Swyngedouw, 2004). More strategically, business

organizations with global business orientations are now penetrating their business tentacles in regions and locale where certain key factors of production (supplier, labour, raw materials, finance etc.) can be easily accessible profitably for their business growth. In this context, these global-oriented business organisations are being locally influenced, managed and territorialised. More importantly, it is worthy of note that monetary aids of local financial institutes, production of output through locally sourced materials, and/or participation of key local people in the organization has naturally altered the global-oriented organisations to a glocal business organisation. A typical example can be traced to business activities international organisations like Silicon Valley, McDonald's, Coca-Cola, Cadbury, Nestle, Sheraton Hotel, and Transcorp Hilton Hotel, who achieved their corporate competitive goals by engaging human capital (people) and materials of their operating locale, which invariably strengthened their business relevance sustainably.

In a more similar strategic way, local-oriented institutions in a particular locale, municipal or periphery can build a global business stage that connects other local institutions from different regions for more effective business operations. This undoubtedly stimulates business penetrations and profit margin that can attract, retain and promote foreign investment relationships. This is further redefined in the work of Lerner (n.d) – 'Glocalisation: The Globalisation of the Local Community'. The unprecedented growth, acceleration of Information Technology and Communication in business networking, and effective operations have consciously increased the inevitability of global business practices and integrations by business organisations in a particular locale. This serves as a key source of business growth, awareness, promotion and market competitive advantage. In the real market sense, no country or region is self-sufficient in actualizing complete market control without engaging some of the key benefits of global apparatus e.g. technology, transportation, networking etc. (Khondker, 2004; Quelch, 2003; Suchacek, 2011). Hence, in achieving its far-reaching and multi-faceted benefits, local and regional institutions attract global influence through the concept of glocalisation.

Nigeria as a case study, naturally endowed with a variety of mineral resources. More specifically, the South-South region (Niger-Delta) of the country is blessed with oil and gas resources. However, due to the self-insufficiency of the region and the country at large to solely extract, process and market the oil and gas products, it engages a group of global oil and gas companies like Chevron, Shell, Total and Mobile for business economic collaboration. Noticeably, the need for these international organisations is not far-fetched because Nigeria does not have a comparative nor absolute advantage in sophisticated technological devices necessary in extracting and processing the product for marketable purposes. However, in the quest of maximizing resource potentials of the region towards boosting massive economic growth and development of the country, and sustaining business relevance of the oil and gas

industry, services of global brand corporations were engaged. Noteworthy, this engagement brought about hybridization of local oil and gas product and integration of globally advanced technologies in promoting glocalisation of the oil and gas industry in Nigeria comparatively. As a significant source of economic sustenance, glocalisation of the Nigerian Oil and Gas industry has evidently enhanced and remains the key performing indicator of her GDP, international business relations, global brand image, and source for infrastructural and industrial development in other sectors e.g. education, IT, transportation, tourism and hospitality, foreign direct investment, to mention but a few (KPMG, 2014)

Another typical example is the globalisation of the Gazimaguza local community in North Cyprus through the structural development of two main streams (Learner, n.d.). Development of standard international airport and effective high way networking of the local community was hybridised with a content of e-commerce connectivity. This massively promotes the local heritage and cultural values of North Cyprus as a global tourism brand for foreign tourists, investors and business gurus around the world. Notably, North Cyprus economy emerges in the late twentieth century as a result of the hybridization of the global internet marketing network that promotes the national and cultural heritage of the country to the global world. This to a large extent has stimulated the massive development of other industries like medical, transportation, education, recreation and logistics that complement activities of the tourism and hospitality industry. According to the theoretical analysis of Marshall McLuhan, emergent of cultural context and global media hybrid has tremendously promoted incessant development of local communities and regions in most emerging economies across the world through influx of social media, online promotional strategy, information collection, internet marketing, data programming and processing integrations (McLuhan & Fiore, 1968; McLuhan & Powers, 1989).

Therefore, considering the possibility of creating global recognition from local brand, here identified are major key drivers that can stimulate effective link of local and global strategies in appreciating the concept of glocalisation:

- Marketable cultural values and relevance
- Need for information technology
- Influence of communication (language) in stimulating buying behaviour
- Unsaturated locale Market needs (Absent of product but the present of the market)
- Profit maximization and market penetration without global hindrances
- Need for Massive Economic Growth & Development
- Locale business attractiveness for Foreign Investment
- Access and availability of market promotion and integration



## **THE CONCEPTUALISATION OF THE THEORY BEHIND GLOCALISATION**

As reiterated in the study of Roudometof (2016), glocalisation as an innovative concept of globalisation has been highly under-theorised; despite its inevitable impacts in restructuring economy, academics, political, business and social sphere across the globe. Although, one cannot deny intensive and articulated literature that have been carried out by diverse authors in the dissimilar field of study in adding to existing streams of glocalisation knowledge, however, the need to underpin its concept to relative theories is inevitable for accurate generalization and acceptability, which is germane in the academic discourse.

The essence of this session of the chapter is to provide a relevant theoretical interpretation that gives meanings and values to the analytical concept of glocalisation as practised around the world. More importantly, the ideology behind theorizing the concept of globalisation will be drawn from the key authors that strengthened the evolution of the concept i.e. George Ritzer, Roland Roberts, Ulrich Beck and Victor Roudometof as earlier reviewed in this chapter. Meanwhile, it should be noted that some of these identified theoretical interpretations in analysing glocalisation have been critically critiqued and have created a basis for academic argument. This is as a result of its conflicting and interwoven relationship with the concept of globalisation and localisation at large.

### **Glocal Market: Non-Existence of Global Market**

Being the frontier theorist of the globalization concept, Robertson is of the opinion that in the real market situations, most especially in the recent 21st era, there is neither global nor local market existence. He iterated that, only glocal market exists and remains the most integrated and best strategic alternative in socio-political, economic and business activities. He further stressed in his analysis that even though globalisation tends to create uniformity and standardization of products/services, its real practice is underpinned by glocal differences and fragmentation of the market, although, this was criticized by Radharkrishnan (2010) and Ritzer (2003). In driving home the conceptual viewpoint of Robertson, it is worthy of note that most of the internationalized and globalized multinational corporations in developing and emerging economies across the world is directly or indirectly practicing glocal business integration. Most specifically, this can be traced to the penetration of Hilton and Sheraton Hotels in sub-Saharan African regions. The organization and resource management of these corporations are successfully controlled by a group

of local human capital, who are culturally driven by their environment. Meanwhile, many renowned global firms have failed to sustain business relevance due to limited consideration of cultural contexts that stimulate buying preferences of people in their operating local market. Therefore, Robertson concluded that ‘glocalisation is the result of the failure of globalisation, which was lost in its own hegemonic project’ (Robertson, 2016).

## **Heterogeneity**

The interrelationship that existed between local and globalisation according to Alexander (2003) brought the concept of heterogeneity into the limelight; as redefined in the ideology surrounding glocalisation. As illustrated by Alexander, glocalisation is seen as globalisation extracted through local. This implies that significance of product/service locality is not annihilated by globalisation, rather, the existence of local in global reshapes operationalisation of business across borders. This to a large extent has given a new paradigm shift in business integration and socio-political relationship towards experiencing global scale through the lenses of locality. Hence, Meyrowitz (2005) emphasised that we are actually living in the era of glocality in all sphere of life. However, it should be clarified that despite the glocality of the global system, the concept of heterogeneity prevails from one locale, region and country to another; depending on how the cultural context is differentiated and utilized in effecting alteration to global scale. Heterogeneity explains the significant diversity in the cultural context of a locale from another, and how each cultural context is mutually impacted by global consciousness and trends around the world.

## **Glocalition**

This concept of ‘glocalition to glocalisation’ was coined out from the analytical view of Ritzer (2003) while supporting the assumption of Robertson that postulated that in the current business era, there is nonexistence of globalisation and localisation. As explained further, Ritzer acknowledged that the conventional local business perspective has been eradicated by the advent of capitalism, which draws its strength from the concept that birth globalisation - neoliberalism. Hence, as soon as the locality concept of production disappears, the reality of glocality comes to play i.e. the mutual exclusiveness of local and global balance. However, Ritzer critiques the optimistic generalization of benefits associated to glocalisation by Robertson without conscious consideration to the dual perspective of the concept. This dual perspective births the outcome of glocalition and globalisation.

According to Ritzer, globalisation is explained as a factor that is based on growth and advancement pursued by business organisations and nationals in expanding market base across the border by offering same products through the same channels and in the same way to target the global market. Hence, it is classified as hard imperialism that brought about the business concept of Americanisation. While on the other hand, glocalisation is explained as ‘soft and subtle colonialism’ that breaks the status quo of locality in business promotional strategies, cross-cultural marketing and business integrations, as adapted by fast-growing international and multinational corporations around the world e.g. Nike, Starbucks and Procter & Gamble (Roudometof, 2016). More importantly, and as contributed by Ram (2004), glocalisation is one significant marketing strategy adopted by McDonald in penetrating its uniquely different market across the globe by consciously considering cultural differences in taste of each locale and customising products that meet such specific taste profitably and sustainably.

## **Lobalisation**

Lobalisation, as propounded in the work of Chew (2010), is a new cultural phenomenon that explains the interesting retribution aspect of local on global. The concept of lobalisation is explained as functional activities or strategic attempts of manufacturers/producers in a particular locale that involve packaging and distribution of locally made products to the local people in disguise as foreign imported ones. More often than not, this is commonly practised in most emerging economies like China, India, Brazil etc. that has full production capacity in imitating the global brand competently. This is also peculiar in the sub-Saharan African country like Nigeria, where locally made wears e.g. shoes, bags, belt, undies etc. in Aba (South East Region of the country) are branded as products made in advanced countries like the USA, England or Italy. Most of these lobalised products are often marketed in metropolitan cities of the country and to other neighbouring countries like Ghana, Niger, Benin Republic, Togo, to mention but a few. However, quality, durability and prices of such products are questionable; compared to the original global ones. One significant negative effect of the penetration and prevalent practices of lobalisation is that it is broadly marketed across borders, hence, creating a significant threat to true local creativities and degrading the brand image of the original internationalized products (Chew, 2010).

## **Cultural Hybridization**

One significant point of view as addressed by cultural hybridization is rooted in its systematic integration of different cultural values in determining appropriate business production approach suitable for meeting global market needs (Vizureanu,

2013). The philosophical view of this concept postulated that amalgamation of global (multi-culture) and local cultural strategic trends will stimulate arrival of new cultural paradigm shift suitable in sustaining acceptance and relevance of glocalisation practice. Although this new cultural paradigm is more complicated, complex and unclear, however, it is a significant alternative approach in addressing related issues in globalisation. Hence, Ritzer (2011) classified cultural hybridization as “a very positive, even romantic, view of globalisation as a profoundly creative process out of which emerges new cultural realities and continuing, if not increasing, heterogeneity in many different locales” (p.159). From this perspective, it can be deduced that the conceptual analysis of cultural hybridization strengthens the feasibility of glocalisation concept of differential cultural values in several locales in interpenetration with global business orientations, thereby, resulting in unique production outcomes in addressing different locale market needs (Ritzer, 2011). As further stressed in one of the basic analysis of Ritzer, the theory of glocalisation as originated from cultural hybridization connotes that individual and group of people within a particular locale has the creative power to be more innovative in adapting to global business opportunities due to social interactions, processes and contingencies within a glocalised business economy (Vizureanu, 2013). Therefore, a critical fundamental concept of cultural hybridization as promoted in glocalisation can be illustrated from the perspective of combining two or more locale cultures with part of global ones in production processes towards addressing different locale market consumption need.

Notably, this is practised in some key sectors from the tourism and hospitality industry e.g. sports, entertainment, fashion, food and drinks. The ideology surrounding this concept is aimed at providing integrated global products/services that meet consumption needs peculiar to a particular locale. For instance, a group of tourists from Nigeria visiting England (a soccer cultural-based country) to watch a football match between Argentina and Mexico (two American countries) in satisfying their entertainment need. However, it is worthy of note that this illustrated sample portrayed the reality of three key concepts in global business operations, and these are; (i) globalisation (ii) Cultural hybridization and (iii) glocalisation. The globalisation concept comes to play where soccer is seen as a product that addresses homogeneity of the global market; cultural hybridization is realized where there is blend of various culture from different country i.e. Africa (Nigeria), Europe (England), and America (Argentina and Mexico); while on the other end of the continuum, glocalisation emerges where local-cultural norm of England (soccer) is used to meet consumption needs of a global market. In a nutshell, the illustration provides vivid analysis of glocalisation evolution from globalisation through cultural hybridization business orientation concept. Although, this concept seems complicated as criticized by other

theorists like Khondker, however, its cultural reality in influencing and sustaining business operations in this 21st business era cannot be denied.

In the argument of Khondker (2004), classifying hybridization of cultures with glocalisation may be misleading in its practical reality. According to him, one significant factor that underpins the concept of glocalisation is the combination of different cultural processes, of which one must be indigenously grounded in the cultural context of a target locale. This simply implies that for a product to be classified as glocal offering in a target marketplace, such product must possess at least one cultural identifiable value that is peculiar to that particular market. For instance, for Coca-Cola to fulfil the glocal marketing strategy of its beverage drinks in India, it must set priority in blending its global beverage production to include the peculiar traditional flavour of India fruits and beverages in the content of its product. Furthermore, in his grounded debate, Khondker acknowledged that, although cultural hybridization has similar characteristics with glocalisation from the perspective of the interpenetration of cultural diversity in determining suitable offering for market acceptance, however, its distinctive conceptual ideology can be attained without necessarily inculcating the local cultural context of its target market. This simply means that hybridization ideology can be accepted in a locale without necessarily focusing on the local cultural context. Khondker (2004) traced a typical example to the higher education system in Singapore, where there is acceptance of combination of the American and British model without any component model that addresses Singapore local context. He then concluded that for glocalisation to be meaningful in its context there should (at least) be a significant element of the product content that addresses cultural peculiarity of the local target market, hence, hybridization is not naturally glocalisation.

## **Creolization**

As developed from the term 'creole,' creolization is another typical concept inherent in glocalisation, which is also initiated by Ritzer in his analysis of intercultural processes. It is used to signify the existence of a mixture of races and languages amongst a particular set of people in an enclosed society. Hence, as narrated by Ritzer (2011), creolization is the amalgamation of cultures and languages of a set of people 'that were previously unintelligible to one another' (p. 160). From the perspective of Nye (2006), creolization is related to the concept of glocalisation in a logical manner that promotes evolvement of diversities from intercultural negotiation. Typical examples he identified were related to the mixture of "Cuban-Chinese cuisine, Norwegian country-western music, and Trini homepages" (p. 607). More particularly, the essence of creolization strategic idea in sustaining business relevance is rooted in its inherent ability in generating innovative but differentiated

production in goods and services that meet diverse consumer preferences based on individualism through combination of marketable cultures that can be re-exported within a particular boundary; more particularly, in the Western World (Ritzer, 2011).

Creolisation serves the purpose of lending and mixing different aspect of cultural differences in a particular region by creating value that integrates these cultures satisfactorily. Similarly, the concept of creolization as rooted in glocalisation is an essential strategic measure targeted in boosting sustenance of business operations in the tourism and hospitality industry through the provision of multicultural values in a product/service that meets differentiated service users' needs within a periphery. With this ideology, tourism and hospitality service providers consider many intercultural issues that can be integrated profitably as marketable strategies in gaining market relevance and sustenance.

## **GLOCALISATION, SUSTAINABILITY, AND THE TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY**

Invalidating acceptability and generalisation of a concept, theory or principle, its sustainability effect must be guaranteed in standing the test of time. Hence, due to the inconsistency of the environmental forces and the recent emergent of global change, every individual, business organization, industry, and government are doing everything possible within their reach to ensure survival by all means. Most specifically, corporate organisations that have invested huge capital in running business operations at local, region, state or global level are always on the lookout in ensuring projected returns on investment are sustained (Verstappen, 2009). In achieving this, every effort is put together either by adapting, modifying, aligning, or diversifying to suit concurrent and prevailing business strategy that can deliver expected organizational strategic goals effortlessly in the quest of sustaining competitive relevance in the operative marketplace (Kotler & Keller, 2012). However, it is worthy of note that ever since the advent of science and technology, increase in human density and cultural diversity, the quest for socio-economic growth and political sovereignty, no single concept, theory, ideology, principle nor strategy has been able to provide a lasting solution to the world problem(s). More often than not, due to the consistency of change over time as influenced by forces in the global environment, there have always been evolvment, evolution, advancement, or adjustment of existing concepts, theories or ideologies as an alternative option in meeting the current environmental situation per time. In a more strategic option, since change remains inevitable, global business concept evolves. Hence, reliability and acceptability of new concept must, therefore, be able to meet current and possible future business environment scenario for a sustainable period (Martens & Raza, 2010).

A typical example can be traced to the evolution of world economic concept from the era of liberalism, conservatism, capitalism, neoliberalism, globalism, localism to a new current concept of glocalism. Therefore, the big question here focuses on whether the new concept of glocalism (glocalisation) will be able to provide sustainable business solutions in meeting the current trend of operations in the tourism and hospitality industry effectively, efficiently and profitably. According to Jones, Hillier & Comfort (2014), Martens & Raza (2010), Verstappen (2009), sustainability is an urgent but ethical business obligation necessary in ensuring that outcomes of implemented alternative strategy in business operations achieve expected result competitively for a long period of time. Hence, it entails continuous, steady and maintaining standard of achieving expected business outcomes over a period of time; without an iota of declining. In lieu of achieving sustainable outcome from adapted business strategy, it is the desire of every entrepreneur, business owner and manager to maintain level of consistency in competitive strengths, market share, profit margin, market relevance, brand loyalty, numbers of acquired customers and more importantly, business survival; notwithstanding the dynamic nature and unpredictability level of change in the operating marketing environment (Jones et al., 2014).

Although there is no consensus agreed definition of sustainability, however, the ideology is always directed towards specific goal i.e. stimulating corporate, social and economic activities towards meeting present needs without necessarily compromising need of the future generation. Hence, as opined in the work of Jones et al. (2013), sustainability is defined as current developmental activities by individuals, corporate organisations and/or governmental bodies aimed at meeting present socio-economic needs without compromising the opportunities of future generation needs. The basic principle of sustainability holds that notwithstanding possible associated social, political and economic benefits inherent in present developmental activities if such activities will affect needs of future generations, they are therefore unethical, hence, should not be executed. As further contributed by the World Tourism Organization, sustainable tourism practice is the application of alternative business solution in meeting identified current tourism market needs, and at the same time, protecting, promoting and increasing potentialities of the environment for the future (Padin, 2012). This simply implies that the quest of gaining economic-wealth while meeting increasing tourism market needs should not be at the detriment of socio-economic, cultural integrity, and aesthetic destinations that support stakeholders' life in the future. It is, therefore, axiomatic to ensure that identified solutions in meeting business strategic needs and market profitability in

the tourism industry must first pass the test of supporting long-term future protection of the environment, the populace, and business organisations in the industry before application (United Nation World Tourism Organisation (UNWTO), 2013). This is necessary in order to ensure that today's result-oriented strategic practice in the industry does not inhibit growth and relevance of the tourist environment in the future. Hence, as illustrated by Padin (2012), effective strategic planning on the three basic elements of the tourism and hospitality environment (ecology, social and economic) is significantly necessary in aligning typical stakeholders' social aspect with the ecological and economic system of the environment, in order to attain sustainable socio-economic and socio-ecological efficiency.

Furthermore, a critical investigation conducted by Jones et al. (2014) on top ten hotel chain, identified six major obligated responsibilities publicly highlighted by a global hotel as a corporate ethical approach in upholding the principle of environmental sustainability. These highlighted corporate sustainability commitments are:

1. Conscious change against greenhouse gas emissions
2. Positive attitude towards preservation of energy and water resources
3. Effective approach to waste management and recycling
4. Only sustainable produce is sourced and offered for service users
5. Natural resources preservation and protection
6. Minimizing possible business activities that can stimulate environmental stress and degradation

## **GLOBAL WARMING AND CLIMATE CHANGE IN THE TOURISM AND HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY**

According to the report submitted by the UNWTO (2010), the tourism industry contributes an average of 5% of global emission of carbon dioxide, which is further estimated to increase by an average of 130% comes 2035. With this projection, it implies that the tourism and hospitality industry remain one of the major industries contributing to the significant impact of global climate change worldwide. Furthermore, the population density of the global market is increasing consistently on a geometric basis, leading to the massive need for leisure, pleasure, comfort, travelling, and other business activities offered in the industry. UNWTO (2013) further reviewed that activities of the industry in meeting rising tourism and hospitality market needs has increased its domestic global products, and distance flight-travelling



to tourist attractive destinations around the world. This, in turn, increases its high rate of energy consumption, emission of substances, deforestation, and extension of land usage for economic gains. Although, the industrial activities promote socio-cultural, political and economic development, and enhance human empowerment at the macro level, however, more often than not, they have far-reaching negative effects on the environment, climate condition and future health of the populace in particular (Aragon-Correa, Matin-Tapia & Torre-Ruiz, 2015; Harris, Griffin & Williams, 2012). Hence, without doubt, this considerably calls for identification of best alternative strategic measure suitable in managing, promoting and protecting the business environment and climate upon which tourism and hospitality activities are been conducted globally.

Similarly, due to global change events posting significant threat in the tourism and hospitality industry worldwide, the continuous effort has been undertaken in developing diverse strategic ideas that will provide working and sustainable solutions in the industry. Hence, this makes sustainability issue in the industry a global perspective (Harris et al., 2012). As the world is continuously integrated globally, the impact of the environmental activities continues to have a far-reaching effect on the way of doing business around the world. For instance, the recent global financial crisis in the US, deforestation, environmental pollution and degradation in Africa, the war in the East and Asia countries, to mention but a few, has undeniably created global issues (global warming & change in weather) that are far becoming key concern worldwide. Many have shifted the blame on the emergent of globalisation and uncontrolled activities of multinational corporations leading to environmental pollution, unethical land use practice, and in compliance to international policies on environmental protection for sustainable future use (Marten & Raza, 2010). More often than not, consequences of these identified activities have created inevitable global issues affecting business successful operations in the tourism and hospitality industry worldwide (Harris et al., 2012; Jones et al., 2014).

### **Glocalisation: Strategy for Tourism and Hospitality Sustainability**

More specifically, studies have revealed that key motivator that enhances the efficiency of tourism and hospitality in any country is underpinned by its natural destination attractiveness, which is a factor of its local content. Meanwhile, as postulated by David (2009) and Jayawardena (2013), this local content is a function of a local cultural context. Hence, this implies that destination management of cultural context of a

particular locale is an insightful effort in advancing the development of rural tourism. The work of Salazar (2005) further revealed that to promote sustainable efficiency and productivity of local, regional or national tourism, the concept of glocalisation needs to be integrated. Amongst other strategic benefits of glocalisation ineffective destination management, it remains the key sustainable force in protecting, promoting and commercializing local cultural heritages competitively. It also helps in attracting foreign tourists and investors; which in turn boosts socio-economic activities of the host communities. More importantly, as a sustainable strategic approach, the content of glocalisation enhances effective management and promotion of attractive local destinations that can be marketed through the global strategic lenses for massive development of rural tourism (Aragon-Correa et al., 2015).

Noticeably, many countries have gained global recognition and international brand image through modification, development and market-promotion of their local destinations, national heritage, cultural values and traditional rites in the tourism and hospitality industry. Typical examples include countries like Cyprus, Turkey, United Arab Emirate (UAE), Kenya, Egypt, and Australia. As also practiced by some of the first world countries, key events are hosted periodically, and sometimes, occasionally in promoting their national competencies through the industry towards gaining global acceptance, recognition, and economic worth. Some of these key events include hosting of festivals, sports competitions, educational tours, religious rites, talent hunts, entertainment awards, to mention a few. Example include Lawn Tennis Grand Slam tournament e.g. French Open in France, Wimbledon Open in the United Kingdom, Australia Open in Australia; English Premier League in the United Kingdom; Kentucky Derby in the US; Muslim pilgrims to Mecca, in Saudi Arabia, and Christian pilgrims to Jerusalem, Israel.

In light of this, many other countries struggling economically are now shifting focus in consolidating glocalisation efforts in rejuvenating their local capacities, natural resources and cultural values with collaborative supports from foreign investors towards attaining sustainable economic recovery and growth through the tourism and hospitality industry. A typical example is the case of the Federal Republic of Nigeria. The country, for long, has been practicing mono-economy system; depending mainly on the economic returns from the oil and gas industry which accounts for over 85% of its GDP. The recent fall in global oil price in the early 21st century has a negative significant impact on the country's economy, which almost crippled business activities and survival of many organisations. Notably, the rate of unemployment, poverty, inflation, and interest rate consistently increases, leading to unprecedented economic recession in 2016/2017. In light of this, the Nigeria federal government

through the ministry of information and culture decided to shift focus from the oil and gas industry in 2015 towards rebuilding content growth of the national tourism and hospitality industry (Richards, 2015; The Nigeria Voice, 2018). The Minister of Information and Culture - Alhaji Lai Muhammed and his team developed a 5-year roadmap geared towards collaborating with local and foreign investors in reviving multi-cultural heritage and values that can be marketed globally in Nigeria, and as a key indicator for economic recovery and sustainability (Babatunde, 2015). The result of this local-global alignment has significant impact promotion of the movie (Nollywood) and music (entertainment) sectors of the industry tremendously. In recent years, Nigerian artists are collaborating with artists, producers and marketers globally towards the economic growth of the industry. More importantly, glocalisation of the Nigeria entertainment and movie market, which has gained global recognition and marketable commercials around the world, has been a significant and sustainable bat in redeeming the global brand image of the country (Ajunwa, 2012; barbaric.com, 2017; Kolawole, 2017).

From another perspective, the prevalent nature of insurgency and insecurity in Nigeria, which has claimed lives and destruction of properties across the length and breadth of the country, do not portray the good image of the country around the globe. Primarily, kidnapping and killing of expatriates and foreign tourists in the South-South region of the country triggered global pronouncement that tags Nigeria as a danger zone for the tourist destination. Additionally, insurgent activities of the Islamic extremists popularly known as 'Boko Haram' – (war against Western Education and Civilization) exposed the North East region of the country to the consistent bombing of attractive destinations and amusement parks, killing of religious and community leaders, and recently, hostage keeping of innocent secondary school girls. These have painted the country's image negatively from the global perspective, thereby portraying Nigeria as a terrorist country (Adebayo, 2015; Financial Intelligence, 2013). However, in seeking the release of the abducted girls, international leaders, celebrities, NGOs, Human Right Activists and the likes gave their support in fighting against the insurgency in the country. This also led to the social media hash tag campaign that went viral in 2014 – '#BringBackOurGirls' (Elueze, 2018; Gaffey, 2017). Beyond the internal capability of the Nigeria government in restoring peace in these identified regions, the first two years of the newly elected Buhari led administration in 2015 experienced high closing down of multinational companies, sales-off of foreign investments, redeployment of expatriates to other countries, and economic disengagement with major countries across the World.

According to Adebayo (2015), the aftermath effects of insurgency and insecurity in Nigeria undoubtedly crippled financial strength and economic independence of the country in meeting expected socio-economic and political responsibilities. However, the need for radical restructuring of the economy was identified as an alternative strategic measure in stimulating fast economic recovery and sustainability. In achieving this, rebranding Nigeria image in a new perspective for international consumption and acceptance remains inevitable in attracting foreign direct investment, international business and economic alliance (Adeniyi, 2016). Hence, the Nigeria government redefined her tourism and hospitality industry by providing funds and support for the entertainment sector in promoting attractive destinations and cultural heritage of the country. More often than not, movies, drama and musical scene shoots are taking in major amusement parks, tourist destinations and five stars hotels in promoting a good brand image of the country, which is later marketed and sold worldwide. In the second quarter of 2017, Nigeria recovered from economy recession considerably. Notably, a substantial part of this recovery was generated through glocalisation of major industries in Nigeria. Therefore, glocalisation remains a key strategic solution in sustaining business relevance and competitive capacities in the current unpredictable environmental changes (Lerner, n.d; Svensson, 2001).

Another example is the sustainability mandate adopted in the Canadian Hospitality sector in ensuring activities of firms, industry and government align with recommendations submitted by the World Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) (Kuosmanen & Kuosmanen, 2009). The Canadian tourism and hospitality industry, through a collaborative effort with the Ontario Ministry of Tourism and Recreation, ensures that activities of key stakeholders in the industry are consistently weighed, measured and reported on a regular basis. Notably, this is done in evaluating how best their activities support environmental and quality of life sustainability. This is achieved by designing measurable goals and standard with respective performances of stakeholders on environmental, natural resources and cultural preservation and conversation. Similarly, performance is also weighed on the application of green practices for long-term viability in the industry (Herremans et al., 2011).

Notably, as reported by the Canada Tourism Commission, sustainability of the Canadian hospitality sector is based on thorough research and conscious effort in developing basic planning for viability and reliability of the industry (Jayawardena, Polland, Chort, Choi & Kibicho, 2013). For instance, the sector consistently carries out prediction of key travel indicators through forecasting. This serves as a tool in structuring best practices that will aid sustainability of the industry e.g. investigating

into the country of origin, cultural values, occupation, demographics, preferences and possible numbers of service users that will likely travel for pleasure or leisure in exploring tourist destinations in key places across the country. Furthermore, the Canadian government through her agency – Canada Tourism Commission provides regulations and policies that guide structural buildings of the hospitality sector. This is to ensure that construction of hotels and resorts does not inhibit the quality of life nor influence environmental degradation and emission of greenhouse gas (GHG), which could stimulate environmental pollution (Jayawardena et al., 2013). These are to ensure that construction processes and engineering structure of the hospitality buildings do not aid global warming nor pose a significant threat to the environment and standard of living of the society in the future.

More significantly, the Canadian Tourism Commission utilized the glocalisation strategy in two basic ways of providing sustainable business solutions for the viability of the industry. These two strategic approaches are; (i). consolidation of the natural and cultural resources of the country, and (ii). engagement of both tourism and hospitality guests productively. Primarily, major natural, cultural and man-made resources of the country are consolidated in providing quality and safe services in the industry. In addition, this helps in promoting health and safety of service users, creating sustainable markets, and ensure best practice of local control of the resources for sustainable global utility (Harris et al., 2012). On the other hand, foreign guests of the industry are corporately engaged in using bicycles as a proxy for cars in plying short distance destinations to their respective lodged hotels. Similarly, hospitality guests are encouraged to always switch off lights in order to save energy whenever they are away from their apartments. In addition, host guests are also motivated to choose from locally made menus, which are fresh, green and highly economical. This to a large extent will not only promote prominence of the sustainability mandate but will also engage tourists and hotel guests to consciously act green (Jayawardena et al., 2013).

### **Key Elements of Glocalisation Sustainable Benefits in Tourism and Hospitality Industry**

Glocalisation, as an effective and instrumental strategy, provides the following added-value advantages to the tourism and hospitality industry across the world:

### ***Glocalisation and Sustainable Business Solutions***

1. It guarantees both local and foreign investors long-term benefits and returns on their invested capitals towards the promotion of the natural heritage and cultural values in the industry
2. It promotes ethical ecotourism practice that enhances socio-economic, governance policy, and ecological growth and development of the hosting locale
3. It has far-reaching and ripple effects in stimulating the mass development of other complementary and supplementary sectors in the industry e.g. transportation, local market sales, ICT (e-commerce), entertainment, media publicity, brand promotion, etc.
4. It boosts reliability and confidence in the portfolio and direct foreign investments
5. It is a significant and reliable source in rejuvenating the attractive brand image of a nation effortlessly; as it promotes the natural and cultural heritage of the target region economically
6. It is a key motivating factor in driving economic worth of developing countries to emerging nations
7. It preserves and conserves tourist destinations, ecological and biological environment of the host countries; in meeting current and future market trends sustainably
8. It boosts renewal of natural resources and protection of the business environment against pollution and degradation
9. It aids massive infrastructural development and installation of basic facilities that have a direct impact on quality of life and living standard of people in the host communities
10. Basically, glocalisation of business activities in the tourism and hospitality is sustainable when contributed efforts in promoting growths and development in the industry do not have direct/indirect economic detriment, damage, negative change or unfavourable effects on other industry, cultural practice an inheritance of people hosting the tourist attractive destinations.

### **Recommendations for Effective Glocal Strategic Approach in Promoting Sustainability of the Tourism and Hospitality Sustainability**

The following recommendations provide tangible criteria in fulfilling effective practice of glocal strategy towards attaining global sustainability mandate of the tourism and hospitality industry:

1. Maximally promote a combination of social and economic (socio-economic) benefits in the best interest of the hosting communities
2. Promote best tourism and hospitality practices that will drastically reduce damage to local tourist destinations, cultural values and traditional heritage
3. Preservation and conservation of the environment from degradation and pollution
4. Develop sustainability plan as a key corporate strategy and practice in the organization policies i.e. as a key element of the organization culture, regulation and legislation.
5. Engage ecotourism activities that protect against global warming
6. Business policies and strategic approach should focus on promoting stakeholders' quality of life in the future; through the display of ethical practices in the current business affairs and responsibilities
7. Adoption of 'Go-Green' as a best practice for all stakeholders in the industry
8. Formulation of policies, regulations and binding legislation that support elimination (or reduction) of gas and carbon emission by activities of the industry
9. Performance evaluation and annual reporting on firms compliance and safety practices in protecting the business environment and people in the society
10. Collective global corporate social responsibility (GCSR) in conscious environmental management
11. Establishment and empowerment of independent commissions charged with the primary objective of monitoring and controlling developmental activities that could have detrimental effects on future generations
12. Ensure total quality control management in hospitality buildings and commercialization of tourism destinations

## REFERENCES

- Adebayo, K. (2015). The menace of Boko Haram in hospitality patronage in Nigeria and its effect on health and healthcare. *Developing Country Studies*, 5(8), 161–166.
- Adeniyi, B. (2016). How Nollywood can Promote Nigeria's Hospitality Industry (blog post). *Jumia*. Retrieved from <https://travel.jumia.com/blog/ng/how-nollywood-can-promote-nigerias-hospitality-industry-5318>
- Ajunwa, C. (2012). Nigeria's Tourism Industry gets International Recognition. *All Africa*. Retrieved from <http://allafrica.com/stories/201211060298.html>
- Alexander, J. (2003). *The Meaning of Social Life: A Cultural Sociology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. doi:10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195160840.001.0001
- Aragon-Correa, A., Martin-Tapia, I., & Torre-Ruiz, J. (2015). Sustainability issues and hospitality and tourism firms' strategies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(3), 498–522. doi:10.1108/IJCHM-11-2014-0564
- Babatunde, J. (2015). Tourism: Linking Bridge to Economy Diversification. *Vanguard News*. Retrieved from <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2015/11/tourism-linking-bridge-to-economy-diversification/>
- Barbaric.com. (2017). *Lagos Emerging as the Hub of Tourism and Entertainment in Africa – Ambode*. Retrieved from <https://www.barbaric.com.ng/lagos-tourism-entertainment-africa/>
- BBC News. (2017) *Amazon Sorry over India Flag Doormat Fiasco*. Retrieved from <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-asia-india-38606101>
- Bhattacharya, A. (2017). India's Foreign Minister threatened to deny Amazon Executives Visas for Selling Doormats Featuring Indian Flags. *QZ*. Retrieved from <https://qz.com/883059/indias-foreign-minister-threatened-to-deny-amazon-amzn-executives-visas-for-selling-doormats-with-indian-flags/>
- Chew, M. (2010). Delineating the emergent global cultural dynamic of 'lobalisation': The case of pass-off menswear in Chin. *Journal of Media and Cultural Studies*, 24(4), 559–571. doi:10.1080/10304310903222599
- David, L. (2011). Tourism ecology: Towards the responsible, sustainable tourism future. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 3(3), 210–216. doi:10.1108/17554211111142176



Devika. (2015). What is Glocalisation? Who all have made it big? *Maps of India*. Retrieved from <https://www.mapsofindia.com/my-india/business/what-is-glocalization-who-all-have-made-it-big>

Douglas, K. (2015). How we made it in Africa – McDonald’s in Nigeria: It’s not about if, it’s about when. *How we made it in Africa*. Retrieved from <https://www.howwemadeitinafrica.com/mcdonalds-in-nigeria-its-not-about-if-its-about-when/52504/>

Egole, A. (2015, March 3). Guinness Celebrates Olamide, Eva, Phyno. *Vanguard News* Retrieved from <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2015/09/guinness-celebrates-olamide-eva-phyno/>

Elueze, I. (2018). Bring Back Nigeria’s 200 missing School Girls #BringBackOurGirls. *Change.org*. Retrieved from <https://www.change.org/p/all-world-leaders-bring-back-nigeria-s-200-missing-school-girls-bringbackourgirls>

Fedor, M. (2012). *Global Marketing: Standardization or Adaptation?* [Google search results]. Retrieved from <http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:w6Kxjio9vIIJ:www.vuzf.bg/UserFiles/Files/GlobalMarketingStandardizationorAdaptation.pptx+&cd=6&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=ng>

Gaffey, C. (2017). Bring back our Girls: A brief history of what we know about the Missing Chibok women. *Newsweek*. Retrieved from <http://www.newsweek.com/chibok-girls-boko-haram-583584>

Grigorescu, A., & Zaif, A. (2017). The concept of glocalisation and its incorporation in global brands’ marketing strategies. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 6(1), 70–74.

Harris, R., Griffin, T., & Williams, P. (2012). *Sustainability Tourism: A Global Perspective*. London: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Herremans, R., Pyasi, N., & Lu, J. (2011). The journey toward sustainability reporting: How accountable are the tourism industry? *Tourism Recreation Research*, 36(3), 247–257. doi:10.1080/02508281.2011.11081670

Iyengar, R. (2017). Amazon has an India Problem. *CNN*. Retrieved from <http://money.cnn.com/2017/01/26/technology/amazon-india-products-outrage/index.html>

- Jayawardena, C. (2013). Innovation solutions for future tourism development in Sri Lanka (2013-2026). *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 5(5), 512–531. doi:10.1108/WHATT-05-2013-0033
- Jayawardena, C., Pollard, A., Chort, V., Choi, C., & Kibicho, W. (2013). Trends and sustainability in the Canadian tourism and hospitality industry. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 5(2), 132–150. doi:10.1108/17554211311314164
- Jones, P., Hillier, D., & Comfort, D. (2013). Sustainability in the global hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 26(1), 5–17. doi:10.1108/IJCHM-10-2012-0180
- Khondker, H. (2004). Glocalisation as globalisation: Evolution of a sociological concept. *Bangladesh e-Journal of Sociology*, 1(2), 12–20.
- Kolawole, O. (2017). Understanding the Economics of Tourism in Nigeria. *Leadership*. Retrieved from <https://leadership.ng/2017/05/07/understanding-the-economics-of-tourism-in-nigeria/>
- Kotler, P., & Keller, K. (2012). *Marketing Management* (14th ed.). London, UK: Prentice Hall.
- KPMG. (2014). *Nigeria's Oil and Gas Industry Brief*. Retrieved from <http://www.blog.kpmgafrica.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/10/Nigerias-oil-and-gas-Industry-brief.pdf>
- Kuosmanen, T., & Kuosmanen, N. (2009). How not to measure sustainability value (and how one might). *Ecological Economics*, 69(2), 235–243. doi:10.1016/j.ecolecon.2009.08.008
- Latour, B. (1993). *We have never been Modern*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Lerner, I. (n.d.) Glocalisation – the globalisation of the local community [Google search result]. Retrieved from <http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:PYZxttXIghMJ:apps.acsa-arch.org/resources/proceedings/uploads/streamfile.aspx%3Fpath%3DACSA.FALL.11%26name%3DACSA.FALL.11.16.pdf+%&cd=2&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=ng>
- Levit, T. (1983). The globalisation of markets. *Harvard Business Review*, 6(3), 92–102.

- Marten, P., & Raza, M. (2010). Is globalisation Sustainable? *Sustainability*, 2(1), 280–293. doi:10.3390u2010280
- Mayrowitz, J. (2005). The Rise of Glocality: New Senses of Place and Identity in the Global Village. In K. Nyiri, (Ed.), *A Sense of Place: The Global and the Local in Mobile Communication* (pp. 21-30). Vienna, Austria: Passagen.
- McLuhan, M., & Fiore, Qi. (1968). *War and Peace in the Global Village*. New York, NY: Bantam.
- McLuhan, M., & Powers, B. (1989). *The Global Village*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Menon, R. (2014). Global or glocal: The future course for strategy? *Global journal of Finance and Management*, 6(5), 427-432.
- Nye, S.E. (2006). Technology and the production of difference. *American Quarterly*, 58(3), 597–618. doi:10.1353/aq.2006.0064
- Osland, J. (2003). Broadening the debate; The pros and cons of globalisation. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 12(2), 137–154. doi:10.1177/1056492603012002005
- Padin, C. (2012). A sustainable tourism planning model: Components and relationships. *European Business Review*, 24(6), 510–518. doi:10.1108/09555341211270528
- Quelch, J. (2003). *The return of the global brand*. Boston: Harvard Business Review.
- Radhakrishnan, S. (2010). Limiting Theory: Rethinking Approach to Cultures of Globalisation. In B. Turner (Ed.), *Routledge International Handbook of Globalisation* (pp. 22-41). London, UK: Routledge.
- Ram, U. (2004). Glocommodification: How the global consumes the local—McDonald's in Israel. *Current Sociology*, 52(1), 11–31. doi:10.1177/0011392104039311
- Richards, O. (2015). *Tourism as a Way of Diversifying Economy*. Retrieved from <https://guardian.ng/features/tourism-as-a-way-of-diversifying-economy/>
- Ritzer, G. (2003). Rethinking globalisation: Glocalization/globalisation and something/nothing. *Sociological Theory*, 21(3), 11–31. doi:10.1111/1467-9558.00185
- Ritzer, G. (2004). *The Globalisation of Nothing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.

### ***Glocalisation and Sustainable Business Solutions***

Ritzer, G. (2007). *The Globalisation of Nothing 2*. London, UK: Pine Forge Press.

Ritzer, G. (2010). *Globalisation: A Basic Text*. West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Ritzer, G. (2011). *Globalisation: The Essentials*. West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.

Robertson, R. (1992). *Globalisation – Social Theory and Global Culture*. London, UK: Sage Publication.

Robertson, R. (1995). Glocalisation: Time-Space and Homogeneity-Heterogeneity. In M. Featherstone, S. Lash & Robertson (Eds.), *Global Modernities* (pp. 25-44). London, UK: Sage Publication.

Robertson, R. (2003). Globalisation Theory 2000+: Major Problematics. In G. Ritzer & B. Smart (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Theory* (pp. 458–471). London, UK: Sage Publication.

Roudometof, V. (2016). *Glocalisation: A Critical Introduction*. London, UK: Routledge.

Salazar, N. (2005). Tourism and glocalisation: ‘Local’ tour guide. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(3), 628–646. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2004.10.012

Schiffman, L., & Kanuk, L. (2009). *Consumer Behaviour* (9th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall Publishing.

Suchacek, J. (2011). *Globalisation and Glocalisation*. Ostrava: University of Ostrava.

Svensson, G. (2001). ‘Glocalisation’ of business activities: A ‘glocal strategy’ approach. *Management Decision*, 36(1), 6–18. doi:10.1108/EUM0000000005403

Swyngedouw, E. (1997a). Neither Global nor Local: ‘Glocalisation’ and the Politics of Scale. In R. Kevin Cox (Ed.), *A Critical Assessment, Space of Globalisation, Reasserting the Power of the Local* (pp. 115–136). New York, London: The Guilford Press.

Swyngedouw, E. (1997b). Neither Global nor Local: ‘Glocalisation’ and the Politics of Scale. In R. K. Cox (Ed.), *Space of Globalisation, Reasserting the Power of the Local* (pp. 137-166). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Swyngedouw, E. (2004). Globalisation or glocalisation? Networks, territories and rescaling. *Cambridge Review of International Affairs*, 17(1), 25–48. doi:10.1080/0955757042000203632

The Economist. (2007, July 17). *The Forbidden Latte: Do American Brands face Trouble in China?* Retrieved from <http://www.economist.com/node/9498776>

The Nigeria Voice. (2018). *Tourism and Economic Diversification*. Retrieved from <https://www.thenigerianvoice.com/thread/59528/77605/1>

United Nations World Tourism Organisation. (2010). *Tourism and the Millennium Development Goals*. Madrid, Spain: United Nations World Tourism Travel World Organization.

United Nations World Tourism Organisation. (2013). *UNWTO Tourism Highlights* (2013 ed.). Madrid, Spain: United Nations World Tourism Travel World Organization.

Verstappen, H. (2009). Geography, sustainability and the concept of glocalisation. *International Institute for Geoinformation Science and Earth Observation*, 70, 106–113.

Vizureanu, V. (2013). Some remarks concerning the concept of glocalisation. *Journal of Public Reason*, 5(1), 69–86.

# Chapter 5

## Creating Business Value and Competitive Advantage Through Glocalization

**Husam Helmi Alharahsheh**

*University of Wales Trinity Saint David, UK*

**Abraham Pius**

*Arden University, UK*

### **ABSTRACT**

*Glocalization is considered as one of the main contributors to value creation and development as well as for competitive advantage enhancement on a global stage. Previous studies suggest that globalization indicates the co-presence of universal and local practices. Globalization is based on the phenomenon that products or services providers have further consideration and a sense of the locality needs and wants in foreign markets instead of the assumption that parent market practices can be applied in foreign markets. The term of glocalization is a combination of globalization and localization. This chapter provides an overview supported by a range of examples of how glocalization as an organizational approach to international growth and expansion can develop a business value and create a competitive advantage.*

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-5225-6983-1.ch005

Copyright © 2019, IGI Global. Copying or distributing in print or electronic forms without written permission of IGI Global is prohibited.

## **INTRODUCTION**

Glocalization is considered as one of the main contributors to value creation and development as well as for competitive advantage enhancement on a global stage. Previous studies suggest that globalisation indicates the co-presence of universal and local practices. Globalisation is based on the phenomenon that products or services providers have further consideration and a sense of the locality needs and wants in foreign markets instead of the assumption that parent market practices can be applied in foreign markets. The term of glocalization is a combination of globalisation and localisation. Therefore, the glocalization approach has become increasingly important for multi-national organisations to further understand foreign markets and how to make certain minor or major amendments to the original offering within the parent market to adapt to the local trends and preferences leading to further development and enhancement of the business value offered for the customer as well as creation of a competitive advantage with the consideration of local and global players competing in a particular market. The aim of the chapter to provide an overview supported by a range of examples of how glocalization as an organisation approach to international growth and expansion can develop a business value and create a competitive advantage.

### **Globalization**

Globalization is often considered, mistakenly, as an economic phenomenon. However, Keesing and Keesing (1971) stated that “rewards of economic development become universal aspirations, and people react to this challenge in sharply contrasting ways”. From this point of view, globalization is not only an economic phenomenon, but its cultural, political and social effects must be considered as well.

Various discussions have been demonstrated related to globalization and its application ranging from theoretical propositions which define its concept to empirical researches which postulate future directions. Levitt (1983) was among the first who introduced the concept of globalization as his assumption that the world became one common marketplace. Globalization was defined by Robertson (1987) as “crystallization of the world as a single place”. Furthermore, he illustrated that globalization is a reflective process in which the increased interaction between different orders of life push the world toward becoming a single place (Robertson, 1992).

Globalisation has been defined by Haron (2016) as harmonisation of domestic market and product standards into foreign markets. Furthermore, key driving factors for globalisations are technology, ease of communication, matching customer needs and wants in different local markets marking the customer to be considered as a global customer and increase in global rivalry.

The globalisation approach would follow the same practices and policies from the same parent market leading to providing the same offering of products and services, this would also include all the elements of the marketing mix. This can be applied with the assumption that organisations are dependent on the fact that customers can be global customers referring to similar needs and wants. This approach would offer organisations the opportunity to have a globalised approach in developing their key assets such as branding leading to greater level of competitiveness and add value such as reputation and standard across markets at a global stage.

Theodosiou and Leonidou (2003) suggested that a theoretical model can be followed to determine the level of globalisation or localisation based on several key external and internal factors that may affect the strategy development for organisations.

External factors can be based on the general macro and micro factors such as level of competition, customers trends and changing behaviour, accessibility to technology as well as the size and preferences of the local market.

Internal organisational factors can be based on the managerial experience in international markets, level of invest and research on the local markets, understanding of customer needs and wants, leadership style and level of product development and innovation. However, more extensive factors can be considered such as strategic direction and collaboration with local partners.

Management experience and level of awareness of the locality plays a vital role in the process to determine the level of pursuing a globalised, localised on globalized approach as a strategic direction to the organisation. Furthermore, other managerial factors can be also considered such as decision-making process and level of engagement of local managers in each market with senior management at regional or global offices.

Development of a successful approach can greatly influence the level of profitability, sales volume, understanding of customer's needs and wants, as well as overall customer satisfaction because in travel and tourism customers are a mix of local, regional and global destinations coming with variety of expectations and perceptions.

It has been widely discussed that for multinational there should be serious consideration of key factors affecting the level of standardisation. Product, price, place and promotion play as key factors into the process. However, other factors as



well can be equally important such as people working for the organisation across markets, processes and the physical evidence. These key factors are derived from the marketing mix. It is argued that pursuing a globalised approach for multinational companies can offer the opportunity to achieve economies of scale, reduced costs as well as enhancement of brand image at a global scale as well as enhanced competitiveness locally and globally.

Pursuing a globalised approach in multinational organisations can be also based on different factors which may require a certain degree of localisation such as the nature of the firm's offering, the targeted segments in the local market, external factors that can be based on several variables such as culture and economy, and organisational variables such as managerial experience and awareness of the locality.

Pursuing a globalised approach for multinational organisations can enhance organisational ability to develop further understanding of the global customer with greater attention on the similarities of the customer or the market rather than the key differentiating factors. This has been further enabled in the last two decades as media has experienced advancement as well as the emergence of social media as well as continues revolutionization of technology in different aspects of day to day life. Furthermore, travelling across border for tourism or other reasons has increased due to continue ease in the process of transportation, infrastructure development and unity between groups of countries such as the EU. However, in the case of the UK there has been a high level of uncertainty on the impact of Brexit on the continuity of this continues development because the UK is having a well-respected and reputable global position in travel and tourism due to the high levels of different appeals for overseas tourists.

Cross borders traveling for tourism and other purposes such as business and education has largely increased the level of cultural mix as well as harmonization in several key social aspects. Furthermore, this has further developed similarities in the perceived business value as well as customer needs and wants to lead to enhancement of the opportunity of globalisation, and to further gain value and competitive advantage.

The globalisation approach through the application of standard organisational practices across borders can further enhance organisational productivity and profitability as it would enable organisations to further develop global brand leading to standardised communication with the potential customer with the developed assumption that global customers are available across the targeted local markets. Furthermore, organisational effectiveness can be also achieved due to the fact that organisations would have less consideration of product development in other local markets outside the main market for the organisation leading to reduced costs during the process.

### ***Creating Business Value and Competitive Advantage Through Globalization***

The given statements above have highlighted several key advantages and benefits of pursuing a globalised approach. However, there are also disadvantages which must be seriously considered by organisations prior to adoption of such as strategic direct. Those disadvantages can be summarised as the following:

Pursuing the globalisation approach could lead to failure at a global stage due to the fact that localities should be more appreciated in terms of their own differences. For example, some local markets may require different features of the offered services and products, some other may be more sensitive in terms of pricing. Furthermore, firms may get the wrong impression and assumption that they are targeting a global customer where as in fact the reality might be one size does not fit all leading to loss of revenues and potentially global competitiveness.

The operational aspect of the process might be challenging since local laws and regulations may differ from a country to another leading to the necessity to have localization to meet the expected standard. For example, working hours for employees as well as pay may differ from a country to another which may require complete reconsideration.

Multinational organisations may struggle with the fact that they need to have a unique offering to stand out of the competition with the consideration that local competitive may be intense with high levels of understanding and local experience.

There are some issues where organisations may face during the process of globalisation, these issues could lead to having less successful global presence and customer appeal. These issues can be summarised as the following: firstly, lack of market research leading to development of assumptions rather than proven facts supported by extensive research on local markets based on valid sources. Secondly, over globalisation with the consideration that there are no local differences leading to having %100 standardisation in global markets, this would lead to negligence of key sensitivities such as religion and language. Poor alignment between global and local campaigns leading to poor implementation of the strategy. Narrow strategic direction and vision with no flexibility to adapt to unexpected changes such as economic crisis (Johansson, 2009).

Development of a global approach has limited flexibility in local markets leading to less ability to respond to local demands and requirements. This would lead to lower level of competitiveness with local competition appealing for the same local customer (Johansson, 2009).

## **Localisation**

Localisation has been defined by Haron (2016) as a process of alteration of any related aspects to the product or service to ensure that offerings can be appealing in foreign markets. Localisation is also described as customisation or adaptation process. However, they have some distinct differences as adaptation required mandatory alternation to meet with local expectation whereas, customisation is described as optional modification rather than being mandatory to meet with the local expectation. Nevertheless, both terms are aimed at making various changes to meet local needs and wants of the customer as well as market expectation.

The localisation approach is developed with the consideration that local markets and customers' needs, wants and requirements should be met to enhance value and competitiveness of multinational organisations. It requires a high level of adaptation to the locality to meet local differences from other markets including the parent market for the multinational organisation, this would enhance level of satisfaction and appeal to potential local customers. Such a strategic approach would require further development in the products and services offered as well as other key strategic aspects such as communication, pricing and distribution.

Pursuing the localisation approach can lead to development of several organisational advantages which can be summarised as the following: firstly, customisation of the offering to the local requirements and needs leading to higher levels of attractiveness and match. Secondly, development of all firm's functions such as marketing and human resource management to provide convenience and appeal to the local customer and employee. Therefore, local managers would have greater influence regarding the way offering is being developed locally with having local experience, benefits and challenges in mind, this can be directly linked to the overall organisational success in terms of development of value-based approach to attract potential customers, development of a competitive advantage through development of offerings as well as all associated functions as mentioned above as well as increase in sales and profitability.

In many occasions development of a localized approach within the travel and tourism sector across countries may be a necessity since the following aspects for example may differ as discussed by Keegan and Green (2017):

- **Economic Aspects:** Customer disposable income may vary from country to another leading to variations in the consideration in what is the “Right price” to be appealing to the local customer. Low disposable income can limit the range of sales techniques to be used which may commonly be used in countries with higher levels of disposable income.
- **Customer Perceptions:** Local perception of the local customer can also vary from a country to another regarding the aimed experience that a customer is interested to have when they consume the product, this may be linked directly with the pricing strategy leading to variations in perception of what is the “Right Price” from a market to another. Therefore, different pricing strategies and techniques are required from a country to another depending on the local customer and market.
- **Local Regulations:** This may require multinational organisations to follow certain practices in terms of their design and development of the offerings. For example, in Saudi Arabia there is prohibition to the selling of alcohol within the country under any circumstances as this may provoke the beliefs of local citizens due to religious considerations, this may provide a huge challenge for firms within the travel and tourism sector aiming to attract regional and international tourists with the consideration that they are having different mindset and practices from the locality.
- **Trade Structure:** The trade structure within the industry can affect certain practices such as promotional activities where localisation to meet the standards and restrictions is required.

The localisation strategy may be based on several key aspects of the organisational offer such as product, price, place, promotion, people, physical evidence and processes. However, this could also be further extended to include key functions within the organisation such as human resource department. However, it is also argued that multinational firms may only localise certain aspects such as pricing or promotional activities. For example, according to a study conducted to compare between Chinese and western customers in terms of their perception on the key factors influencing their booking habits in hotels based on the following: First, room rates and charges. Secondly, advance requirements in order to make the booking. Thirdly, rules applied. Fourthly, the refundability aspect in case of cancellation or dissatisfaction (Liu et al., 2014), it was found that the most significant difference between the Chinese and the western customer was around the customer policy in terms of rules applied in case changes to the reservation were required. This indicated that senior management within international hotels such as Marriot and Hilton may be able to apply globalised aspects in terms of product and service development due the fact that customer may expect same quality and standard of service across borders, pricing strategies and

techniques such as room rates as indicated in the study as it created no difference between perceptions of the Chinese and the western customer, and same distribution process through traditional and non-traditional channels such as agents and online booking websites. However, hotels should be more cautious with distinct cultural differences. For example, hotels can keep the aspects mentioned above. However, should consider the way promotion is being implemented in local markets to meet the needs and wants of the local customer as well as the requirements of the local market. However, local managers may still globalize if there was a proved study that indicate local customers are very similar to other customers in main markets. In case customers were different from customers in main markets managers may investigate further strategic development to implement local or glocal approach.

The localization approach would enable multinational organisations to offer the right product or service based on the purchasing power of the local customer. For example, organisations may offer a cheaper product or service in a developing country where the purchase power of the local or regional customer is low. However, a different offer with higher pricing may be offer the same organisation in developed markets with higher purchasing power. In the case of travel and tourism sector it may prove to be a bit more complicated due to the fact that customers may need to travel between countries to receive the perceived offer or package, then in this case the local hosting country may not be considered as the main influencer of pricing factor for instance, the source country would be the main influence here where the customer is coming from.

The localization approach would also enable multinational organisations to be more flexible to develop a proactive or reactive approach to respond to the locality and its changes. Therefore, localisation would enable the organisation to develop an attractive and competitive offer appealing to the local customer in a timely fashion.

In the given explanation above there have been several key advantages highlighted in the process of localisation as a strategic approach for multinational organisations (Albaum et al., 2016; Keegan & Green, 2017). However, there are several disadvantages that may negatively impact on the organisations which can be summarised as the following:

- **Pricing Issues:** Multinational organisations may misunderstand the locality in terms of finding what is the “right price” for the local customer based on their purchase power and the value provided by the organisation. For example, organisations may undercharge or overcharge when compared with local competitors, this can be directly linked with the level of competitiveness, appeal and profitability of the organisation within the local market. However, this would also largely depend on the brand image and reputation (Keegan & Green, 2017).

- **Branding Issues:** Brand image and reputation may prove to be one of the most challenging tasks for managers overseeing the process of expansion into new market because multinational organisations invest heavily in their brands to compete at a global stage. However, it can be argued that western brands invest heavily to be associated with western cultures and lifestyle which may make it more challenging in markets that are less attracted to pursue western cultures as a norm for globalization. Furthermore, positioning of the brand is mostly based on the identification of the targeted customer. For example, a target customer might be middle class, educated, and busy working full time meaning that if they have to travel it may be limited travel in terms of time and appealing price in terms of pricing strategy, and more importantly maybe they are looking for a destination where they can relax and have a break from the working and life commitments they have. However, in comparison with other nations in the middle east, the same customer description may be looking for a different appeal as they may be having longer holidays, but more social commitment with less money to spare for a holiday. In this case, over localization may change the brand perception for customers from a country to another leading to a necessity of decentralisation of main functions and decision making (Keegan & Green, 2017).
- In the case of multinational organisations focusing on a niche market it may be more attractive for the organisation to follow globalization approach as they may invest heavily to have a global appeal for that focused segment of the market. However, it may become more expensive for organisations to invest if they decided to pursue a localised approach considering that purchasing power and disposable income for the same segment in different single markets. Furthermore, profitability may also be affected as customers with lower purchase power and disposable income would spend less to receive the same offering provided in other high purchase power and high disposable income segment in another market (Keegan & Green, 2017).
- **Elimination of Economies of Scale:** A localized strategic approach would reduce sales volume and increase offerings costs considering the fact it is offered for certain segments in a local market limiting the opportunity to offer the product or service for the mass market at a global stage (Keegan & Green, 2017).
- **Locality:** It is a costly process for multinational organisations to aim to have full understanding of the locality in terms of cultural differences and customers preferences. However, this understanding would enable the organisation to compete more with local competitors (Albaum et al., 2016).

## **Glocalization**

Glocalization can be described as a mixture of both terminologies globalization and localization, and it mainly referring to the products or services provided by multinational organisations that are offered at a global stage. However, with some consideration of single market needs. Therefore, adjustments are made to further attract local customers within local markets.

In fact, global processes are not disconnected from the local as the form that any impacts of global networks take place will depend on the local context and settings. This means that, each global network is local in its points; it has origin (people's action), expansion method (such as lorries and ships) and people who allow the consequences to take place (Latour, 1993). Therefore, it was agreed by some authors to call this relationship between the global and the local glocalization.

The concept of Glocalization was initially generated from a Japanese word *dochakuka*, which means “global localization”, but it became more known in the late 1980s in the field of business marketing (Foley et al., 2006). Roland Robertson (1992) was the first one who put in the glocalization as a concept into scientific and social aspects. In 1997, Robertson defined glocalization at the *Globalization and Indigenous Culture Conference* and he stated that it “means the simultaneity – the co-presence – of both universalizing and particularizing tendencies.”

Robertson (1990, 1992, 1995) presented multiple theories regarding the global-local relationship as he paid more attention to the local power by refusing the division between the concepts of local and global. Robertson used his theories to reject the hypothesis which considered the effects of global are opposite to the local contexts as he suggested that globalization is a development and expansion of the local and the local is part of it, not opposite. Furthermore, Ritzer (2003), in his thesis of glocalization, stated that it is a globalization of the local and a localization of the global. Therefore, the concept of glocalization came to reject the differentiating between the global and the local and to suggest the relationship of global-local concept rather than globalization, as glocalization gives more concern to both temporal and spatial issues (Robertson, 1995). Although Robertson's theories have been criticized by others; Radhakrishnan (2010) and Ritzer (2003), Robertson (2013) concluded that glocalization only exists today and there is no pure global nor pure local.

Glocalization, like other concepts, aims to develop social, economic and cultural aspects in order to meet with local needs as well as appreciation of global aspects at the same time. For example, a hotel might have greater consideration for social events and occasions such as weddings in Jordan and surrounding countries due to the fact there is an emerging trend in the local communities to have their weddings

in top rated hotels 3 stars plus. However, the challenge in that is based on the size of the hall considering that locals have the norm to invite an extended number of people based on the network of the person considering the fact that the Jordanian community is more collective rather than being individualistic based on (Alkailani et al., 2012), this could mean that 200 plus individuals to be on the guest list which may need a bigger sized hall allocated for such occasions. Furthermore, due to religious considerations and believes locals should have Halal food in the menu which may require higher level of localization to meet the needs highlighted. However, locals are also aware of the image of the global brand and have high expectation from the brand comparing that what is being promoted in western countries.

During the last two decades, most multinational organisations attempted to pursue a globalized approach as they were aiming to achieving advantages associated with this approach such as economies of scale, standard, development of global brand and reputation, reduction of operational costs. There were having the same approach in terms of branding. However, more recently international managers started to realize that one size does not fit all, and there is a need to have a degree of localization to access the customer more and to meet their needs and wants (Shaw, 2011).

It is argued that customers' value brands that are close to them and their identity and it is considered as highly challenging to attract a potential customer in a foreign market without a certain degree of localisation to appeal to the local customer (Shaw, 2011). Furthermore, it is discussed that local customer would perceive a brand as a local person where they expect them to speak the same language, understand the culture, and is aware of what is acceptable and not acceptable in terms of several key factors such as social, economic, legal, political, environmental and cultural as discussed earlier in the localization part of the chapter.

There has been a rapid development and revolutions in the way things are running in organisations within the hospitality, travel and tourism industries due to rapid changes in external and internal organisational factors such as technology and transportation leading to higher levels of global understanding as well as reduction of the perceived distance between societies. Based on that the concept of glocalization has evolved as local and regional communities have connected to become global with less barriers being presented for such integration.

For example, communities across Jordan and especially in the Capital Amman have had significant development during the last two decades due to several key factors which can be summarised as the following: firstly, regional crisis in the Mideast which has been caused by conflict locally, regionally and globally leading to an increased trend of mass migration to Jordan from surrounding countries



such as Iraq and Syria. Secondly, increased levels of foreign direct investment from foreign corporations and individuals due to the fact that the country has experienced a phenomenal growth in population and development an attractive government policy to attract foreign investment. Furthermore, this increase could be directly linked to the repeated mass migration from surrounding countries in the region which has also attracted movement of labour and capital into the country. Thirdly, development of infrastructure such as Airports in the country leading to a higher level of service provided for local, regional and global passengers who have either come to Jordan for a stay or to connect for longer destinations. Fourthly, development of higher education institutions to become one of the leading in the region and globally. For example, University of Jordan and The Jordan University Science and Technology were ranked amongst the top universities in the Middleast and reserved advanced rankings at a global scale according to (QS, 2018). Fifthly, continues development of key tourism attractions such as historical and medical sites as well as architectural and urban developments. Sixthly, openness and high levels of accessibility to internet has enabled a further understanding of key trends and developments of global tourism that could be implemented locally to maintain a higher level of attractiveness. Historical sites belonging to major religions worldwide such as Christianity and Islam. For example, the discovery of the oldest church in history in Rehab – Almafraqa lately.

The concept of glocalization can be considered as under researched topic where there is no major theoretical background being presented in the literature. However, there is an increasing interest coming from leading researchers on the topic due to the fact that it is interrelated with several key local and global aspects and developments for political, economic, sociocultural, technological, legal and environmental aspects which have been highlighted in this chapter.

Glocalization has several key strengths as a topic as it combines outcomes of literature for both localisation and globalisation which would further expand potential for the topic to be developed theoretically and in terms of application. However, further focus on the glocal aspect would require further attention (Gobo, 2016).

Researchers such as Alexander (2003) suggests that globalization comes from the local openness for the outside environment which goes beyond the local expectation and experience. It is also suggested that there are some key factors may influence the level of globalization such as cultural values, religion, music and entertainment as well as food. However, other suggestions reflect that full level of globalization or localization is no longer applicable to many counties due to the fact of having variations in openness and the level of adaptation to the capitalist system. Furthermore,

### ***Creating Business Value and Competitive Advantage Through Glocalization***

many local communities have followed western systems and visions through their multinational brands, this has also greatly influenced levels of localization and globalization. For example, Many of the American corporations have expanded into foreign markets with limited levels of adaptation leading to changes in customer behaviour and further acceptance for one way of providing products and services at a global stage. However, the level of acceptance may vary from a country to another due to local influences such as culture and language.

Organisations within the travel and tourism industry have significant potential for further development and growth of their revenues through further expansion into new markets worldwide. However, this would require a clear and careful expansion strategy which would influence the way things are being done in each market. For example, organisations must consider whether they are going to localise their practises or to globalise reflecting that they might need to follow their parent market practices and policies.

The methods that organisations select to enter new markets can determine their level of localization or globalization, or it could be a mixture of both leading to development of a balanced approach leading to glocalization. Furthermore, the elements of the marketing mix play a significant role in the development of the localized, globalized or glocalized approach of the organisation. Those elements are product, price, place, promotion, physical evidence, process and people. Those elements and the level of their localization, globalization or glocalization can determine the level of competitiveness and value provided an organisation would have in new markets. Glocalization as an approach offers multinational organisations the opportunity to further develop their globally promoted products or services based on the local needs and wants of the customer and the market meaning that it would have full consideration of the local conditions as have been discussed in previous examples such as cultural differences. In this case the glocalized product or service would be more appealing to the local customer as an end user of it, whereas it would still also be used in other local markets but with different considerations to meet their needs to a certain extent.

The Glocalization approach requires multinational organisations to develop a balanced system to manage their global operations, this system can be more decentralized to enable more understanding of key variables such as cultural and economic differences, and also to better compete with local competitors. This would further enhance the level of competitiveness of the organisation and create value for the local customers where they believe

Glocalization works for companies with decentralized authority structures, and for companies that exist and compete in multiple, different cultural contexts. The process can be expensive, and resource intensive, but it often pays off for companies that practice it, as it allows for greater access to a larger, more culturally varied target

market. It also makes those countries more effective competitors in those markets. It has been suggested that multinational organisations pursuing such a strategic approach would be able to find the optimal combination through having the ability to further integrate locally and to have a rational operation globally. This approach would enable organisation to find the most appropriate synergies and then adapt the rest of the component of the offer. Furthermore, this approach also would enable organisations to think globally and act locally based on the main variables highlighted earlier in the chapter. Glocalization more or less gives organisations the flexibility to have a choice and control over what to globalize or localize up to a certain level with consideration of the conditions they are in. For example, McDonald's has a wide range of different local considerations in order to deliver the local expectation. Therefore, the organisation offers Halal food across countries where there is more religious practices which require that, they offer wine in France, extensive Veggie offers in India, and Beer in Germany (Fedor, 2012).

## **CONCLUSION**

The chapter has included an overview of several key concepts leading to the development of the glocal approach which as indicated has been developed as a combination of localization and globalization. It is noted that for organizations to have a successful global presence with further development of their competitive advantage and enhancement of their value in terms of their offering within the perception of the local potential customer. A successful strategic organisational direction can be based on the flexibility to create a balance between globalization and localization to enable the ability to approach strategy to think global and act local. Thinking global in terms of developing a global product or service that appeal for customers across borders. However, local customers would still be appreciated in terms of their local expectations such as cultural standards and differences. The chapter has included various examples which have highlighted how globalization, localization and glocalization may work across borders. However, it is noted that there might be no complete localization or standardization as this may develop several key issues for multinational organizations to deal, but the case of glocalization a combination of both is being applied creating a balanced approach enabling organizations to develop optimal combination through having the advantage of local integration and rationalization of their global operations. Therefore, multinational organizations would be able to find global synergies and then integrate the rest of the key components of their offering in the local market.

## REFERENCES

- Albaum, G., Duerr, E., & Josiassen, A. (2016). *International marketing and export management*. Harlow, UK: Pearson.
- Alexander, J. (2003). *The meanings of social life: A cultural sociology*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press. doi:10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195160840.001.0001
- Alkailani, M., Azzam, I., & Athamneh, A. (2012). Replicating Hofstede in Jordan: Ungeneralized, Reevaluating the Jordanian Culture. *International Business Research*, 5(4). doi:10.5539/ibr.v5n4p71
- Fedor, M. (2012). *Global Marketing: Standardization or Adaptation?*
- Foley, M., McPherson, G., & Matheson, C. (2006). Glocalisation and Singaporean festivals. *International Journal of Event Management Research*, 2(1), 1–16.
- Gobo, G. (2016). Glocalization: A critical introduction. *European Journal of Cultural and Political Sociology*, 3(2-3), 381–385. doi:10.1080/23254823.2016.1209886
- Haron, J. (2016). Standardized Versus Localized Strategy: The Role of Cultural Patterns in Society on Consumption and Market Research. *Journal of Accounting & Marketing*, 05(01). doi:10.4172/2168-9601.1000151
- Johansson, J. (2009). *Global marketing*. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Keegan, W., & Green, M. (2017). *Global marketing*. Boston, MA: Pearson.
- Keesing, R. M., & Keesing, F. M. (1971). *New perspectives in Cultural Anthropology*. New York, NY: Holt, Rineheart and Winston, Inc.
- Latour, B. (1993). *We Have Never Been Modern*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Levitt, T. (1983). The globalization of markets. *Harvard Business Review*, 61(3), 92–101.
- Liu, W., Denizci Guillet, B., Xiao, Q., & Law, R. (2014). Globalization or localization of consumer preferences: The case of hotel room booking. *Tourism Management*, 41, 148–157. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2013.09.004
- QS. (2018). QS World University Rankings 2018. Retrieved from <https://www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/world-university-rankings/2018>

Radhakrishnan, S. (2010). Limiting theory: Rethinking approaches to cultures of globalization. In B.S. Turner (Ed.), *Routledge international handbook of globalization* (pp. 23–41). London, UK: Routledge.

Ritzer, G. (2003). Rethinking globalisation: Glocalization/grobalization and something/nothing. *Sociological Theory*, 21(3), 193–209. doi:10.1111/1467-9558.00185

Robertson, R. (1987). Globalization and societal modernization: A note on Japan and Japanese religion. *SA. Sociological Analysis*, 47(September), 35–43. doi:10.2307/3711650

Robertson, R. (1990). Mapping the global condition: Globalisation as the central concept. *Theory, Culture & Society*, 7(2-3), 15–30. doi:10.1177/026327690007002002

Robertson, R. (1992). *Globalization: Social theory and global culture*. London, UK: Sage.

Robertson, R. (1995). Glocalisation: time-space and homogeneity-heterogeneity. In M. Featherstone, S. Lash, & R. Robertson (Eds.), *Global Modernities* (pp. 25–44). London, UK: Sage. doi:10.4135/9781446250563.n2

Robertson, R. (2013). Situating glocalization: A relatively autobiographical intervention. In G. S. Drori, M. A. Höllerer, & P. Walgenbach (Eds.), *Global themes and local variations in organization and management: Perspectives on glocalization* (pp. 25–36). New York, NY: Routledge.

Shaw, H. (2011). ‘Glocalization’ rules the world. *Financial Post*. Retrieved from <http://business.financialpost.com/news/glocalization-rules-the-world>

# Chapter 6

## Wine and Glocal Gastronomy in Mexico

**Hugo Giovanni Aguayo Diaz**

*De La Salle University Bajío, Mexico*

**Celeste Nava Jiménez**

*De La Salle University Bajío, Mexico*

**Marisol Martínez del Campo Castro**

*De La Salle University Bajío, Mexico*

### **ABSTRACT**

*Wine as part of the cuisine continues to gain ground as one of the central elements on the table of the Mexican people, although not all tables, the culture of wine represents an opportunity for glocal development. Mexican cuisine is a delight to the senses of the human being and wine is, therefore, a means to promote the gastronomic experience through the perfect combination of food and wine. The research is presented in four dimensions, the first explores the qualities of Mexican cuisine, followed by the organoleptic description of the wine and its use at the Mexican table. Later, a contribution is made to the construction of matrices of pairing promoting the glocal development of the tourist destination and the inclusion of the kitchen and its ingredients. The purpose is that in such a way that it can be concluded with certain reflections of the pairing matrices as inclusion in the tourist experience gastronomic of some tourist destinations of Mexico.*

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-5225-6983-1.ch006

Copyright © 2019, IGI Global. Copying or distributing in print or electronic forms without written permission of IGI Global is prohibited.

## **INTRODUCTION**

The phenomenon of tourism is a human activity and a geographical fact that shares the principles of geography (Torreros & Castro, 2012). Derived from the economist approaches in tourism research, the development of the activity has been in the market-consumption approach (Thirkettle & Korstanje, 2013) and therefore is a social phenomenon that has become globalized and complex. In this sense, the concept of globalization in tourism studies has considerable value.

Salazar (2004) mentions that globalization has been a concept already treated by anthropologist and sociologist and that geographers studying tourism have repeatedly stressed the importance of the global-local nexus. Likewise, the principles of geography have contributed dimensionality to the development of tourism and its tourism.

One of the tourist facts that accompany the development of the phenomenon is the gastronomy since it allows the expansion of the culture and the specialization of the tourist products. The connection between tourism and gastronomy includes the location of gastronomic resources, the management and transformation of the territories, especially the interaction of actors that are involved in the development of destinations, their tourism and their gastronomy. As indicated by Torreros and Castro (2012), tourism is an interconnected fact linked with other elements that territorially make the concept of local gain strength.

According to Canclini op cit. Magaña and Padín (2012, p. 376) the concept of glocal is between the global and the local, understanding that “globalization refers to a set of processes of homogenization and division of the world that reorders differences and inequalities without suppressing them”. In this sense, the glocal would represent processes that allude to processes of standardization and fragmentation of the world, reordering the diversity that exists in the local sphere.

Globalization itself is a process that influences many aspects of the world sphere in all senses (Magaña & Padín, 2012, p. 388), therefore the glocal is, in one of those senses, the way in which globalization reorders local social processes to make them work in the global sphere, putting diversity as a key factor in the development of the territory. The local is not completely referred to space as stated by Salazar (2004) is, following the author a space inhabited by people who have a particular sense of place, a specific way of life, and a certain ethos and worldview.

Finally, the processes of globalization and localization are intertwined (Salazar, 2004) refers to an adaptation of the general to the particular. From this position, the development of tourist destinations based on their gastronomy and cultural richness should be based on global processes adapted to the local talent of the space. That is, having a global perspective adapted to local conditions (Tulloch, 1991 op cit. Salazar, 2004). Adding to the above the glocal must allow the creation

of new consumption traditions or new consumers more differentiated and different (Salazar, 2004). This implies that in gastronomic and consumer terms the mixture of ingredients in Mexican cuisine could be in the complicity of aromas, textures, flavours and above all the identification of the origin of the ingredients, that are integrated to grant different gastronomic experience.

## **MEXICAN CUISINE AND ITS QUALITIES**

Mexican gastronomy, intangible heritage based on corn, beans, chilli and unique farming methods; It has had a special evolution. One of the relevant stages for Mexican gastronomy is the Porfiriato, a period between 1876 and 1911, in which, along with traditional cuisine, Mexican gastronomy was strongly influenced by French gastronomy, especially in the upper classes, for what the traditional Mexican gastronomy is despised and is seen as of lower level or category. It was a time in which in addition to arriving in Mexico a large number of French chefs, a gastronomic evolution was generated especially by the opening of establishments such as French-style cafes, restaurants and patisseries, a fact that generated a gastronomic heritage in dishes and customs that remained rooted especially in Mexico City even decades after the porfiriato.

In the following decades, the industrialization of food would come to influence the cuisine by simplifying and complementing the traditional Mexican cuisine, which was accepted and seen as simple and low-level food compared to European cuisines.

However, it is not until the last decade of the 20th century that Mexican gastronomy begins to take on the importance and a movement of young Mexican chefs begins to rescue traditional dishes to turn them into formal and elegant dishes, giving rise to the new Mexican cuisine, also called Mexican haute cuisine. Which consists in taking the essence of traditional dishes and reworking them combining traditional techniques and new techniques or in taking the ingredients and proposing new combinations, both lines with a new air of creativity. Mexican haute cuisine slowly developed in large cities, today more than 20 years after its emergence, it already has great acceptance and recognition nationally and internationally.

Within this gastronomic evolution, it is worth mentioning the traditional Mexican drinks to accompany the Mexican dishes were the waters of fruits also known as “fresh waters”, in the mid-twentieth century the consumption of soft drinks in popular culture begins to take root strongly. And it is until the arrival of the new Mexican cuisine that, along with the new proposals for dishes, new accompaniments would emerge, including fresh waters with infusions or mixtures of aromatic herbs and combinations of fruits, as well as the slow consumption of wine and beer pairings for Mexican haute cuisine.



Currently, Mexican haute cuisine has developed throughout the country in formal and expensive establishments as well as in casual restaurants, food trucks and restaurants in the garages where young chefs generate different gastronomic proposals in each area of the country. At the same time, traditional high-level Mexican cuisine establishments have been created that proudly prepare the most representative typical recipes of the country or of each zone, offered to both society and tourists.

The Mexican cuisine was recognized as Intangible Heritage by UNESCO in 2010. Through this recognition, it was identified, in Michoacán and throughout Mexico, groups of cooks and other people who practice the culinary traditions and dedicated to the improvement of crops and traditional cooking. Their knowledge and techniques are an expression of community identity and allow strengthening social bonds and consolidating the sense of identity at the national, regional and local levels (UNESCO, 2015).

This recognition was granted by presenting the traditional Mexican cuisine as a complete cultural model that includes agrarian activities, ritual practices, ancient practical knowledge, culinary techniques and ancestral customs and behaviours of the

*Figure 1. Map of Mexico*

*Source: Encyclopedia of Tourism (2016) "Mexico"*



community (Conaculta, 2010). In this sense, gastronomy could be seen as a model of glocal development, an interactive process in which the gastronomic richness of a country is integrated into dynamic processes and triggers of other economic activities, in favour of local and regional development. Therefore, we can mention that among the qualities of Mexican cuisine are:

- **The Diversity of Ingredients:** According to the UN, Mexico is part of the group of nations that have around 70% of the world's diversity. What generates a lot of inputs for its cuisine at national and regional level.
- **Gastronomic Regionalization:** There are dishes that are prepared throughout the country, but each region adds the ingredients of the area and the own style according to the needs of each area. It is worth mentioning the number of diverse climates found in Mexico that impact the tastes, preferences and consumption habits of the inhabitants of each area, which generates the development in different versions of the same product, such as the tacos, the tamales, the pozole. What has generated a variety of dishes where each region puts its stamp and style.
- **Variety of Techniques:** Ingredients such as corn, like beans and chili can be considered the pillars of Mexican cuisine and there are different dishes in each geographical region of Mexico that are made with the same ingredient using different cooking techniques or mixing with different ingredients. They give rise to different dishes. Only with corn, in Mexico, more than 600 different dishes have been documented.
- **Variety Flavours:** Due to the great diversity of ingredients and the variety of preparation techniques, there is a gastronomy with a wide range of flavours in the dishes of Mexican cuisine ranging from intense flavours to the most delicate and delicate. We find salty, sweet, acid, bitter dishes as well as spicy ones of different intensities, as well as the mixture of flavours. This is the case of mole poblano that combines a salty chicken sauce with a chocolate and chili sauce that is slightly spicy and sweet.
- **Mestizo Gastronomy:** With foreign interventions and the arrival of immigrants to Mexican territory throughout history, the incorporation of ingredients and techniques from different cultures has been a constant feature of Mexican gastronomy, which is why a little Each culture that has passed through the territory in different areas of the country. Among them, the Spanish, English and French influence in the centre and south, the eastern influence in the north, as well as the Lebanese influence in the southeast.

*Figure 2.*  
*Maíz (corn) photograph of Celeste Nava (2018)*

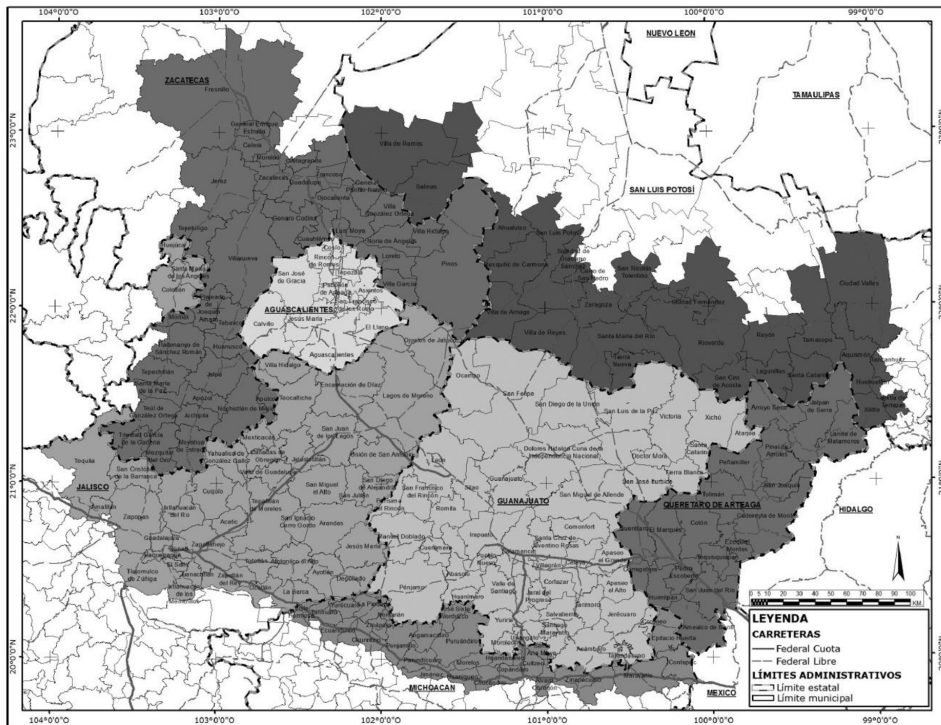


Molano (2007) says “Identity is linked to history and cultural heritage ... it does not exist without memory, without the ability to recognize the past, without symbolic elements or referents that are its own and that help to build the future ” Identity and culture is a complex binomial, the first represents who I am, and the culture the expression of the environment, the past, the tastes and preferences, the needs, the successes and the failures of a people, all this is reflected in the culture, in its different expressions.

El Bajío, a historic zone of uprisings, movement and battles, is the geographical, historical, economic and cultural area of north-western Mexico, includes part of the states of Aguascalientes, Guanajuato, Queretaro as well as the region known as Los Altos Jalisco.

Figure 3.

Source: Unger, Garduño and Ibarra (2014)



The Bajío region was inhabited by the Chichimecas, a nomadic ethnic group known for being very brave. With the arrival of the Spaniards and the discovery of mines in Zacatecas and Guanajuato, the Chichimecas were relegated from their territory and strongly fought, and the region became a powerful mining area as well as being important for the ranches and livestock.

In 1810 the Bajío became the birthplace of the independence movement and would be the site of a large number of battles until the proclamation of independence. By 1926 the Bajío would be one of the most important areas of the armed confrontation known as the Cristero War, which was aimed at combating the religious intolerance policies promulgated by the government.

The climate in El Bajío is referred to as a local steppe climate, during the year there is little rainfall, the temperature here is on average 19.2 °C. In El Bajío the evolutionary process of society, generated by historical experiences, geographical location, climate, among other factors; It has generated a regional Mexican cuisine that goes beyond merely nutritional aspects, since it is combined with the religiosity and traditions of the people.

Due to its geographical location, the Bajío is also characterized for being a region with an important industrial activity in different turns which has generated an important development of business tourism and meetings in the region, promoting the development of Mexican haute cuisine in the region.

The gastronomy of the area is fresh but with intense, salty, acidic flavours. Ingredients of local origin such as cactus, xoconostle, garambullo are integrated with cuts of meat, salmon, goat cheese to generate dishes of Mexican haute cuisine.

## **ORGANOLEPTIC QUALITIES OF WINES AND THE MEXICAN TABLE**

Wine in the Mexican context historically has a close relationship, given the circumstances in which the American continent was colonized. Prior to the arrival of the Spaniards in America, wild, wild and over-acid vines grew, which were used for the production of a sweet drink called *acachul* (Pérez, 2001).

The history of fermented beverages prior to the arrival of the Spaniards was *pulque* made from *maguey*. On the same path walks the splendour of magical Mexico. The Mexican taste for wine arises, epically, from the stark myth of a woman, *Manuel*. From it “sprouted the plant that opens its blades to the wind, and that produces the white wine that men drink” (Cruz, 1970), that is how the firstborn liqueur (*pulque*) from Mexico was born.

At the beginning of the arrival of the Spaniards, wine was imported into the barrel from Spain, however it arrived in poor condition due to the trip and was costly (Larousse, 2004), which is why the viceregal ordinance was generated, determining that each *encomendero* had to plant ten branches for each Indian commissioned, so that in 1524, *Hernán Cortés* ordered that all Spaniards who cultivated lands in New Spain plant vineyards to cover the food needs and provide the wine required for the Eucharist. Perhaps that is why it was the missionaries who most actively contributed to the formation of the American vineyard and in this way, the first vineyards were born in 1593 in the *Parras* region in the present State of *Coahuila* the first winery with commercial purposes in America (Wiesenthal, 2012).

King *Felipe II*, in the year of 1612 with the aim of protecting the production of Spanish wine, prohibited new wine plantations in America, although the rule was not obeyed, “it was kept furtively for domestic consumption, thus preventing its extension in popular taste “(Chapa, 1999).

The introduction of the European vines grafted with the locals resulted in a vine named Mission, adopting that name because they grew on the slopes of the missions. Fray Junípero Serra, extended the vineyard along the “Camino Real”, being the missionaries to whom we must thank for having made the propagation of the teaching of the cultivation of the vine, especially to celebrate the religious cult by leaving a tradition that He began to inherit from generation to generation by means of homemade grapevine. The bishop of Mexico, Don Juan de Zumárraga, dictated precepts so that no innkeeper or house of meals served wines on Sundays until the high mass ended. At the beginning of the 19th century, the Viceroy Marquis de Brancifort annulled the laws for the prohibition of alcohol and the planting of vineyards, thus increasing the facilities for the planting of vineyards and the elaboration of wines and spirits.

The war of independence frustrated this advance of the viticulture, the law of secularization was dictated and the cultivation of vineyards and agriculture, in general, was abandoned. During the seventeenth century with the learning in the processes of Mexican distillation, there is a boom because of its low cost in the production of spirits, charandas, comiteco, and inside the rompope convents. In addition, the mezcal that occupied Humboldt’s attention was already offered to the world, as well as the primitive industry of mezcal tequila. Among the upper social classes, it was customary to drink hippocrás (a drink made from wine, cinnamon, sugar, pepper, cloves and ginger), as well as a wide variety of spirits. Meanwhile the poor, who as Novo says have always been more than the rich, were given to the infusions of almost all the fruits of the earth there are indigenous tejocote, capulín or aguamiel or coming from the conqueror orange or lemon (Cruz, 1970).

Prior to the insurgency, the poetic appointment was confirmed in 1804 by Humboldt, who explained: “the thousands of mules that arrive every week from Chihuahua and Durango to Mexico, bring in addition to the silver bars some Paso’s wine from North”. Reflecting on the taste for wine in Veracruz, there was an annual average of 30,000 pints of aguardiente for 40,000 of wine (Cruz, 1970). In 1822, after the independence of Mexico, Agustín de Iturbide tried to raise the national wine industry by putting a tariff of 35% on imported wines. However, in the second half of the nineteenth century, this sector suffered a serious setback when Mexico lost the northern territories (Texas, New Mexico, New California) (Wiesenthal, 2012).

During the war of reform the production of wine that was in the hands of the clergy suffers a blow by the law of nationalization of ecclesiastical goods, the triumph of the Juarez government, with the gradual restoration of the Republic, two extreme tensions operate in the bosom of Mexico: a return to ours and the frank desire to

open the doors to contemporary civilizations (Cruz, 1970). In the Porfiriato period, wines “coming from San Luis Potosí and Coahuila, although already well known, had the vineyards of Baja California, Sonora, Durango, Zacatecas, Aguascalientes, Chihuahua, Querétaro and Guanajuato. The impulse that was slowed by the arrival of the Mexican Revolution causing the destruction and total abandonment of the vineyards, generating the import and consumption of Spanish and French wines mainly, reappearing little by little at its end and boosting after the first half of the twentieth century (Pérez, 2001). Currently, the vine is grown in Mexico in the states of Baja California, Sonora, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Durango, Zacatecas, Aguascalientes, San Luis Potosi, Guanajuato and Querétaro. A large number of geographically separated wine regions with which the country has each of them with climates and microclimates with different characteristics, provide a panorama of the diversity of strains with which has been found over time to the ideal climate for some of them.

The production of table wine in the country, according to the latest published official figures, Mexico has 4055 hectares of planted vineyards, of which 85% are in production and are located mainly in Baja California, Chihuahua, Coahuila, Guanajuato, Aguascalientes, Querétaro and Zacatecas. In Mexico, the production of wine has grown in a very marked way, quadrupling in 2016 with respect to the year 2000, since 19.4 million litres were reached with a value of 220 million dollars. The aforementioned production comes from more than 100 wineries and producers that offer more than 1000 labels (Fuentes, 2017).

*Table 1.*

<b>Surface of Cultivated Grape (All Uses), by States; in Percentage</b>		
<b>State</b>	<b>Hectares</b>	<b>Percentage</b>
Sonora	22,842	68%
Baja California	4,280	12.7%
Zacatecas	4,234	12.6%
Aguascalientes	994	3.0%
Coahuila	616	1.8%
Querétaro	295	0.9%
Guanajuato	152	0.5%
Chihuahua	135	0.4%

Source: Notes by Dr. Álvaro Fuentes Bernat, owner of the Bernat's Wine Dolores Hidalgo (s/ f)

## **The Pairing**

The wine is to the plane what the light to the landscape, using this example of complement to speak of pairing is to establish a myriad of configurations that are intertwined depending on the regions and what the soil, the rivers and seas provide with food, as well as the terroir arises. In the terroir, the strains are born in such a way that the host region provides unique characteristics, the hand of man helps in the process of obtaining, thus crystallizing the wine that is to be paired later. Making a marriage, which is always fun, becomes a total pleasure when its object is a marriage between wine and food, by joining it is intended that these complementary flavours offer a gastronomic delight much more delicious than they can provide separately (Lichine, 1987).

Pairing is a theme that is discovered and evolves over time, there is no absolute truth in this; climate changes generate changes in wines, the incorporation of a growing production and modernization of food, endowing a myriad of alternatives for pairings. Taking into account the matrix of pairing as an opportunity to appreciate, with another aesthetic, the affinities and peculiarities of food, this can be integrated from the delicate search for harmony and contrast of wine and food. Following the most common rules of pairing, the union of food and wine is not difficult with the following guide:

- The first thing that must be taken into account is that wine is a living product, and like all living beings, it is born, grows and dies. The wine is born when it is obtained from the vine, it grows in barrels and dies if it is not well preserved, or it is not consumed at the opportune moment. From this perspective, the wine could die at the table. The chosen wine has to please the diner, accompanying the meal; without losing sight of the fact that the rules of pairing are useful for those who know when to break them (Lichine, 1987).
- White wines are simpler, fresher, not complex with more acidity than red wines, there are young people and those who have matured in barrels. In the case of red wines regularly with fermentation and barrel ageing processes that make them more complex and softens the tannins (Sánchez, 2013).
- The pairings can look for the harmony of the elements in the table, or the contrast of the same, in both cases, can intensify flavours or balance them. The elements to consider are the characteristics of the wine and food, considering that the flavours of Mexican cuisine can go from spicy to spicy.



- The considerations to have in wines are astringency and acidity. Some considerations of the first being that the bitter taste is felt inside the tongue with a rough sensation almost at the end which causes a dry sensation in the mouth, get along with the strong flavours of roast meat or smoked flavours. Astringency is the way to effectively clean fats on the palate. On the other hand, acidity is perceived on the sides of the tongue and is very easy to identify, causes salivation and gives the sensation of freshness. In general, a wine with good acidity highlights the flavours of the meals. The acidity counteracts the corrosive sensation of alcohol and refreshes the dryness caused by astringency. Likewise, it cleans the palate of spicy, salty, bitter and sweet sensations.

Globalization has brought the regions closer to a vertiginous rhythm in the social processes that have permeated all the axes of culture, and therefore, the life of people and tourist destinations, in this sense, the way of life He has pushed people away from the table. The possibility of making a pairing of a gastronomy rich in possibilities of its colours, aromas and flavours with the great variety of styles of red, white, rosé, sparkling and spirited wines and with the fruits of the earth could be transformed into a myth.

In Mexico, in 2016, 89.5 million litres of wine were consumed. Dividing this figure among the total population in 2016, yields a consumption of 0.75 litres per capita, which is an extremely low indicator according to European standards; however, the growth recorded between 2000 and 2016 is 184%, which is encouraging (Fuentes, 2017).

The creation of different pairing matrices and their inclusion in glocal development could build new realities with respect to the consumption of wine at the Mexican table, implies an exercise that revalues the fruits of the land in function of a culture that seeks the integration of social processes that identify with the reality of the territories.

Despite its intangibility, food is a product of the material and symbolic activity of man. The gastronomy is framed in certain cultural and social systems, a product of the material and symbolic activity of man and where the connection with the glocal development can have peculiar characteristics and own characteristics different from other cultures. From this perspective, the glocal development, through the inclusion of different pairings implies the development of distinctive characteristics of the territories as well as the unleashing of local productive processes.

Social transformations introduce new eating habits and consequently new identities that become part of everyday life, generating new needs that arise as a result of economic, social and technological changes

## Matrice: Pairing Matrix With a Glocal Development Approach

The matrix is presented, in the first column, looking for a simple classification of wines starting with reds, which were divided according to their intensity of colour, seeking to group them with characteristics linked to the tannins that can be achieved by the Same colouration. It is necessary to clarify that a subdivision is not being considered for the barricade that they may have in order to make identification easier.

*Table 2.*

Classification	Variety	State	Mexican Dish
Red wines high coloration	Cabernet Sauvignon, Nebbiolo, Malbec, Tannat, Petite Sirah, Petit Verdot, Nero d'ávola, Shiraz, Pinotage, Cabernet Franc, Touriga Nacional, Mourvedre	Baja California, Guanajuato, Querétaro, Zacatecas, Aguascalientes, Coahuila, Chihuahua,	<i>Cortes y carnes a la parrilla, chamorro adobado, barbacoa de borrego, cabrito a las brasas, birria de res, tampiqueña de res, fajitas de arrachera.</i>
Red wines medium coloration	Carmeneré, Sangiovese, Merlot, Zinfandel, Barbera, Tempranillo, Grenache.	Baja California, Guanajuato, Querétaro, Aguascalientes, Coahuila, Chihuahua,	<i>Carnitas, tortas ahogadas, taco gobernador de marlín, flores de calabaza rellenas de queso en salsa pasilla, lomo de cerdo al horno, cochinita pibil, chiles rellenos, papatzules.</i>
Red wines low coloration	Gamay, Pinot Noir, Cinsault, Carignan,	Baja California, Guanajuato, Querétaro, Coahuila,	<i>Asado de boda, mancha manteles, pollo adobado, camarón a las brasas, enchiladas mineras, enchiladas potosinas, pozole rojo, pulpo en su tinta, pambazos, tlacoyos, huaraches y sopes sencillos.</i>
Dry white citrus and herbal wines	Albariño, Macabeo, Sauvignon Blanc, Colombard,	Baja California, Guanajuato, Querétaro, Zacatecas, Aguascalientes, Coahuila,	<i>Pozole verde, pescado zarandeado, ceviche de pescado, aguachile de camarón, tacos dorados de papa, huevos a la mexicana, chaskas o esquites, guacamaya.</i>
Dry white wines apple and pineapple	Chardonnay, Sémillon, Torrontés, Chenin Blanc, Trebbiano	Baja California, Guanajuato, Querétaro, Zacatecas, Aguascalientes, Coahuila, Chihuahua,	<i>Guacamole, chilaquiles, tamales y enchiladas en salsa verde, discada norteña, pescado a la talla, tacos al pastor, chiles en nogada, sopa de mariscos, flautas y sopes de pollo, ceviche acapulqueño, quesadillas, pescado empapelado.</i>
White semi-dry honey wines, tropical fruit	Pinot Gris, Viogner, Riesling, Moscato, Gewurztraminer	Baja California, Guanajuato, Querétaro, Zacatecas, Aguascalientes, Coahuila, Chihuahua,	<i>Ate con queso, ensalada de manzana, sopa de lima.</i>

In the following column, the main varieties of red strains that are produced in Mexico are grouped in such a way that they respond to the intensity of colour to add a column with the corresponding federative entities. Finally, the most representative traditional dishes of the country are added, making a harmonious pairing. It should be noted that in some cases they can change the pairing dishes depending on the cooking method of the food or the wine elaboration with the barrica that you may have.

In the case of white wines, which were divided according to their olfactory character to group the varieties with aromatic typicality. The aromatic variant that the wines derived from the microclimate that the production region may have is not being considered.

In the following column, the main varieties of white strains that are produced in Mexico are grouped in such a way that they respond to the olfactory character to add a column with the corresponding federative entities. Finally, the most representative traditional dishes of the country are added, making a harmonious pairing.

## **Reflections for a Pairing With Glocal Development**

The process of developing the territories dedicated to hospitality through the tourism or gastronomic phenomenon should originate a reevaluation of the same site, increasing the importance of places and locations (Espinoza, Chávez and Andrade, 2012), but also of the gastronomic richness that implies the development of the countryside and agriculture.

Globalization, as a multifactorial phenomenon, causes economies to generate their development strategies ruthlessly against natural resources (Espinoza, Chávez and Andrade, 2012) implying the no or null integration of the primary activities of the economy. Vision should be thought that tourism governance should allow the integration of activities that take care of natural, social, cultural and economic resources, only this way we can speak of sustainability and therefore of a glocal development of the territory.

The glocal development must minimize the possible problems in the spheres of sustainability, that is, of the spheres: economic; social and environmental, and in this sense for Gómez op cit., Espinoza, Chávez and Andrade (2012) sustainability should be understood as “a new culture that seeks to relate harmoniously to the development of the economy, society and nature.” From this position, the glocal development is related to the exercise of tasks, aimed at the inclusion of primary activities of the territories, strengthen actions that articulate the different sustainability variables, seeking improvement in the quality of life of people and territories.

### ***Wine and Glocal Gastronomy in Mexico***

The inclusion of specialized pairings that articulate the gastronomic richness of the territory is a tool to give vitality to the environmental, social and economic processes of the territories, which focused on the tourist phenomenon, could create new tourism and new consumers. The articulation of new food and wine combinations should seek new ways of managing activities and new ways of consuming the products that are obtained in the territories.

Mexican gastronomy is a resource that is intimately related to the history and evolution of culture; from pre-hispanic times, up to the present, it is a reflection of the strengths and weaknesses of a culture, it is an expression of the victories and the defeats, and a resource that undoubtedly gives identity to each region of the country. In this sense, the creation of new pairings implies an evolution in the Mexican culture and its expressions, impacting the mobility of tourists who will always be interested in knowing and enjoying the culture of the territories.

Food practices are loaded with meanings, a new system of pairing will create cultural content and promote glocal development. From the choice of what is or is not edible to how to prepare it, serve it and consume it, you can appreciate the alimentary characteristics linked to culture and society (Tramontin, 2010).

## REFERENCES

- Carrillo, A. M. (1999). La cocina del tomate, frijol y calabaza. *Clio*.
- Chapa, M. (1999). *Bebidas Mexicanas, la ruta del espíritu*. León, España: Editorial Everest.
- CONACULTA. (2010). La cocina tradicional mexicana, cultura comunitaria, ancestral, y viva. El paradigma de Michoacán. Retrieved from [http://www.cultura.gob.mx/turismocultural/patrimonio\\_cultural/cocina\\_mexicana/index.php#ad-image-0](http://www.cultura.gob.mx/turismocultural/patrimonio_cultural/cocina_mexicana/index.php#ad-image-0)
- Cruz, S. (1970). *Del Mexicano Gusto por el Vino*. D.F., México: Editorial Muñoz.
- de Gil, A.M. & Zamarripa, C. (2004). *Platos y Vinos, el difícil arte del maridaje*. Madrid, España: Editorial Alianza.
- De'Angeli, A. G. (2014). Larousse de la Cocina Mexicana. Puebla: Larousse.
- Encyclopedia of Tourism. (2016). *Entrance*. Mexico: Springer.
- Espinoza, R., Chávez, R., & Andrade, E. (2012). Lo global-local como base del turismo y la sustentabilidad. Una aproximación a la discusión teórica conceptual. In A. López et al. (Eds.), *Lo glocal y el turismo. Nuevos paradigmas de interpretación*. Academia Mexican de Investigación Turística A. C. Universidad de Guadalajara.
- Garma, E. (2012). *Vinos y Viñedos del Centro de México*. Querétaro: Sé, Taller de ideas.
- Lichine, A. (1967). *Enciclopedia de Vinos y Alcoholes de Todos los Países*. Barcelona, España: Editorial Omega.
- Mascarenhas Tramontin, R. G. (2010). Producción y transformación territorial: La gastronomía como atractivo turístico. In *Estudios y Perspectivas en Turismo* (pp. 776–791).
- Molano, O.L. (2007). Identidad cultural un concepto que evoluciona. *Opera*, 69-84.
- Montecinos, A. (2012). *Planificación del turismo gastronómico sostenible*. México: CEGAHO.
- Pérez, S. L. (2001). *El vino, arte que se puede beber*. México: Editorial Panorama.
- Thirkettle, A., & Korstanje, M. (2013). Creating a new epistemology for tourism and hospitality disciplines. *International Journal of Qualitative Research in Services*, 1(1), 13–34. doi:10.1504/IJQRS.2013.054342

### ***Wine and Glocal Gastronomy in Mexico***

Torreros, L., & Castro, R. (2012) ¿Geografía turística o Geografía del turismo? La importancia del territorio. In A. López et al. (Eds.), *Lo glocal y el turismo. Nuevos paradigmas de interpretación* (pp. 54-72). Academia Mexicana de Investigación Turística Universidad de Guadalajara.

Torres, G. M. (n.d.). El alimento, la cocina étnica, la gastronomía nacional, elemento patrimonial y un referente de identidad cultural. *Scripta Ethnologica*, 16, 55-66. Retrieved from <http://www.redalyc.org/pdf/148/14802603.pdf>

Unger, K., Garduño, R., & Ibarra, J. E. (2014). Especializaciones reveladas y ventajas competitivas en el Bajío mexicano. *EconoQuantum*, 11(2), 41-74. Retrieved from [http://www.scielo.org.mx/scielo.php?script=sci\\_arttext&pid=S1870-66222014000200002&lng=es&tlng=es](http://www.scielo.org.mx/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S1870-66222014000200002&lng=es&tlng=es)

Wiesenthal, M. (2012). *Diccionario del Vino*. Barcelona, España: Editorial De Vecchi.

Zurita, R. M. (2012). *Diccionario Enciclopédico de la Gastronomía Mexicana*. México: Larousse.

## APPENDIX

*Table 3.*

<b>Mexican dish</b>	<b>English</b>
Cortes y carnes a la parrilla, chamorro adobado, barbacoa de borrego, cabrito a las brasas, birria de res, tampiqueña de res, fajitas de arrachera.	Grilled cuts and meats, marinated chamorro, lamb barbecue, goat grilled, beef birr, beef steak Tampiqueña, Arrachera fajitas.
Carnitas, tortas ahogadas, taco gobernador de marlín, flores de calabaza rellenas de queso en salsa pasilla, lomo de cerdo al horno, cochinita pibil, chiles rellenos, papatzules.	Meats, drowned tortas, taco governor of marlin, pumpkin blossoms stuffed with cheese in pasilla sauce, roast pork loin, cochinita pibil, stuffed chiles, papatzules.
Asado de boda, mancha anteles, pollo adobado, camarón a las brasas, enchiladas mineras, enchiladas potosinas, pozole rojo, pulpo en su tinta, pambazos, tlacoyos, huaraches y sopes sencillos.	Wedding roast, spotted suede, marinated chicken, grilled shrimp, enchiladas Mineras, enchiladas Potosinas, red pozole, octopus in its ink, Pambazos, Tlacoyos, Huaraches and simple sopes.
Pozole verde, pescado zarandeado, ceviche de pescado, aguachile de camarón, tacos dorados de papa, huevos a la mexicana, chaskas o esquites, guacamaya.	Green pozole, shaken fish, fish ceviche, shrimp aguachile, browm potato tacos, Mexican eggs, chaskas or macaw.
Guacamole, chilaquiles, tamales y enchiladas en salsa verde, discada norteña, pescado a la talla, tacos al pastor, chiles en nogada, sopa de mariscos, flautas y sopes de pollo, ceviche acapulqueño, quesadillas, pescado empapelado.	Guacamole, chilaquiles, tamales and enchiladas in green sauce, northern dislike, fish to size, tacos al pastor, chiles en nogada, seafood soup, flutes and sopes of chicken, ceviche Acapulqueño, quesadillas, fish wallpaper.
Ate con queso, ensalada de manzana, sopa de lima.	Ate with cheese, apple salad, and lime soup.

Section 3

# Neo-Liberalism and the Global Business



# Chapter 7

## The Business Environment as a Global Village

**Sahidi Maman Bilan**

*University of Sunderland in London, UK*

### **ABSTRACT**

*Globalisation is thought of as the fast-growing move towards a world in which national economies are merging into an interdependent global economic system. A more business view of globalisation conceives it as a process by which industries transform themselves from multi-national to global competitive structures. ICT, transportation technologies and global institutions have played a determinant role in the phenomenon of globalisation. Various levels of integration have been established. Globalisation of companies has been identified as the micro level, whereas the interconnectedness of economies is termed as the macro level of globalisation. The merging of businesses is referred to as the meso level. Thus, all these levels must be differentiated when dealing with its issues and should be understood as different interrelated stages. If at the heart of globalisation is the interdependence and integration of the national economies into global economy, does it also mean that cultural differences for instance have been subsumed or sublated?*

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-5225-6983-1.ch007

Copyright © 2019, IGI Global. Copying or distributing in print or electronic forms without written permission of IGI Global is prohibited.

## **INTRODUCTION**

This chapter aims to discuss the wide spread statement: “Globalisation is radically changing the international business environment by creating a “global village”. Firstly, the concept of globalisation will be defined and its driving factors analysed. Secondly, it will be demonstrated how globalisation is affecting the international business environment, what the concept of “global village” infers. Thirdly, it will be assessed to what extent it can be said that the international business has become a global village. Finally, a conclusion will follow. Furthermore, the following questions will be discussed, which implication does such a globe village have on our lives and the interactions of nations?

### **What Is Meant by Globalisation?**

Globalisation is undoubtedly one of the most controversial topics of our time. For some it has a positive connotation, for others a negative one. As De Wit et al. (2004, p. 539) rightly pointed out, globalisation involves many aspects ranging from economics, politics, business to sociology with each approach emphasising one of its aspects, therefore, only a comprehensive approach would convey the nature and characteristics of globalisation.

Globalisation is thought of as the fast-growing move “towards a world in which national economies are merging into an interdependent global economic system” (Acosta et al., 2010, p. 3). The definition emphasises more on the economic perspective of globalisation. Nevertheless, it can be inferred from the above quotation that globalisation is characterised by the trend of individual countries’ economies to transcend their isolations towards a more integrated and interrelated economy, so that a kind of economic network and mutual dependency emerge. In the same perspective, Brooks, et. al. (2004, p. 308) claim that globalisation is the “process that refers to the growth of inter-dependencies between national markets and industries on a worldwide scale. This growing interdependence between national economies has resulted in a trend towards global markets, global production and global competition”. What are here highlighted are supranational markets, worldwide production and competition among giant businesses and industries to a scale never before seen.

A more business approach to globalisation suggests that globalisation is “the phenomenon by which industries transform themselves from multi-national to global competitive structures” (University of Sunderland, 2014, p. 60).

It is paramount to notify here that an important shift is identified by industries in the sense that companies are not limiting their activities to only one or two countries. Rather, they are present and now operating on a wider geographical scale, i.e. in more than three countries at the same time. Globalisation of companies has been identified by De Wit et al. (2004) as the micro level, whereas the interconnectedness of national economies is termed as the macro level of globalisation. The merging of businesses is referred to as the meso level. As we can see, globalisation encompasses many levels which must be differentiated when dealing with its issues and should be understood as different interrelated stages.

To better understand the concept of globalisation, it is of great importance to explain a key word like global. In other words, what is meant with the concept of global?

According to Lynch, (2006, P.684) global is “when a company treats the whole world as one market and one source of supply”. A much-differentiated approach of the concept of global is suggested by De Wit et al. Three aspects have basically been highlighted which can be inferred from the word global: Worldwide scope refers to the geographical or the spatial dimension. Whereas, worldwide similarity refers to the tendency of the homogeneity around the world (Patel and Pavitt, 1991). An example of this aspect is if a company decides to sell the same product in all of its international markets, it is then referred to as a global product as opposed to a locally tailored product. Global here outlines the variance dimension. In this perspective globalisation is thought of as the “process of declining international variety” (Levitt, 1983). Worldwide integration refers to the world as one tightly linked system. Any turbulence or issue in one market can affect another one. In such a case, the term global is primarily intended to describe the dimensions of linkage – the ultimate level of worldwide integration is to be global. “Globalisation is the process of increasing international interconnectedness” (Porter, 1986). Globalisation is therefore much more than an internationalisation in terms of scope, reach and intensity.

From above it becomes evident that globalisation is a very complex theme and can basically be defined as the process of the convergence and integration of companies, markets, industries and national economies allowing cross-border trade and business operations. In such a case, individual markets, businesses, industries and economies are not anymore isolated from each other. Any attempt to do so will end up in a kind of reductionism. Companies, businesses and economies have, so to speak, become like subsystems of a whole and single or, “global” system, global network. To be convinced one just needs to look at the integration of Tourism, Hospitality and Transport industries in developed countries.

## **How Globalisation Has Led to a Paradigm Shift and Which Factors Were Conducive to It?**

It is critically relevant to mention that through the process of globalisation an important shift has occurred, for, the centres of business activities which used to be North America, West Europe and Japan have substantially or significantly changed. Through globalisation new markets have emerged such as Mexico, East Asian countries, India, China and the former Eastern Europe socialist countries. In other words, globalisation has massively contributed to the emergence of new markets, - and also new tourism destinations –, called BRICS countries. These are Brazil, Russia, India, China and South Africa. It is therefore not wrong whatsoever to assert that a change of paradigm<sup>1</sup> has happened, thus, a new world order has been established. As a consequence, strategies have been adapted to accommodate this enlarged business area.

A plethora of circumstances have been conducive to the birth and spread of globalisation. In other words, various factors and drivers have brought about the phenomenon of globalisation. These include the collapse of the former Soviet economic and political system resulting in the adoption of the market-led economic system by the new Eastern European countries and many African states in 1989-1990. Furthermore, the establishment of a new international economic institution in 1995 called the WTO (World Trade Organisation) to regulate international trade relations leading to the free flow of goods and services is critical. It replaces the already existing General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT) created for the same purpose (see Stiglitz, 2002). In addition to these trade organisations, existing organisations have been restructured or new regional organisations established to promote integration of economies, markets and businesses, such as European Union (EU), The North American Free Trade Agreement (NAFTA) created in 1994 grouping The United States, Canada and Mexico, Association of South East Asian Nations (ASEAN), etc.

We also ought not to forget the substantial role played by the financial institutions such as the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) which have decisively contributed to the globalisation process by making countries loans dependent on the adoption of, among others, the following principles:

- Liberalisation of the economy, i.e. the lifting of all trade barriers which leads to tax reductions and encourages removal of any law that can potentially impede the free flow of goods and services. The state may not interfere in regulating financial transactions.

- Privatisation of the state-owned companies, which means the possibility for individuals or private companies to buy state owned properties and to operate them for their own profit<sup>2</sup>.

Not only has this free trade policy impacted the flow of goods and services, but also has brought together many countries' currencies and pegged to the US Dollar. So, any malaise or slowdown in the US economy or weakening of the dollar would directly affect these currencies. For instance, the oil prices are fixed in dollar. As a result of the current weakening of dollar, the oil prices are rising and so are the prices of raw materials. Therefore, a recession in the US will affect the entire world economy, showing how interdependent the national economies have become. As an example, the financial crisis of 2008 was triggered by the subprime mortgage crisis in the USA which resulted in the collapse of the investment Bank Lehman Brothers. The financial crisis affected systematically all the US industries and impacted badly on the automotive industry. Subsequently, the Northern Rock bank has in the same year heavily been affected and that the UK government was forced to nationalise the company.

Advances in Information Technologies have also massively contributed to the globalisation. In addition to the telephone, the creation of the internet and the worldwide web, microprocessor, the use of personal computers, satellite communication, media, and fibre cable were milestones in the integration process of the business environment. This has not only enabled managers worldwide to communicate with each other, but also share huge amount of information and knowledge at a tremendous speed never seen before. Important business decisions can nowadays be made just by teleconference or videoconference. People can keep abreast of new discoveries in science, new product offerings, technological and medical advances easily through chatrooms. In respect, of the Tourism and Hospitality industries, worldwide travel and hotel bookings became possible and easy. According to Morrison, (2002, P.159) "Improved transport and communications, especially the rise of e-commerce, have brought the notion of a global marketplace closer to reality. However, the spread of global markets does not necessarily imply a growing uniformity in customer tastes and the melting away of national markets". Advances in transportation, logistics and communication technologies have played a decisive role in the promotion of Tourism and globalisation. Technological change and innovation are universally acknowledged as determinants of globalisation. Technology implies the application of scientific knowledge for practical aims" (Collinson S. 2016). Collinson is absolutely right as we now see how bio and nano technologies are taking the scientific knowledge of nano and bio sciences and applying it for the production and use in our daily life.

### ***The Business Environment as a Global Village***

Financial markets such as stock markets and Foreign Direct Investment (FDI) cannot function or be carried out without ICT. All business functions such as Outsourcing, shifting of plants, relocation of production to low wage countries to maintain better economies of scales, all this is International business and it requires ICT as well as the use of technological advance. In the same perspective, Theodore Levitt (1983) posits that technology is one of the most influencing driving forces behind the globalisation of markets and, therefore, a 'converging commonality' in various countries around the world.

All these advances in technology and information systems have in turn impacted the improvement of national economies, businesses and the rise of incomes in many countries. The technological advancement in transportation enabled flexibility and the easiness of the movement for people and goods around the world at a very low cost. The proliferation of low cost flights such as easyJet, Ryanair etc. competing with each other forced big established air companies such as British Airways, Air France, Virgin Atlantic etc. to lower their air fares and to improve the service quality. Thus, travel around the world is made easy and affordable for the people. This has without a doubt contributed to the convergence of businesses, customers' tastes and preferences in various sectors and in the food and beverage sectors in particular. It is therefore not wrong to assert that customers' tastes are globalised as people from different parts of the world are influencing each other.

One of the important factors of the interconnectedness of businesses is illustrative in the behaviour of Transnational Companies (TNC). For example, in the automotive industry, GM, Ford, DaimlerChrysler, Volkswagen, Toyota etc. enter Strategic Alliances or establish Mergers and Acquisitions in search of synergies, economies of scale, reach, and market shares. One of the historical and significant mergers was DaimlerChrysler in 1998. The merger of the Germany-based company Daimler-Benz and the North American Chrysler opened up for the former the American and Asian market and for the latter the European market. Through strategic alliances with companies based in the emerging markets, European, American and Japanese car makers can easily enter these promising business areas, as well as to China, India, Russia etc. In order to reduce production costs, many car manufacturers are either outsourcing some of their services or relocating their manufacturing facilities to low cost countries. In this perspective, it is not false to affirm that businesses and companies are integrated and interdependent, acting therefore as globalisation agents. Another noticeable development in the automotive industry is the "increasing use of shared platforms between different vehicles' models" (Dicken, 2007, p. 285).

Hence, it is *prima facie*, that the automobile industry is one of the most integrated and globalised industry. The car manufacturers are present and operate everywhere, cooperating while at the same time competing with each other. This is the paradox of competition and cooperation. A technological breakthrough in one sector would benefit the entire industry by lowering costs and steadily improving quality, one of the reasons why the car makers despite their rivalry collaborate in research and development of new products. We ought not to forget that globalisation is in return influencing the development of Information telecommunication technologies. As already mentioned above, Globalisation has brought businesses, industries and economies together creating in this way in some areas synergy, efficiency creativity etc. The increasing competition has forced companies to invest in Research and Development (R&D), in new product development. Only creative and innovative companies can nowadays survive the hyper competition and live up to the expectations of their customers. This can be exemplified with the success story of the mobile phone companies Apple and Samsung. There is a mutual implication between globalisation and the development of Information and Communication Technologies. Information and communication technologies enhance not only companies' ability to compete but also, they can confer competitive advantage to companies. As put it rightly by (Porter, 1985, p. xxi), "Competitive advantage is at the heart of a firm's performance in competitive markets..."

Overall, as we can see, the world cannot be thought of or conceived in terms of isolation. Companies, industries, markets, people are interconnected, integrated and interdependent as ever before. Time and space do not seem to have a significant meaning in terms of obstacles or barriers between people, and the free flow of goods, capital and services. In other words, distance and the travel time have significantly be reduced because of the advances in the information and communication technologies and transportation means. There is evidence of a global mobility and Tourism has become an important sector of service economy. As a consequence of this, skills, knowledge, know-how are transferred across the world. If a problem occurs in one sector, this would have an impact or a repercussion in the whole market or economic system. A concrete example is the Asian financial crisis in 1997 that caused many problems in all important markets around the world. Many companies operating at a global level had to cope with losses. As mentioned earlier, the weakness of the American dollar is currently affecting the worldwide financial market (J. Morrison, 2002). Let us now look at the concept of "global village" in order to understand its implications.

## **THE CONCEPT OF GLOBAL VILLAGE**

The concept of global village was first introduced by Wyndham Lewis in his book *America and Cosmic Man* (1948). A decade later, Herbert Marshall McLuhan used the same word in his book with the title: *The Gutenberg Galaxy: The Making of Typographic Man* (1962).

McLuhan emphatically used the metaphor of global village to stress how electronic mass media are affecting and altering space and time barriers by allowing human communication at a greater scale, by enabling them to interact more frequently and efficiently despite huge distances and time differences between countries. Thus, the entire globe has turned into a village by the electronic mass media. In other words, human beings are being worldwide connected by electric or electronic technologies. This process is reducing the physical impact of time and space. The limiting factors of time and space are becoming meaningless. This futuristic view has mainly predicted the interdependence of the world from the perspective of the electronic communication. However, our present business environment is more complex than described by McLuhan, for the interconnectedness involves our institutions, lives, markets, economies, leisure etc.

In light of the preceding points, it seems not wrong to assert that our international business environment has become an interlinked, cohesive network through globalisation and therefore a 'smaller community' sharing certain values, mutual interests and therefore in a broader sense a 'global village'. If something happens in one part of the world it is known instantly in the rest of the world. However, the question that arises here is, have all differences been subsumed through globalisation? In other words, has globalisation promoted cultural homogenisation, polarisation or hybridisation?

### **The Cultural Implications in the Context of the “Global Village”**

It cannot be denied that international managers who are dealing with their subsidiaries in many countries, or companies that are present in various markets are facing serious challenges, such as among others, cultural diversity management. As outlined in the KPMG (2006) research: “A key challenge for international managers and international businesses is to understand these cultural differences and how they may affect business or consumer behaviour”. Understanding cultural differences is particularly critical when it comes to “foreign market attractiveness, expansion patterns, adaptation of marketing and retailing strategies, modes of entry and



organisational performance” (Sakarya et al., 2007). As Jary and Jary (1991) have suggested, culture can be defined as “the way of life for an entire society.” Another definition claims by Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952, p. 181, cited by Adler 1997, p. 14) that, “Culture consists of patterns, explicit and implicit, of and for behaviour acquired and transmitted by symbols, constituting the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiment in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e. historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values; culture systems may, on the one hand, be considered as products of action, on the other, as conditional elements of future action...” As such, culture encompasses characteristics such as codes of manners, dress, language, religion, rituals, arts, human made objects, icons and norms of behaviour in terms of law and morality, and system of beliefs, etc.

Hence, cultural difference exists where there is a presence of ethnic communities on regional or national bases and cannot just be defined on an international or universal platform. It is the degree of cultural differences that influences behaviour, practices, traditions and corporate organisations. In the same way, corporate culture is to be understood as “the specific collection of values and norms that are shared by people and groups in an organization and that control the way they interact with each other and with stakeholders outside the organization. Organizational values are beliefs and ideas about what kind of goals members of an organization should pursue and ideas about the appropriate kinds or standards of behaviour organizational members should use to achieve these goals” (Hill & Jones, 2001). Thus, national and regional corporate cultures can be differentiated.

It can be assumed that corporate culture may be different from country to country for the simple reason that culture is developed by individuals of the business that judge what is right and wrong, and how to behave. This is generally performed on the assumptions of their national and corporate cultural framework. As Boddy (2005) has highlighted, therefore “Every employee brings their values, attitudes and beliefs into the workplace as part of their cultural heritage”. Culture is without a doubt a determinant and differentiating factor of human activities. Each culture has its own identity and personality. In this sense, African culture can be differentiated from Asian, American or European cultures.

It is also important to note that many critics see globalisation as Americanisation or Westernisation (Muzaffar 2002). In other words, globalisation is suspected to be a process of spreading Western and free market values on consumerism, individualism, egoism etc. to the rest of the world. As a consequence of this, there is a resurgence of nationalism, claim of national identity etc. A striking example is

### *The Business Environment as a Global Village*

the Brexit in the UK. The European regional integration and the subsequent mobility in the Eurozone have triggered by many Britons the sentiment of losing control over their country's economy and cultural values etc. Many identity conflicts around the world may have their root causes in the fact that people see globalisation as a threat to their cultural identity, language, religion etc. In this perspective, it can be said that globalization and its implication which is modernisation is exacerbating ethnic conflicts. Resistances are being formed against the homogenizing forces of globalisation (Alison 2012).

In light of the cultural difference outlined above, we can say that a sustainable success of an international business at all its functional levels or operations, ranging from product development, marketing to its HR management is heavily dependent on how seriously local requirements are taken into account. Cultural differences cannot be eroded or ignored, as individuals, i.e. customers and employees are themselves products of their cultures. Personality is based on culture and is passed on to an individual via upbringing and education. That means managers will have to adapt their strategies to local differences while thinking globally (Morrison, 2002, p. 168). For instance, McDonalds is seen as a global company serving its products worldwide. However, McDonalds offers 'halal meat' in all Islamic countries where it operates. In India, McDonalds will not offer beef, as most of the people are either Hindus or vegetarians. This applies also to many businesses involved in international and global marketing. Beyond the standard products offered to customers they also have to cater for local requirements, local tastes etc. This has been termed as Glocalisation. According to Wordspy, glocalisation means "...the creation of products or services intended for the global market, but customised to suit the local cultures..." (Khondker, 2005).

Globalisation has fiercely been criticised recently. Many opponents think that globalisation has created a huge gap between rich and poor not only in developed countries but also in the developing ones. They argue that corporations have destroyed manufacturing jobs in many economically advanced countries like USA, UK, and Germany by shifting their production factories to low wage countries like China, Vietnam, Eastern European countries, Bangladesh, India, etc. This has massively contributed to inequalities between low skilled and highly skilled workers. Through the practice of outsourcing and the tactics of relocating their factories from high wage nations to low wage countries, corporations have succeeded in making employment insecure and gaining competitive advantages.

Companies are enjoying cheap labour costs in developing countries at the expense of basic human rights. Moreover, instead of transferring knowledge and wealth via globalisation to poor countries, corporations are looting and plundering their natural resources, creating misery and perpetuating poverty, so much that South and North

appear to be two different globes. Furthermore, Globalisation had hugely contributed to the depletion of natural resources, global warming and pollution.

Globalisation has also contributed to the undermining of the concept of state in many developing countries as they do not control their territory; they are not sovereign and do not have the monopoly of coercive power. Territoriality, sovereignty and the exclusive exercise of coercive power basically define the mainstays of statehood. As these nations do not meet these mentioned criteria, it is therefore not false to say that they have collapsed as states. As a consequence of this reality, many young people from developing countries and especially from African countries who are desperate are dying in the sea by trying to cross the Mediterranean Sea to reach Europe. While many states were collapsing as they could not fulfil the minimum requirements for their citizens, corporations through mergers, acquisitions, strategic alliances and the business-friendly environment that they enjoy have become bigger and so powerful that they are getting out of control. Many critics see globalisation in this perspective as a new form of colonization (Alison, 2012). In this sense is it not legitimate to ask if terrorism, beyond the religious fundamentalism, does not have anything to do with the globalisation threat?

It is important to note that since Donald Trump came into power in the USA in January 2017, he has tried to prevent some American companies to relocate some of their operations abroad by imposing huge taxes and sanctions. This has been termed by many critics as deglobalisation which is, according to Systemic Alternatives (2014), “not a synonym for withdrawing from the world economy. It means a process of restructuring the world economic and political system so that the latter builds the capacity of local and national economies instead of degrading it. Deglobalization means the transformation of a global economy from one integrated around the needs of transnational corporations to one integrated around the needs of peoples, nations, and communities.”

## **CONCLUSION**

Finally, we can say that the international business environment has in fact become a global village through globalisation process, since all national economies, markets, be they of poor or rich countries are interrelated and interdependent. This process cannot be reversed, as it is not a matter of choice and none of the individual countries, markets and businesses can stay in isolation. However, Globalisation does not mean necessarily that cultural differences are elapsed. Rather, cultures learn from each other and this must be seen as enrichment. These aspects count in every business and therefore are taken seriously. Development and aid plans should be crafted to help developing countries to profit from globalisation.

## REFERENCES

- Acosta, C. V., Leon, J., Conrad, C. R., & Malave, C. O. (2010). *Global engineering: Design, decision making, and communication*. Taylor & Francis Group.
- Adler, N. (1997). *International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior* (3rd ed.). Ohio: South-Western College Publishing.
- Alison, M. (2013). Ethnic Conflict and Political Violence [lecture]. In *Ethnic Conflict and Political Violence*.
- Boddy, D. (2005). *Management an introduction* (3rd ed.). Prentice Hall.
- Brooks, I., Weatherston, J., & Wilkinson, G. (2004). *The international business environment*. Pearson Education.
- Collinson, S. (2016). *International business*. United Kingdom: Pearson.
- Crystal, D. (2002). *Language death (New ed.)*. Cambridge University Press.
- Elenkov, D., & Fileva, T. (2006). Anatomy of a business failure: Accepting the 'bad luck' explanation vs proactively learning in international business. *Cross Cultural Management, 13*(2), 132–141.
- Frey-Ridgway, S. (1997). The cultural dimension of international business. *Collection Building, 16*(1), 12–23.
- Griffin, R. W., & Pustay, M. W. (2003). *International business* (4th ed.). Pearson Higher Education.
- Hill, C. W., Jones, G. R., & Schilling, M. A. (2014). *Strategic management: theory: an integrated approach*. Cengage Learning.
- Hurn, B. J. (2007). Pre-departure training for international business managers. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 39*(1), 9–17.
- Jary, D., & Jary, J. (1991). *The HarperCollins Dictionary of Sociology*. Harper Collins.
- Kanter, R. M. (1991). Transcending business boundaries: 12,000 world managers view change. *Harvard Business Review*, (May/June), 151-164.
- Khondker, H. H. (2005). Globalisation to glocalisation: A conceptual exploration. *Intellectual Discourse, 13*(2), 181–199.

- KPML. (2006). *Global consumer markets: Value and international performance research: International Culture Spread*. Retrieved from [http://www.kpmg.com/cn/en/virtual\\_library/Consumer\\_markets/International\\_culture\\_spread.pdf](http://www.kpmg.com/cn/en/virtual_library/Consumer_markets/International_culture_spread.pdf)
- Levitt, T. (1983). *The International Business Environment Challenges and Changes*. Harvard Business Review.
- Morrison, J. (2006). *The International Business Environment: Global and Local Marketplaces in a Changing World* (2nd ed.). Palgrave MacMillan. doi:10.1007/978-0-230-20957-2
- Muzaffar, C. (2002). Globalization and religion: Some reflections. Retrieved from <http://www.islamonline.net>
- Porter, M. (1985). *Competitive advantage: creating and sustaining superior performance*. New York: Free Press.
- Powell, S. (2006). Geert Hofstede: Challenges of cultural diversity. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, 14(3), 12–15.
- Schneider, S. C., & Barsoux, J. L. (2003). *Managing across cultures*. Pearson Education.
- Seymen, O. A. (2006). The cultural diversity phenomenon in organisations and different approaches for effective cultural diversity management: A literary review. *Cross Cultural Management*, 13(4), 296–315.
- Sriussadaporn, R. (2006). Managing international business communication problems at work: A pilot study in foreign companies in Thailand. *Cross Cultural Management*, 13(4), 330–344.
- Tayeb, M. H. (2000). *The management of international enterprises: a socio-political view*. MacMillan. doi:10.1057/9780230598591\_5
- University of Sunderland (2004). *International Business Environment* [Masters of Business Administration].
- Williamson, J. (2004). *From the Washington Consensus towards a new Global Governance*.

## ENDNOTES

- <sup>1</sup> According to T.S. Kuhn (1962): “A paradigm is an accepted model or pattern... In a science, a paradigm is rarely an object for further articulation and specification under new or more stringent conditions... Paradigms gain their status because they are more successful than their competitors in solving a few problems that a group of practitioners has come to recognize as acute...”
- <sup>2</sup> These principles are known as the Washington consensus (Stiglitz, 2002). The term was coined in 1989 in Washington. A set of neoliberal policies applied on Latin American countries. The economic policies were then “advocated for developing countries in general by official Washington, meaning the international financial institutions (the IFIs, primarily the IMF and World Bank) and the US Treasury” (Williamson, 2004, p. 1).

## Chapter 8

# Globalization and Global Code of Tourism Ethics

**António dos Santos Queirós**  
*Lisbon University, Portugal*

### **ABSTRACT**

*In the framework of the globalization of tourism, this chapter discusses the concepts of modern ethics and morality, on a critical perspective to the dominant standpoint that set the morale in the order of the rules and social conventions and leave the ethics on the field of personal experience. The critical essay postulates three fundamental theses: 1. The environmental philosophy builds a new ontology created by the critique of anthropocentrism; 2. But, only their articulation with a new epistemology, founded in the critique of ethnocentrism, could lead to a new ethics universal theory; 3. However, the applied ethics of environmental philosophy needs a new global political ethics shaped on the critique against political alienation. Consequently, the global code of ethics for tourism must be refunded on the light of environmental philosophy and takes an imperative character.*

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-5225-6983-1.ch008

Copyright © 2019, IGI Global. Copying or distributing in print or electronic forms without written permission of IGI Global is prohibited.

## **INTRODUCTION**

This chapter analyzes the contribution of the environmental philosophy from the twentieth century philosophy renovation and, in this context, the particular contribution from the Portuguese philosophers: the historical contribution from Bento (Baruch) de Espinosa (born in a Jewish Portuguese family); Antero de Quental, Portuguese philosopher from XIX century, that build their Philosophy of Nature on a critical perspective of the thought of Ernest Haëckel; and Jorge de Sena philosophical poet and writer from the XX century, teacher and world citizen in Brazil and USA.

He follows a research line trying to discover the complex and dialectical connection between ethics and moral, from Aristotle's Ethics and Aristotle's Politics to the contemporary Environmental Philosophy and Environmental Ethics and their influence in the Global Code of Ethics for Tourism.

Their analytic perspective is that the fundamental push of environmental philosophy is the ethical issue and the moral problems.

Contrasting with the history of philosophy, that the core problems are the human condition, the environmental philosophy drive their thought to the "reasons d 'être", the sense of the existence of the world and their phenomenology, without becoming a philosophy against the Human being, because the nature of the Human being, the nature of all entities and beings from the universe, is that they were generated by the same "star dust".

Modern "Environmental Reason" emerged, with a new categorical imperative to the men's action, beyond the Kantian principle conforming individual acts with a universal law, configuring the human conduct within the limits that safeguard the continuity of life and its diversity, a new ethical framework built by Environmental Philosophy and applied to the tourism global activities.

## **Ethics and Morals**

The Wittgenstein's distinction between ethics and moral are common to most contemporary philosophical thought, moral is placed in the order of the rules and social conventions and the ethics is situated in the field of personal experience.

However, if ethics emerges from the subjectivity of each individual person, as says Cristina Beckert, does not have universal value (Beckert, 2012, p. 90).

But why not inquire this principle and, at the same time, in terms of morals and ethics, their common nature of a social product, how singular, autonomous and original it seems the philosophical thought that supports them, without depreciating



the specific speech from philosophy? Why oppose so irreducibly subjectivity and universal value? The question is: the existence of universal moral values may or may not be recognized by the subjectivity of each and every human being, like happen with the international law? The environmental values could create a new ethical paradigm, with various ethical practices and new moral conventions subordinated to a global bioethics?

Inquiring those queries leads us to revisit the history of philosophy, not in a chronological logic but in dilemmatic logic, before return to the tourism issues.

The compromise “of practical wisdom” of Ricoeur is a real possibility not just because it emanates from two models of action – the theological Aristotelian and the deontological Kantian – only formally separated, but because these models share a common culture and society.

Our perspective is not to replace the philosophical discourse by a sociological analysis or an anthropology study. Philosophical discourse has a specific identity that is distinct from the literary speech or the psychological analysis. But, that doesn't mean philosophical discourse cannot coexist or cross other speeches, as the arts and politics, and by this way, we arrive at the issue of political philosophy... and tourism globalization.

## **Ethics and City-State**

In Aristotelian teleology, the symbiosis between the ontological, anthropological and ethical levels outcome from human nature, which has in its own nature the virtues of reason to proceed cautiously by the good and achieve happiness (eudaimonia)!

The supreme virtue is wisdom (sôphos) which go ahead to contemplation. Prudence raises the man on the condition of the city's ruler and confers them moral superiority because it combines in itself the ethical and political dimension, but contemplation already is from the domain of the divine sphere.

The Aristotelian Man is not only a philosophical abstraction but also a citizen; Aristotle's thought builds a bridge between two dimensions of human being, the philosophy of existence and political philosophy. Aristotle's human beings are the only species that has not only biological capacities but a “rational soul” as well. Aristotle conceives of ethical theory in order to live in accordance with virtue, one way in which such goods as friendship, pleasure, health...fit together as a whole and in lifelong activities. The rational part of the soul searches the highest good! We become virtuous on the city community, sharing with parents, citizens, and friends the responsibility for acquiring and exercising the virtues. Aristotle identifies the nature of human being with its end or final cause to the good, in the Physics

and in the Eudemian Ethics. For human beings, the ultimate good or their natural function consists in the walkway to inaccessible perfection. The Politics postulates the political nature of human beings for living in the city-state. Aristotle maintains that only on the city-state human beings attains the limit of good life, which means to accept the law and justice authority of the community.

On the political context of Aristotle age, different forms of rule are required for citizens and despotic rule for slaves. Disturb those balanced systems will result in disorder and injustice. In this political context, the main principle of the rule of reason also implies different constitutions for different city-states, justifying tyranny or democracy.

## **Modernity Has Broken Human Nature**

When the philosophy of Descartes announces its vision of modernity of human thought, that emerges from an autonomous subject who thinks and acts using the reason, the division between the human being and nature does not become inevitable, they are the result from the dilemmatic choice of the philosopher (s).

If opened the way to study nature as object of science, to discover mechanical laws designed by God in the cosmos, the rise of the man above nature, reigning over all beings and things for the award of the Creator, came from the domain of religion and politics and from the subordination of philosophy to its dogmas and interests. It appears in the first flush of mercantilism, as a social necessity.

Descartes traveled around the courts of Central and Northern Europe, in the middle of the “Thirty Years War”, as a professor, scientist, and military; contributing to the ideological combat against scholastic and to emerge a new scientific epistemology, such as the birth of a new economic and political regime. In 1643, the University of Utrecht, in their country of refuge, the Netherlands, condemned his philosophy as an atheist. In 1667, the Roman Catholic Church placed his works on the index of Forbidden Books.

The moral void, that the Cartesian philosophy does not occupy, it’s not inevitable consequence of the abandonment of divine conception of human nature and their ontological, ethical and anthropological unity; even in classical Western philosophy, in parallel with the Aristotelian thought, other concepts of moral emerged without religious foundation, but never becoming dominant.

Such was the case of Epicurus, which work we know only a few fragments, that is singularly modern in its appeal to the altruism in relation to the “other” and concerning the possession of material goods, the practice of gender equality in the gardens of the philosophy and above recognition of the intrinsic meaning of life liberated from the heuristics of fear ... of death.

Or, in the East and China, the morals rules of Confucian and Tao. In 551 B.C., Confucius was born in Zouyi (Qufu) in the Kingdom Lu and Shandong province, when China was divided by various kingdoms or states who fought among themselves. The population suffered a hard life and society knew the moral degeneration. As if it could then create a well-ordered society, harmonious and happy? These become a pressing issue.

From the three sources of Taoism, we can have found as the oldest, the mythical “Yellow Emperor”, that have lived between 2697 BC and 2597 BC; the mystical aphorisms book *Tao Te Ching* (*Dao De Jing*), attributed to Laozi (Lao Tse), which, according to tradition, was an older contemporary of Confucius (551 BC -479 BC); and the works of the philosopher Zhuangzi (*Chuang-Tzu*) (369 BC -286 BC).

Almost a thousand years later, St. Augustine was born in Tagaste (Souk-Ahras), in the year 354, in Algeria; died on August 28, 430 in Hipona, today Annaba, Algeria, after writing *De Civitate Dei*, “The City of God”, among the ruins of the Western Roman Empire; their thought belongs to the field of philosophy-theology of Creation and to the Christological finalism of Celestial City; that philosophy-theology is critique of Neo-Platonism concerning the nature of the soul... but also proclaims a political polemic against those that attributed to the abandonment of the ancient cults and the adoption of Christianity as a religion of the Empire, the transcendental cause of its decline and fall.

The doctrine founded by Confucius advocated the implementation of ethical codes and rituals to guide the community in their conduct and persuade its members to love and respect each other, and to restore the order on the society and on the family, based on a solid hierarchy system. In this moral system, Jen (Compassion) and Yi (compassion), prevail over the Li (interest/benefit).

The philosophical Taoism, a philosophical school based on the texts *Dao De Jing* (*道德经*) attributed to Laozi and Zhuangzi (*庄子*), and their *tian-dao* or “nature’s way”, propose not a moral code but a species of spiritual self-discipline that emphasizes the autonomy of being conscious and its unity with the universal nature and leads the man to act respecting the three Moral Treasures: compassion, moderation, and humility.

Backing to the advent of the modern age, the thought of Bento de Espinosa surmounts the dichotomy between the subjectivity and the nature, without breaking that unity; the concept of extension of the categories of God Substance and God Nature, unifies the being and the duty, without putting the Man above nature and under their domain. However not denies the autonomy of reason that Kant would elevate to a higher grade; furthermore, is that potentiality to liberate the power of rationality and human autonomy, on the unity of Substance and Nature, which consents no one privileged status to the man species.

And if this singular vision of the human condition precipitated the sectarian and fanatic odium of the Jewish Inquisition, also carried out the thought of Espinosa to our modernity, what means replace the Man outside the anthropocentric sphere, where Western philosophical and religions\_→ the Christian, the Jewish and the Muslim, settle the human being.

We can now conclude that one of the alternative routes of philosophy and ethics evolution, which come from Epicurus and the Orient, and advocated by Bento de Espinosa, not prevailed in the philosophical debate of the academies, but was always present.

It would be appropriate here make a break to analyze the problem of what is the “cause of the things” and its relationship with the “being”. The preconceived notion that reserve to philosophy the question about “what it means to be” and assigns to the domain of science to study of “phenomenological causes”, can lead to the old mechanism and to a kind of a new scholastic. Where that conception see only opposition, predetermined by that prejudge, cannot have a dialectical relationship?

## **THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE MODERN CONCEPT OF NATURE**

Following Antero and the critique of Aristotle’s Philosophy:

*... from the Renaissance, inside the fundamental idea of nature. The dynamic way, autonomous, realistic, of conceiving nature is what more radically distinguishes the modern (philosophical) thought from the old thought...*

*... nature, to the antique thought... (from Aristotle), was designed as abstract, inert, passive; far way to be figured as concrete and spontaneous, was considered only as a reflection, act or an emanation or transcendent and perfect being or beings (the ideas of Plato, the intelligence of Anaxagoras, the unmoved motor and the substantial forms of Aristotle) ...*

From the last days of the middle age, with the dissolution of the scholastic philosophy and all kind of revolutions, intellectual, social, religious, that announce the dawn of modern times, in the deep regions of the human intelligence an extraordinary fermentation begin, which is expressed, even with little awareness of their own range, in the creations of astronomy and modern physics (Copernicus, Kepler, Galileo, Torricelli) and philosophical reforms of Bacon and Descartes, which is revitalized with Leibniz and Spinoza and with the early works of social sciences, botany and

physiology (Gesner, Harvey, Malpighi, Boerhaave, Hobbes, Grocio, Vico, Lessing, etc.) to finish, fully conscious in the 19th century...in all spheres of human activity. Naturalism is to modern times what was rationalism to antiquity. The doctrine of evolution is just one of their determinations, the latest..." (Quental, 1991, p. 111).

## **THE "ENVIRONMENTAL REASON": CRITIQUE OF ETHNOCENTRISM AND ANTHROCENTRISM**

The struggle to differentiate ethics from morality, that common sense understands as normative ethics (what we ought to do) from philosophical or meta-ethics (what is the nature of the Good), cannot be exceptionally simple. If normative ethics is something the common people call "ethics", what is the nature and object of this conceptualization of "ethics" and what is the nature and object of meta-ethics? The modern consensus about the two questions is that ethics emerges of the subjectivity of each individual human being and moral is placed in the domain of the rules and social conventions. We are in disagreement with those dominant theses.

First, analyzing this conceptual construction, on the light of environmental philosophy, we must interrogate ourselves if we stay in the framework of the anthropocentrism or not!?

Second, Moral, in our view, is a cultural expression determined by social dominance and historical context, who gives them a sectary and transitory character. We need a moral theory (that I call ethics) that could be universal, transtemporal (project in the present and in the future) and available to light human individual conduct and the human science as well as their political ideologies and practices, without considering man as the final zenith of Life.

The opposition between individual ethics-universal ethics, universal ethics- moral contingents is something that needs to be transcended. Where others see antagonism, we glimpse a complex dialectic.

If the Kantian concept of an absolute normative ethics is a single intellectual exercise or doesn't could be applicable to the social practice, is because all the ethics practices depends at the same time from a philosophical aporia concerning the complexity and dualism of the human existence and from the real historical context with the conflict of classes, cultures, and civilizations.

If the ethical principles are impracticable in a historical context and process and can't respond to the new moral challenges about the nature of the Good, if we can't transform those principles in universal normative codes, the human thought pushes them to the heritage category and research for new principles.

Environmental ethics is supported, in our opinion, by two new principles: the critique against anthropocentrism and the critique against ethnocentrism, giving a universal answer to the macro moral problems of our era - environmental, social, economic and political crises, war and mass destructive weapons - and contributes to rebuilding the human activities in all domains of individual and social life; this is the case of the Bioethics Code, for instance.

The critique of ethnocentrism and the critique of anthropocentrism are the founding principles to surpassing the dualism from which moral stay in the order of the rules and social conventions and settled ethics in the field of personal experience.

The “environmental reason” formulates a new categorical imperative for human action, beyond the Kant maximum of forming individual ethics of acts with the principle of a universal law, a new ethical framework, which stems from the need to configure the human conduct within the limits that safeguard the continuity of life and their diversity (Jonas, 1979).

As in the philosophy of Espinosa (XVI century), later of Antero de Quental (XIX century) and Hans Jonas (XX century), the fundamental impulses of the environmental philosophy reflection were the ethical issues and the moral problems. From *The Imperative of Responsibility In Search of an Ethic for the Technological Age* (1979), emerges a new categorical imperative for human action, beyond the Kantian imperative ethic of the confirmation of individual acts with the principle of a universal law. He designs a new ethical framework:

Act so that the effects of your action are compatible with the permanence of genuine human life (Jonas, 1979). Amongst this ethical principle we are at the border of the humanism but still remain at the frontier of anthropocentrism. From this perspective we could rethink the concept of reason enlarging their meaning to the concept of “environmental reason,” a critical reason enlightened by the principle of anthropocentrism and by the principle of ethnocentrism.

If the object of science is to explain the world machinery, then scientific laws are amoral, and the answer to the categorical imperative of “how to live in the world” belongs to the domain of philosophy and of ethics (Espinosa, 1677). It’s in this sense that the environmental ethics inquiries the value of science and of social development, not only in an anthropocentric dimension: Life before Man and Earth before Life, according to modern science and beyond modern science.

The concept of landscape has had to be stretched in many directions: from an object to an area, from a visual experience to a multi-sensory one, from natural scenery to the whole range of human-made transformations of nature. This expansion of the idea of landscape is further complicated by the fact that landscapes are never stationary but are constantly in transition.” (Berleant, 2011)

## THE LAND ETHICS: ENLARGING THE CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY

The Principle of community of Aristotle has focused on the city-state, because the human good life depends on the community not only for material necessities but also for moral education and civic education; and the classic dilemma of human perfection-worst animal (without laws and justice), returns to the modern framework of ethics and moral, with a new significance, a new object of justice and new rules face nature.

All human ethics theories are based on a premise: that the person is a member of an interdependent community. The Land Ethics extend the concept of community:

...The land ethic simply enlarges the boundaries of the community to include soils, water, plants, and animals, or, collectively: the land.

...Water, like soil, is a part of the energy circuit. Industry, by polluting water or obstructing it with dams, may exclude the plants and animals necessary to keep energy in circulation..." ...Conservation is a state of harmony between men and land...The image commonly employed in conservation education is «the balance of nature»...this figure of speech fails to describe accurately what little we know about the land mechanism. A much true image is the one employed in ecology: the biotic pyramid. (Leopold, 1949)

From the reading of this work, a Sand Count Almanaque would break the theorization of bioethics by American oncologist Van Rensselaer Potter

*The acknowledgment of the economic value of using biodiversity could still a way to refuse the autonomous land ethic values.*

*The land-relation is still strictly economic, entailing privileges but not obligations. (Leopold, 1949)*

This usually leads to confining nature conservation to parks and reserves, to the species potentially useful to humans and to the action of the State, giving complete freedom to private enterprise. This approach comes from the scientifically false premise that the elements with the economic value of the biotope can exist in nature without the presence of other elements

This isn't about applying pre-existing moral theories to new objects, such as nature. Nature shall be included in our field of moral reflection, our duties, which were previously limited to human beings, and will now be extended to other natural beings - the concept of an enlarged community of natural beings. But also enlarging the concept of person (in the common sense, human being) to other animals. That is the enlarged perspective of the critique to the anthropocentrism.

## **ANIMAL ETHICS: ENLARGING THE CONCEPT OF PERSON**

The principle of perfection of Aristotle understands good and evil in terms of an anthropocentric teleology. However too recognizes that is good when nature operates for one's good of an end, like the animal's natural behavior.

Australian Peter Singer and American T. Regan emphasizing the feelings and the rights of animals face the brutality of modern production processes: genetic cloning, cages, feedstuffs based on ground meat from dead animals and saturated hormones, systematic violation of natural rhythms and needs of animal life, all this in terms of maximum profit. Invoking the principle of equality, the two authors refuse the concept of the superiority of the human species that compare to racism, for violating that principle, censoring to the human beings the non-recognition of the capacity of feeling and suffering of animals. In their works, they claim that animals are subjects of interest by not suffering and also, add Regan, are subjects of law, are subjects of a life experience that has intrinsic value.

Departing from this approach they propose to extend the concept of person:

*I propose the use of 'person' to beings rational and self-conscious, to incorporate the elements of the common sense of human being that are not covered by a member of species Homo Sapiens (Singer, 1989).*

Based on the thesis that ... some non-human animals appear to be rational and aware of himself, conceiving itself as distinct beings that have a past and a future..., proposes a gradualist ethics against the killing of animals, which in its upper level extends to chimpanzees, gorillas and orangutans the same protection due to human beings.

*Certainly, the revelations and complaints of environmentalists could also generate the defense of ecological extremely values in a confrontation with the classical humanist values (Rolston, 1986; Callicot, 1989).*

*Therefore they propose is to extend the concept of the use of the term "person" in the sense of a being rational and self-conscious, to incorporate other animals far way the members of the species Homo Sapiens (Singer, 1993, pp. 88-99).*

They also make clear that exists, between world hunger and brutal killing of animals, a standard common model of civilization, the consumer society and its amoral production and exchange of merchandises.



*Biocentrism (Earth First!, Greenpeace, Wilderness Society...) assigns an intrinsic value to any living entity and Aldo Leopold's Ecocentrism focuses on our duty towards the biotic community, which we are part of.*

This isn't about applying pre-existing moral theories to new objects, such as Nature. Nature shall be included in our field of moral reflection, our duties, which were previously limited to human beings, and will now be extended to other natural beings - the concept of an enlarged community of natural beings and persons. This is the perspective of the critique to the anthropocentrism.

The biodiversity of Life, including human life, only represents the actual pinnacle of the evolution of Cosmos, the matter of Cosmos that thinks them, creating the human consciousness or spirit, but we don't know if our species, born on Earth, represents the final link of cosmological evolution. For that reason, we must preserve not only all the forms of Live but the conditions for live continuity and biodiversity.

So, the ethical imperative to preserve Life and not only the Man species and save Life biodiversity before the Man species, and the Land/Earth, birthplace of cosmic Life and for now the only cradle, must win moral force in human societies. No, we don't appeal to a new anti-humanism with the principle "Life before Man": this principle means that life emerges before man's species and all species made a contribution to the birth and conservation of human species, not only the animals and plants used to the civilization.

While the Man is both predator and creator of new biotopes and being today the human species the most complex form of life, their extinction could block the expansion of diversity itself, for what and in that perspective, a new Humanism returns to the center of the philosophical thoughts of Environmental Philosophy and Environmental Ethics and, following this way, we need to reintroduce the question of Political Ethics, a new component of environmental reason.

## **ECONOMIC GLOBALISATION AND ENVIRONMENTAL CRISIS**

The principles of common home and community and planetary solidarity:

*From the first UN environmental conferences, held in Stockholm in 1972, emerged the principle of a common house... the man has two homelands, his own and planet Earth; the principle of a planetary community and solidarity, founders of a new international order (political and ethical order) and the principle of defending life on the planet and its biodiversity before humanism. (UNCHE, 1972).*

Those principles build a first frontier line with the cultural and political perspective of ethnocentrism.

The critical perspective of environment philosophy toward the ethnocentrism claims:

*Ethnocentrism is an emotionally conditioned approach that considers and judges other societies by their own culture's criteria. It's easy to see that this attitude leads to contempt and hate of all ways of life that are different from that of the observer (Dias, 1961). The critique of ethnocentrism not only justifies the respect for all national cultures and all forms of classical and popular cultural expression but also rejects any notion of superiority from a certain model of society, race or ethnicity.*

In convergence with this philosophical view, the philosophical critique against anthropocentrism inquiry the religious vision that gives to man, elected creature by God to preside over the divine creation, the absolute right to take ownership of nature for their purposes, without any limit or restriction.

In the historical context of the industrial revolution and contemporary technical and scientific revolution, Christian and Judaic philosophy allows accepting without serious moral restrictions the primacy of economic growth over sustainable development. However scientific discoveries only allow us to be sure that the balance of ecosystems favorable to life depends on a multitude of physical, biological and geological factors and recognize that the higher the position occupied by organisms in the food chain (remember the biotic pyramid of Aldo Leopold), the more vulnerable they will be, as well as some species, whose destruction would dramatically affect the entire system.

Incoherence, we must also consider that the multiple links between all forms of life (and even these with the abiotic environment), require, in addition to the duty of preservation of our species, to preserve the diversity of beings and their environmental niches, from whose dynamic balance, all depends.

## **EMERGES A NEW PARADIGM OF TOURISM**

Environmental Tourism, in our concept and in the synthesis of Philosophy, is really the integration of nature and culture in the concept of landscape, and their metamorphosis in Cultural Tourism and Tourism of Nature (Ecotourism). Environmental Tourism includes material and immaterial patrimony, physical and metaphysical values (aesthetical and ethical values).

However, this perspective of tourism as an economic phenomenon, but also anthropological and socio-cultural, conduce to a third dimension, historic and politic. In the national heritage and social consciousness of humanity and in their collective unconscious, is recorded the journey of the early hominid crossing the Mediterranean from Africa, passing the Bosphorus and journeying to America and the Arctic polar ice; the memory of the first hunter-gatherers who followed the march of the rivers and valleys open by tectonics of Earth; lather builders of “dolmen and menhirs”, which limited the journey to surrounding agricultural and pasturing lands, in a eternal return; already in the modern age, navigators and explorers from all corners of the planet, with the birth of capitalism and those successive globalizations.

After being created political and social conditions, with the advent of modern democracies and socialisms, the conquest of social leisure by new social classes, and the containment of war, all the humanity continue his historic walk and made the global world the place of trampling of the human animal.

Involving the others three dimensions, we arrive in the fourth dimension of human being, in the perspective of the philosophy of nature and the environment philosophy: the human being separate from Nature and distinct human cultures by the anthropocentric and ethnocentric conceptions, has a common origin and belong to the same and single Human family and stay ecologically linked to the biological, geological and cosmological environment, connect to all beings and things.

The prosperity of a region-destination must be based on the raising of the target audience of middle-middle class and upper middle class, considering his economic relevance and social influence capacity and her role as “modeler social consumption”.

Their young people are spreading the new paradigms of cultural tourism and tourism of nature in society and face other juvenile class groups and their teachers are the first vehicles for information and training of social taste and the most important “informal tourism agents,” when they promote and organize the scholar study trips, during every studies cycle.

The weight of this middle class and their cultural level and education, emerges in parallel with the emancipation of women by the job, a youngness increasingly educated and info educated and the anticipation of active reform in middle-class segments, generating a change in “motivation” of the travels: the social concept of “taste” is the key to understand those new middle class, ethical and esthetical values of environmental philosophy overcame face the individual paradigm of unlimited and blind entertainment.

## **THE CAPITAL OF TOURISM: THE GENESIS OF VALUE, REPRODUCTION, AND CIRCULATION**

The concept of “tourism industry” has led to a search for local resources - biological and geological, livestock and forestry, etc. as their basic material. In fact, the first is used and processed by other industries, and in many cases require its conservation. And as for the second, its consumption is shared between residents and travelers.

What constitutes a tourist resource is a cultural landscape. Reading and interpretation of the cultural landscape is the basis for the creation of the tourist product and its first metamorphosis of value.

It's the “ecology of the landscape” (material heritage) and its “metaphysics of landscape” (immaterial heritage), which constitute the essence of tourist resource, but only when their interpretation and reading gives it a new increase in cultural and economic value, transforming use value on in an exchange value.

The landscape is not an open book, intelligible empirically. Their transformation into a tourist product goes through its readability, which gives it a used value; it's a metamorphosis that generates economic value, and it's also a process of cultural literacy, mediated by the construction of a language for tourist communication; the result of this process changes the shape and the essence of traditional concepts of resources and tourist products. (Queirós, 2013, p. 109)

What today is dramatic, is the rhythm at which biodiversity is being lost, the destruction of natural resources, energy and the multiplication of polluting effects that reach not only the whole lithosphere, the hydrosphere, the cryosphere, the atmosphere and the biosphere, but also, with unpredictable consequences, the fundamental genetic material, the DNA, which conserves and reproduces the codes of life.

In this perspective, nobody can imagine today what will be the link of the chain of life where the evolutionary leap will occur, as nobody dreamed before that the grandfather of our human condition was an insignificant rodent that survived the widespread extinction of dominant species at the end of the Mesozoic Era (67 million years ago). But, at the same time, the preservation of the human being returns to the center of environmental ethics, in a new ethical perspective, without unlimited domain and privileges against “the other” nature (critique of anthropocentrism).

So, unlike the common history of philosophy, whose thought is focused on the Human Being, environmental philosophy directs the human thinking to the “Raison d' Être” (the sense of existence) of the world and their Phenomenology, for the discovery of the uniqueness of the “Substance” in all its manifestations or “modes”, in the vocabulary of our Bento de Espinosa, without becoming an anti-humanist philosophy.

Now we can revisit our initial postulate: The global concept of environmental reason emerges from a World that is very different from the old Kantian world. For the first time along the History, not only the Humanity but Life and Earth, can be deadly damaged by the nuclear war, the biological and chemical weapons, the environmental crisis and the global crises of the capital market: the fall of the empires on the XXI century could call the true Apocalypse horses. The imperative of perpetual peace assumes a new moral and political significance.

## **Global Code of Ethics for Tourism**

The Global Code of Ethics for Tourism, adopted in 1999 by the General Assembly of the World Tourism Organization, its acknowledgment by the United Nations two years later clearly encouraged the Organization to promote effective follow-up of its provisions. Although not legally binding, the Code features a voluntary implementation mechanism through its recognition of the role of the World Committee on Tourism Ethics (WCTE), to which stakeholders may refer matters concerning the application and interpretation of the document. (UNWTO, 2012)

The Code of Ethics, adopted in 1999, remains a list of non-binding guidelines, or a soft-law instrument. For this reason, the UNWTO General Assembly decided in 2015 to initiate the process for converting the voluntary Code of Ethics into an international legally-binding convention open to ratification of Member States with the intention to enhance its application

The text of the Convention was approved by the UNWTO General Assembly in September 2017, A/RES/707(XXII). The Convention on Tourism Ethics, once it obtains the first ten required ratifications and enters into force, will create duties and obligations for States Parties, including the obligation to reflect the said ethical principles in domestic legislation and relevant policies as well the obligation to periodically report on the implementation of those principles to the World Committee on Tourism Ethics. We will see!?

The hedonistic vision inspired by Jeremy Bentham, identifying the profile of the contemporary tourist with the individual freedom and pleasure.

In this period emerged a new ethical framework, environmental ethics: The Code includes some guidelines for sustainable tourism, but their perspective remains essentially anthropocentric.

In the field of philosophy, the relationship between tourism and ethics is engaged by two central concepts: ontology and epistemology. However, it is also associated with the Ethics and Aesthetics values, virtue and good practices. This axiom is supported by the fact that tourism creates innumerable negatives costs (impacts) that stem from the pursuit of primarily hedonistic ends. The position of tourism research from an ethical standpoint, especially in the light of a better understanding

of human nature, might open up new possibilities for better grounding and many new forms of alternative or responsible tourism (Fennell, 2011). But in the heat of the dispute, some authors led to raising controversy “against” the ethics of tourism (Butcher, 2011), particularly emphasizing the contradictions between mass tourism and ecotourism. We think that cannot reduce the debate to these issues.

## **The Ethical Imperative of Perpetual Peace: The Guarantee of International Tourism**

The world of Kant is not our world. The philosophical and practice dimensions of the problems of categorical imperatives assumed now a tragic magnitude. The far way the Kantian moral imperatives:

Act only according to that maxim by which you can at the same time will that it should become a universal law.” Act as though the maxim of your action were by your will to become a universal law of nature.” (Ibid). 3. Act so that you treat humanity, whether in your own person or in that of another, always as an end and never as a means only.” (Kant, 1996, p. 429). In our historical and environmental context, humanity is confronted for the first time with the danger of its own extinction, as a result of an environmental disaster or as the tragic outcome of a biological or nuclear war; and pandemics and major famines of medieval Europe occur again but now on multiple continents. In this framework, the peaceful and negotiated resolution of conflicts is the first political corollary of Environmental Ethics, conducted to a new categorical imperative, the “imperative of perpetual peace”:

In the strange fortune of doom,

*[...] this strange fortune, from which light comes  
oh just harmless powder, I pray  
to myself not to lose the memory,  
for you, for you should always remind  
that everything is lost when we lose peace,  
and first of all, freedom is lost. (Sena, 1984)*

This “light” on the poem, was the light of the nuclear bomb of Hiroshima.

The state of war, considering the lessons of the History of liberal democracies and Socialist democracies, is incompatible with the preservation and deepening of democracy and contributes to creating the conditions for its limitation and degeneration.

If we refuse the ethical imperative of destruction of the entire atomic arsenal and of biological and chemicals arsenals and not create the sustainability of our economy and financial system, modern war will come as a continuation of the economic dispute by other means, and then, we will find “damn peace” in the Holocaust of the children of our children. The perpetual peace is thus the main political corollary of Environmental Ethics.

However, to the “categorical imperative of perpetual peace”, Jorge de Sena, engineer, poet and philosopher, joins a new ethical imperative, “the imperative of dignity”. Another categorical imperative of Environmental Ethics trying to answer to the global crisis that liberal democratic or socialist politics and their economies and markets failed to overcome and the blind science also promoted.

“The imperative ethical of dignity”, from Jorge de Sena, proclaims the moral rule and ethical principle that, we (persons, nations, entrepreneurs, governments, etc.) ought to live be sure that nobody is less alive, or suffer or dies to benefice our quality of life and lifetime.

The absolute value of life face the absolute loss of the end of life, give to the (limited) time of life an ethical dimension (the joy of life) that nothing and nobody can ignore and establish a gradualist morality: Act so that you treat another person and humanity (and nations) without no less life (the opposite of a full life), no suffer, not damages that anticipate or bring the die. And if associated to the critique of anthropocentrism, we can extend this categorical imperative to Life and Earth.

From the long poem Letter to my kids about the shootings of Goya we chose the philosophical nucleus of verses:

.../...

*Believe me that no world, that anything or anyone*

*Is more important than a life, or the joy of life,*

*This is what is the most important - this joy.*

*Believe me that the dignity they will tell you so much about*

*is nothing more than joy that comes*

*from being alive and knowing that anytime someone*

*is less alive or suffer or dies*

*for that one of you resist a little more*

*to the death that is of all and will come... (Sena, 1984)*

After writing these thoughts, that put in question the legitimacy of the war and the exploitation of man by man, a hundred works of political philosophy, became as that unnecessary and long-winded.

## **Practical Ethics and Political Alienation**

In the XIX century, Feuerbach and Marx focused the debate on the concept of alienation on the religion issue. Feuerbach's analysis postulates that belief in religion was an intellectual error that could be correct by education. Marx's criticizes Feuerbach to fail understanding why people fall into religious alienation. Marx's thesis was that religion is a response to alienation in material life; their main corollary was the struggle for changing the material life, the pathway to emancipate human consciousness from all alienation.

Lukács' understanding alienation as a historical loss of totality that we can already find on the historical trajectory of institutions of social life, creating a "second nature" was the individual person can't find the world meaning. When Lukács applies this concept to the history of intellectual representation, looking to the Grecian movement from epic poetry to tragedy and then to philosophy, notes that the source of significance became progressively more transcendent to immediate life and individual consciousness. Considering the modernity, he proposes a renewed relationship between individual conscience and the knowledge of the world where meaning can again be found, rebuilding a new totality, new forms of art and communication.

The possibility to recognize that utopia on a good sense, the unity of the global representation of the word with the citizen consciousness, postulates the opposed possibility, the full alienation of the individual person, manipulated by a global power, economic, political and ideological. The concept of double negation employed by Marcuse is a critical response to negation of personal freedom by an oppressive/repressive socio/economic system and to the development of individual-critical consciousness.

When analysing the concept of alienation we don't want to obliterate the ontological issue and the philosophical contribution of existentialism, as a plural literary-philosophical phenomenon crossing two centuries. The core of this study is not the fundamental debate about the "meaning of being" – the paradoxical presence of God, from Kierkegaard, the challenge of nihilism, "God is dead," from Nietzsche, the "Dasein," ("being that we ourselves are"), from Heidegger, "the existentialism is a new humanism," from Sartre... We want to discuss the political dimension of the human being, and that means the good and the devil, for the moral of XXI century policies.



Utilitarian ethics of Jeremy Bentham and Stuart Mill assumes that “not only an action of a private individual but all the Government measures (Bentham, 2014) must improve the well-being and reduce suffering. Far away from the primacy of duty (eudaemonia) from Aristotle, he based morality of an action on benefits back to their subject and/or in the principle of less suffering caused to the “other”. Utilitarian philosophy inspired the first tourism globalization and the paradigm of sun and sand,

The classic example of resolving an ethical dilemma on the basis of the principle of utilitarianism is the political and moral debate concerning the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, approved by the UN on December 10, 1948 (A/RES/217). Drafted primarily by J. P. Humphrey, of Canada, had Dr. P.C. Chang, representative of the People’s Republic of China\_ PRC and the positions of the Asian countries, the main mediator of the consensus established around its 30 articles.

We must emphasize that not one of the articles of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights defends the supremacy of the model of liberal democracy. And Human Rights not can be reduced to the question of formal “political freedoms”. What the article 21, the core of political Human Rights prescribes, is the path to citizenship and to the diversity of democratic regimes.

*Article 21.*

1. Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives.
2. Everyone has the right to equal access to public service in his country.
3. The will of the people should be the basis of the authority of government; this should be expressed in periodic and genuine elections by universal and equal suffrage and should be held by secret vote or by equivalent free voting procedures.

All other 29 articles which provide the fundamental democratic rights, as the right to employment and social protection, equality of gender and face the law, have the same political dimension and are subordinate to two ethical imperatives that the Declaration proclaims, the “imperative of the dignity” and “the imperative of peace”:

Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice, and peace in the world.

*This dignity will be protected...*

*...if man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law...*

*And will only be defended with...*

*... the development of friendly relations between nations.*

However, the political debate about Universal Declaration of Human Rights is today reduced to the issue of formal liberties.

Those are the problems of political alienation and the absence of critical information in the mass media.

We could also refer to the ethical dilemmas arising from the fact that, in times of crisis, as the current, budgets for health be reduced, but the services of financial debt are met strictly by Governments.

These examples are used as a demonstration that the practical application of ethics, and ethical practices, such as bioethics, need to be addressed in conjunction with the conceptualization of a new global policy ethics, without which the discussion of ethical dilemmas risk to being predetermined by the hidden power of political alienation.

## **CONCLUSION**

A global policy ethics rooted in the environmental philosophy and the ethical dimension of societies and modern State and its Governments may be evaluated by the respect for the principles of political ethics, universal and permanent, which recognize all individuals as citizens with two homelands, their own and the Earth (United Nations Conference on the Environment, Stockholm, 1972), to all human cultures a status of equality (critique of ethnocentrism) and re-introducing the human community on the pyramid of life and biodiversity without any status of domain or privilege (critique of anthropocentrism), evaluate especially in times of crisis.

The principles of citizenship or dignity of its citizens and peaceful (political) solution of conflicts (Sena), applied together with the subordination of the economy to the environmental ethics policy, determines the State's duty to guarantee its citizens the right to peace, the right to work, the right to education, the right to health and assistance in old age, the right to access the justice, the right to the conservation of biodiversity and the right to freedom, and yes, freedom is placed in this order, because she disappears with the war and remains a smaller value without job, homeless and other social rights. And the consequences of the destruction of life diversity would be that human communities have no future.

Without peace, everything will be lost, and firstly, freedom will be lost.

At least, we can re-think the complex origin and nature of our common Western Culture.

The critical perspective of anthropocentrism considers the culture Judeo-Christian as responsible from the arrogant attitude of the human being against other species and nature. The concept of a human being elected by God to chair the divine creation induced the takeover of nature for their purposes, without any limitation or restriction, and an amoral or utilitarian ethical perspective.

The rationalist enlightenment, to assign to the human condition to succeed not only about the obscurantism and ecclesiastical and aristocratic society but also to decipher and control the forces of nature, open the way for unrestrained use of natural resources and to the emergence of environmental crisis.

However, we think that this relationship is not linear. The enlightenment of Christian orientation also intended the existence and preservation of creatures as a continuity of the creator's act, a moral duty face to the creation of the Lord. In spite of the struggle of some philosophical currents that wanted to reconcile metaphysics with scientific laws of the universe, we might be tempted to assign to positivism and scientism the responsibility of the new regard against the holy vision of a natural word that we must preserve. Again, we believe that this relationship is not linear.

We think that the exploit of natural elements as objects of commercial use is associated with the birth of a new ideology of modern capitalism, which in the end of 19th century did advance to the latest frontiers of market, shared in the Berlin Conference of 1885: the partition of colonial spaces and virgin lands, accomplishing its integration in the sphere of European and American metropolis. The natural resources and the man, woman or child, elder, a masterpiece of God's creation, was transformed into a merchandise and the human condition reduced to the status of mercantile workforce.

And a new ethics (or non-ethics) emerged slowly from the beginning of 16th rural capitalism to the 18th century and 19th-century industrialization: the denied of sacred nature of the human condition. In the context of the capitalist economy, stripped definitely from the stigma of medieval Christian censorship against profit that was tolerated by the creation of purgatory, born at the beginning of primitive capitalism to redeem them, a new "ideology of freedom" postulates now that everything is permissible and legitimate to accumulate capital. And this procedure, to obtain more capital gains through the increasing concentration of industrial and financial capital it becomes "natural", pervade the whole legal order of the State and the spiritual and cultural environment of all nations, and proclaim the new relations of production and exchange as the end of history, the pinnacle of progress and civilization, to be eternally reproduced and expanded by the future evolution of society.

***Globalization and Global Code of Tourism Ethics***

Was this tremendous social change that generated the modern culture and engendered the roots of different ideologies, philosophical schools, and aesthetic currents, not as a simple reflex of superstructures of the new economic base of society, not mechanically but dialectically.

The first protests against the pollution of the industrial metropolis revalued the role of the countryside; generate doctrines of conservation of nature, from scientific or metaphysics inspiration or searching its contemporary synthesis, preparing the downing of a new level of human reason, the advent of environmental reason.

The 20th century was the century of the triumph of national and international rights of the human people and nations, now entirely at risk. The 21st century must be the century of environmental ethics.

## REFERENCES

- Aristotle. (1984). *The Complete Works of Aristotle, The Revised Oxford Translation* (Vol. 2). Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Assunto, R., Berleant, A., Berque, A., D'Angelo, P., Simmel, G., & Veríssimo Serrão, A. (2012). *Philosophy of Landscape. An anthology*. Lisboa: Centre of Philosophy of the University of Lisbon.
- Augustine. (2012). *The City of God. Translation by William Babcock, notes by Boniface Ramsey*. Hyde Park, NY: New City Press.
- Beckert, C. (2012). *Ética*. CFUL. U. Lisboa
- Bentham, J. (2014). *An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation*.
- Berleant, A. (2011). Changing Landscapes [Keynote lecture]. In *Paysages en Transition [Transition Landscapes] International Conference*, Lisbon, Portugal
- Berque, A. (1993). L'écoumène, mesure terrestre de L'Homme, mesure humaine de la Terre: Pour une problématique du monde ambiant. *L'Espace Geographique*, 4(4), 299–305. doi:10.3406pgeo.1993.3225
- Callicott, J. (1989). *In Defense of the Land Ethic: Essays in Environmental Philosophy*. Albany, NY: the State University of New York Press
- Camus, A. (1988). *The Stranger* (M. Ward, Trans.). New York, NY: Knopf. (Originally published 1942)
- Carvalho, J. (1991). Evolução Espiritual de Antero. In *Estudos sobre a Cultura Portuguesa do Século XIX\_ (I Antheriana), in Obras Completas de Antero de Quental\_III, Filosofia, Organização, Introdução e Notas de Joel Serrão. Universidade dos Açores*. Lisboa, Portugal: Edit. Comunicação.
- Chuang, T. (1984). *Basic Writings* (B. Watson, Trans.). New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Confucius. (2009). *The Analects. Lun Yü. Translated with an introduction by D.C. Lau, Preface by A.C. Grayling*. London, UK: The Folio Society.
- Descartes, R. (1991). *The Philosophical Writings of Descartes* (J. Cottingham, Trans.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

- Dias, J. (1990). *Estudos de Antropologia* (Vol. 1). Lisboa: Imprensa Nacional-Casa da Moeda.
- Épicure. (1994). *Sentences Vaticanes*. In *Lettres et Maximes, Trad., Introd. and Notes de Jean-François Balaudé*. Paris: Librairie Générale Française.
- Espinosa, B. (1960). *Ética. Demonstrada à maneira dos géómetras*. Coimbra: Parte I. De Deus. Introdução e Notas de Joaquim Carvalho. Atlântida Editora.
- Feuerbach, L. (1989). *The Essence of Christianity* (G. Eliot, trans.). Prometheus Books. (originally published in 1841)
- Haeckel, E. (1882). *Les preuves du Transformisme. Réponse à Virchow*. Paris, France: C. Reinwald, Libraire-Éditeur.
- Haeckel, E. (1884). *Histoire de la Création des Êtres Organisés D'après les Lois naturelles*. Paris, France: Librairie Germer Baillié et C<sup>a</sup>.
- Haeckel, E- (1962). *Los Enigmas del Universo*. Valência: F. Sempere y C<sup>a</sup> Editores.
- Heidegger, M. (1962). *Being and Time* (J. Macquarie & E. Robinson, Trans.). London: SCM Press.
- Johnston, C. (n.d.). *Lao Teh King: An Interpretation of Lao Tse's Book of the Way and of Righteousness*. *Kshetra Book*.
- Jonas, H. (1979). *The Imperative of Responsibility. In Search of an Ethics for the Technological Age*. Chicago. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.
- Kant, I. (1996). *The Metaphysics of Morals* (M. Gregor, Trans.). New York: Cambridge University Press. (Original work published 1927) doi:10.1017/CBO9780511809644
- Kant, I. (2006). *Toward Perpetual Peace and Other Writings on Politics, Peace, and History*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press
- Kierkegaard, S. (1983). *Fear and Trembling* (H. V. Hong & E. H. Hong, Trans.). Princeton: Princeton University Press. (Original work published 1843)
- Leopold, A. (1949). *A Sand County Almanac*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Lorenz, K. (1973). *Die acht Todsünden der zivilisierten Menschheit*. München, Germany: Piper.

- Lukács. (1978). *Velha e Nova Cultura*. In *Revolución y Antiparlamentarismo*, México: Ediciones Pasado y Presente.
- Marcuse, H. (2001). *The Problem of Social Change in the Technological Society in Towards a Critical Theory of Society* (D. Kellner Ed.). London, UK: Routledge Press
- Marx, K., & Engels, F. (1962). *Selected Works* (Vols. 1–2). Moscow: Foreign Languages Publishing House.
- Nietzsche, F. (1975). Thus Spoke Zarathustra. In *The Portable Nietzsche* (W. Kaufmann, Trans.). New York: Viking Press.
- Queirós, A. (2013). A new alliance, environmental tourism and cultural landscape. In *Landscape and Imagination, Towards a new baseline for education in a changing world. Paysage et Invention. Evolution des enseignements dans un monde en transition*. Florence, Italy: UNISCAPE.
- Queirós, A. (2013). Cultural agents of change and the sunset of environmental services. The economy and ecology of heathlands. Retrieved from <http://philoetichal.blogspot.pt/>
- Quental, A. (1989). *Tendências Gerais da Filosofia na Segunda Metade do Século XIX*. Lisboa, Portugal: Comunicação.
- Quental, A. (1991). *A Filosofia da Natureza dos Naturalistas in Obras Completas de Antero de Quental, Filosofia\_III, Organização, Introdução e Notas de Joel Serrão*. Lisboa, Portugal: Comunicação.
- Reagan, T., & Singer, P. (1989). *Animal Rights and Human Obligations*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Reeves, H. (2002). *Les Dernières nouvelles du cosmos*. Paris, France: Éditions du Seuil.
- Ricoeur, P. (1992). *Oneself as Another* (K. Blamey, Trans.). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Rolston, H., III. (1986). *Philosophy Gone Wild*. Buffalo, NY: Prometheus Books
- Sartre, J. (2007). *Existentialism is a Humanism* (C. Macomber, Trans.). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press. (Original work published 1946)
- Sena, J. (1984). Letter to my kids, about the shootings of Goya. Lisboa: Edições 70.

**Globalization and Global Code of Tourism Ethics**

Singer, P. (1993). *Ética Prática*. São Paulo, Brazil: Editora Martins Fontes.

Spinoza, B. (n.d.). Digital and multilingual publication of Spinoza's Ethics. Retrieved from <http://www.ethicadb.org/index.php?p=&lanid=3&lg=en&ftop=488px>

Strauss, L. (1952). *Race et Histoire*. Paris, France: UNESCO.

UNCHE. (1972). Action Plan for the Human Environment. B.5. Development and Environment. United Nations Conference on the Human Environment A/CONF.48/14/Rev.1 - Stockholm, Sweden.

United Nations. (1948, December 10). Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the UN on December 10, 1948 (A/RES/217). Retrieved from <http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/>

Wittgenstein, L. (1963). *Philosophical Investigations* (G. E. M. Anscombe, Trans.). Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell.



## Chapter 9

# Understanding Neoliberalism Regimes and the Operations of Global Corporations

**Sahidi Maman Bilan**

*University of Sunderland in London, UK*

### **ABSTRACT**

*The present-day political and economic ideology constitutes a veritable challenge—due to its complexity—for managers in charge of global corporations, especially when it comes to crafting global strategies. Therefore, an understanding of the neoliberalism system and the circumstances which led to the global dominance of corporations are crucial. The chapter evaluates the political and economic circumstances which led to the emergence of the new world order coined as neoliberalism. That means that the external environment of current global businesses will be discussed. Also highlighted is the new world order and how this is conducive to the free operations of global corporations. The chapter ends with a critical assessment of the entire neoliberal project and the corporate governance.*

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-5225-6983-1.ch009

Copyright © 2019, IGI Global. Copying or distributing in print or electronic forms without written permission of IGI Global is prohibited.

## **INTRODUCTION**

The present-day political and economic ideology constitutes a veritable challenge - due to its complexity – for managers in charge of global corporations, especially when it comes to crafting global strategies. Therefore, an understanding of the neoliberalism system and the circumstances which led to the global dominance of corporations are crucial. The chapter evaluates the political and economic circumstances which led to the emergence of the new world order coined as neoliberalism. That means that the external environment of current global businesses will be discussed. Also highlighted is the new world order and how this is conducive to the free operations of global corporations. The chapter ends with a critical assessment of the entire neoliberal project and the corporate governance.

Successful and efficient global corporate and business strategic planning is nowadays unfeasible, unthinkable without a good understanding and a serious audit of both, the immediate operating environment and the macro in which the activities of a global corporation take place. The immediate operating and the macro environments in strategic management are referred to as the external stakeholders and the political, economic, socio-cultural, and technical, legal and environmental factors. These factors are beyond any control of businesses. The operating environment is understood as the micro environment or the specific business industry in which companies are competing, rivals, buyers, suppliers, community, media, intermediaries, pressure groups etc. The micro and macro environments constitute the external environment in opposition to the internal environment of a business. The internal environment is basically all the resources or the core competencies and capabilities of a company. The kind of appraisal required here is the scanning of the strengths, weaknesses, against the opportunities and threats of a company. This is generally known as SWOT analysis. Altogether, PEST and SWOT analyses are the analytical tools that help to understand the position of a company. These tools and the environmental assessment are used in all industry sectors from the travel and tourism sector to the hospitality etc (Thompson & Martin, 2005; Sadler, 2003).

An assessment of the international and the business environment in the layout of a global business strategy is therefore critical, since the business world has become more complex than ever before. This is in fact only relevant if one understands how the corporations have become bigger, and dominate the entire world in different aspects: institutions, societies and culture... They are becoming oligopolistic, that means a small number of organisations interact with each other and control the whole business by dictating the prices. Not only are the global corporations, as we shall see, powerful in terms of economics, but also politically speaking too.

The aim of this paper is first and foremost to evaluate the political and economic circumstances which led to the emergence of the new world order coined as Neoliberalism. That means this paper is particularly about the external environment of current global businesses. Secondly, a particular focus will be on the new world order and how this is conducive to the free operations of global corporations. Finally, a critical assessment of the entire neoliberal project and the corporate governance will follow. To understand the concept of neoliberalism it is paramount to briefly explain its theoretical background and how it has emerged to become the current dominant ideology in the economic and political spheres (Chang 2003, 3).

Neoliberalism is an updated version or the revival of the classical liberalism. In other words, neoliberalism is a revised form of the classical liberalism which has been brought to the fore in the 1970s. Its touchstone remains the individual freedom (Springer 2010). For the classical liberalism the state only exists to “secure the freedom of individuals on a formally egalitarian basis” (Maczynska et al., 2010, p. 20). It is also paramount to stress that *Laissez-faire* economic policy inspired by Adam Smith is one of the key principles of the classical liberalism. It gives predominance to the market. The classical liberalism holds the assumption that the free market would efficiently shape the economic order in such a way that the role of the state would be minimum and limited to that of a “night watchman.” In other words, the state must not interfere in the economic activities as the market regulates itself. Thus, for the classical liberalism the maximisation of free trade and competition are essential. These can be achieved by minimising the interference from political institutions”. The functions of the state are just to uphold laws, the judicial system, “...the police, prisons and the army to protect individuals from coercion and theft, punish criminals, and defend the country from foreign aggression...” (US Legal, n.d.).

Historically the classical liberalism was the predominant and the largely operational economic system throughout the 19<sup>th</sup> century. It is only at the commencement of the 20<sup>th</sup> century that some dysfunctions of the economic system such as monopolistic tendencies, deep business cycle fluctuations emerged and weakened the classical liberalism. It is also of critical relevance to mention that the socialist economic system that followed the 1917 October Revolution in Russia contributed to the erosion of the classical liberalism. The most determinant economic crisis, the economic Depression of 1929, achieved the rejection of the classical liberalism for the sake of more state-controlled economy termed the Keynesianism. Maczynska et al. (2010, p. 20) rightly pointed out that: “The proverbial final nail in the coffin of classical liberalism was the Great Depression of 1929 – 1933, which cleared the ground for a rapid expansion of Keynesianism.”

Keynesianism is an economic doctrine inspired by the British Scottish economist John Maynard Keynes (1883-1946). Keynes holds the view that by increasing government expenditures and lowering taxes demand can be stimulated and optimal economic performance could be achieved. According to him this strategy can help to pull the global economy out of the depression. Keynes rejects the idea of *laissez-faire* and advocates for the state intervention in the economy through public policies with the aim of creating employment and price stability and welfare. In other words, Keynes believes that the market needs to be regulated. The Keynesian theory was adopted and became the predominant economic system and policy from the Great Economic Depression of 1929 until the 1970s following a rising inflation and the increase of unemployment in most of the advanced economies (Mosedale, 2016). This was referred to as “stagflation” which means “a combination of rising inflation and a stagnant economy with high unemployment” Maczynska et al. (2010, p. 21).

The term neoliberalism was coined by Alexander Rüstow at a meeting in Paris in 1938. How exactly has the Neoliberalism Regime evolved and what is its content?

Subsequent to their defeat by Israel in October 1973, the oil producing Arab countries (OPEC: Organisation of the Petroleum Exporting Countries) came together in a cartel-like fashion and stopped exports to the US and many other western nations to punish them for supporting Israel. Subsequently, runaway inflation, a deep recession and a high rate of unemployment followed in many western countries, particularly in the U.S. The reactions sparked by these circumstances were numerous: People started calling the prevailing economic models that favoured regulation and state intervention in the economic activities namely the Keynesian economic theory into question. Western countries were from that moment on very concerned about their dependency on oil suppliers. Many attempts have been made to reduce oil consumption. In order to overcome this situation, western countries started adopting economic freedom for individuals and corporations. Economic freedom means deregulation, privatisation, and liberalisation of trade. The role of the state should, as already mentioned above, be limited to guarantee a legal environment in which individuals and corporations can compete against each other. In other words, the role of the state should be kept to a minimum by not interfering in the private sectors, which means civil society. Activities, such as business, religion, women associations, trade unions are referred to as part of civil society.

When Margaret Thatcher became Prime Minister in Britain in 1979, and then Ronald Reagan President of the United States in 1980, it was the decisive period of the implementation of the new economic policy that is commonly called “laissez-faire” or in its modern manifestation Neoliberalism or according to Stiglitz (2002) “Market fundamentalism”. Why and how Neoliberalism is coined as market fundamentalism?

It means “the market is the organizing and regulative principle of the state and society” (Stiglitz, 2002). Put differently, the neoliberal economy is based on a very radical *Laissez-Faire* economic policy and strongly advocates for withdrawal of the state from market regulation. The radical economic laissez-faire is believed to be the panacea of all social issues.

Margaret Thatcher and Reagan systematically proceeded with massive tax cuts for the rich, crushing of trade unions, privatising public assets, deregulation, outsourcing and promotion of competition in all business sectors in their respective countries. Neoliberal policies were imposed with the help of the International Monetary fund (IMF), the World Bank, the Maastricht treaty and the World Trade Organisation (WTO). The rest of the world was forced to adopt these policies.

It is critically important to stress that the rapid implementation of the neoliberalism system has been brought about by the collapse of the former Union of Soviet Socialist Republics economic (USSR) and its political system that resulted in the adoption of the market-led economic system by the new eastern countries. In the same period, social unrest was devastating many developing countries as the financial institutions, the World Bank and the IMF imposed austere and drastic economic measures known as conditionality or structural adjustment Programme (SAP)<sup>1</sup> on them. The requirements for acquiring loans were basically the full application of the following neoliberal principles:

- Liberalisation of the economy, that means the lifting of all trade barriers. The state should not interfere in regulating for instance financial transactions. Taxes on trade should be cut. Any law that could potentially impede the free flow of goods and services should be removed.
- Privatisation of the state-owned companies, which means the possibility for individuals or private companies to buy companies which used to be property of the state and to operate them for their own profit.
- Reduction of state expenditure on sectors such as health, education, agriculture, that means the state should not subsidise or even stop providing money for their upkeep altogether.
- Massive reduction of the number of civil servants, that means the state should employ as few people as possible in public sectors.
- Global economic integration.

In essence, the neoliberal economic policy vehemently encourages the elimination of, or cutbacks in, social welfare programs; and reduction of taxes on businesses and for the investing class. On the international sphere, free movement of goods, services, capital, and money (but not people) across national boundaries are promoted. In other words, global corporations, airlines, big hotels chains, like Marriott International, Hilton Worldwide, ACCOR, Intercontinental Hotels Group etc., banks, and individual investors are free to move their properties, assets across national boundaries, and also free to acquire property across national boundaries. However, the free cross border business does not include free movement of individuals in the neoliberal agenda (Kotz, 2000, p. 2). The cross-border business and the free flow of capital have decisively participated to the convergence, the systematic integration and interconnectedness of the national economies, industries and companies. This is the so-called globalisation of the world economy.

Altogether, these above outlined neoliberal principles made up what is called in the political literature the “Washington consensus”<sup>2</sup> (Stiglitz, 2002; Rodrik, 2006). Chile under Pinochet’s presidency was one of the first nations in which the neoliberal programme was comprehensively applied (LATTA, Alex and AGUAYO) (Cid, 2012; Mosedale, 2016, p. 3).

It follows from the above outlined principles that the state should withdraw from the private sector by saving money and allowing companies to take over the supply of goods and services. Governments do not have the necessary acumen and knowledge to anticipate market changes (Harvey, 2005, p. 2). In other words, the main point is that nations should open up their markets to the global corporations. An unregulated or unrestrained market is believed to be the optimal strategy for neoliberals to aim for an economic development and growth. The supporting arguments for imposing these measures on nations in general and the developing countries particularly were that once government intervention was removed from global markets and the benefits of the new information-based technological revolution were free to flow around the globe, higher growth, accelerated productivity gains, and declining unemployment would follow. Financial liberalisation would lead to lower interest rates and therefore would attract higher global investment. Money and technology would flow from the capital and knowledge rich advanced nations to the opportunity rich poorer countries, producers of raw materials. All these advantages would contribute to closing the economic gap that separated poor and rich countries (Stiglitz, 2002; Harvey, 2005).

At the political level, in addition to the above-mentioned measures, a liberal democratic system has been promoted and encouraged in all Third World countries. Only democratic nations are eligible for further economic assistance by the western developed nations.

In 1995 a new international economic institution called the World Trade Organisation (WTO) was established to regulate international trade relations, which means the free flow of goods and services. It is however, worth mentioning that the WTO came into being just to enforce an already existing organisation, the General Agreement on Trade and Tariffs (GATT) created for the same purpose (Stiglitz, 2002).

On the other side, it is of relevance to highlight, according to Kotz, (2000, p. 2), that neoliberal rationality extended to the state measures the state's success according to its ability to meet the market requirements which are the following:

1. The legitimacy of the state is founded in its ability to successfully sustain and foster the market. The state tries to meet the needs of the market in various ways, through fiscal and monetary policy, immigration policy, dealing with criminals, or the structure of the public education sector
2. The state must behave like a market actor in terms of cost and benefit in all of its functions, including law. Generalised calculation of cost and benefit is the measure of all state practices
3. The health and growth of the economy is the basis of the legitimacy of the state
4. Economic rationality is extended to the individual's conduct. "It figures individuals as rational, calculating creatures whose moral autonomy is measured by their capacity for "self-care" – the ability to provide for their own needs and service their own ambitions"

Altogether it seems for the neoliberal economic theory moral responsibility is rational action.

Based on these assumptions the above-mentioned measures, as prerequisite to development and growth for all nations, particularly for the Third World countries were imposed. Thus, by the end of 1990, this neoliberal system had been consolidated and went global. It affects all aspects of the society. As we can see, all these policies emphasised the importance and the necessity of market economics and therefore the free operations of corporations competing against each other. A global corporation, according to Dicken (1998) "is a firm which has the power to co-ordinate and control operations in more than one country (even if it does not own them)."

It is now obvious that privatisation and liberalisation are the means by which the corporations succeeded in making their way into all spheres of life. Bakan (2005, p. 113) highlights this fact in following words:

## **Understanding Neoliberalism Regimes and the Operations of Global Corporations**

*Through a process known as privatization, governments have capitulated and handed over to corporations control of institutions once thought to be inherently “public” in nature. No part of the public sphere has been immune to the infiltration of for-profit corporations. Water and power utilities, police, fire and emergency services, day care centers, welfare services, social security, colleges and universities, research, prisons, airports, health care, genes broadcasting, the electromagnetic spectrum, public parks, and highways have all, depending on the jurisdiction, undergone, or are being considered for, full or partial privatization.*

All industry sectors have been affected. The privatisation of the transportation sector such the railway, buses, airways etc. has had a big impact on the travel and tourism industry which is conducive for the global mobility and the diversification of the tourism destinations. For instance, the privatisation of health care has resulted in an increase of medical tourism and an outsourcing of healthcare to developing countries in order to avoid long waiting lists in most of developed countries.

There is no doubt that the neoliberal economic policy has not only become global, but it was even praised to be the only viable economic system by its defenders. Francis Fukuyama emphatically claimed in 1992 the “end of history” with the event of the neoliberalism regime. The underlying belief has been accurately summarised by Maczynska et al. (2012, p. 22) in the following terms:

“A market economy and liberal democracy based on individual freedoms and private ownership of production factors were supposed to universally and permanently dominate the future of humanity.”

A similar idea has been suggested by Harvey (2005, p. 50) when saying that neoliberalism was the view that “human well-being can best be advanced by liberating individual entrepreneurial freedoms and skills within an institutional framework characterized by strong property rights, free markets, and free trade.”

The former British Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher was in the 1980s so impressed and convinced with the neoliberal policies that she used the following acronym TINA as slogan meaning “there is no alternative.” The question which now arises here is to know the difference between the classical liberalism and the neoliberalism?

Three key differences were identified by Castree (2010) which are:

Firstly, Neoliberalism is, as already mentioned above, a revival of the classical liberalism after the crisis of the Keynesian system and has been then renamed to distinguish it from the liberalism and the subsequent accumulation crisis which led to the Great Economic Depression of 1929.



Secondly, there is basically a reductionism of individual freedoms to economic freedoms.

Thirdly, the neoliberal policies gained impetus beyond advanced economies as they have, as already mentioned above, been disseminated by global institutions such the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund through the structural adjustment programmes (Schilcher, 2007; Lacy & Ilcan, 2015).

More than thirty years after the implementation of the neoliberal system, we are unfortunately facing this harsh reality: all these predictions and expectations have turned out to be devastating and not profitable for many developing countries whatsoever, since global income growth has slowed, productivity growth has deteriorated, real wage growth has declined, and inequality has risen in most countries as never before (Geo-Jaja & Mangum, 2001, pp. 30-49). In addition, we ought to mention that the neoliberal policy has also led to the undermining of the concept of state in all Third World countries, for many developing countries do not control their territories; they are not sovereign and do not have the monopoly of coercive power. Territoriality, sovereignty and the exclusive exercise of coercive power basically define the mainstays of statehood (Morrison, 2002). Insofar as these nations do not meet these mentioned criteria, it is therefore not false to say that they have collapsed as states.

While many states in Africa, for instance, were collapsing as they could not fulfil the minimum requirements for their citizens, the corporations through merger, acquisition, strategic alliances and the business-friendly environment that they enjoyed have become bigger and so powerful that they are getting out of control.

Global corporations dominate all markets and dictate prices freely without any constraints. Through the practice of outsourcing, i.e. contracting out some activities of non-strategic importance abroad and the tactic of relocating their factories from high wage nations to low wage countries, they succeeded in making employment insecure and by the same way gaining competitive advantages. Through their ability to freely move their operations or relocate their capitals and plant facilities around the World.

In light of all what preceded, a pivotal question remains: If a corporation above all belongs to the private sector and therefore falls under the legislation of a state that is the legitimate body to wield the coercive power, where did then modern corporations derive their apparent unlimited power?

To answer this question, one just needs to have a look at the annual meetings of the financial institutions and the WTO to become aware of the deep involvement of businessmen in politics, since most of them either are staff members of the

financial institutions or present in high position of political decision making of the most powerful western countries. It is often reported that the former American Vice President Dick Cheney and the former Defence Secretary Donald Rumsfeld (under the Bush Junior administration) were all either advisers or ex Chief Executive Officers of big oil and pharmaceutical companies (Cf. the relationship between Cheney and Halliburton (Rosenbaum, 2004)<sup>3</sup> & see also the Role of Donald Rumsfeld as non-executive director ABB in North Korea nuclear issue (Randeep, 2003). Thus, it is easier for politicians once in power to influence and advance their interests wherever it is necessary.

In this perspective Stiglitz (2002, p. 19) posits:

*The financial ministers and central governors typically are closely tied to the financial community; they come from financial firms and after their period of government service, that is where they return.*

Besides the fact that many top politicians were or are still very influential in both the political and business spheres many significant political parties receive funds from corporations for the preparation of electoral campaigns. Thanks to the lifting of all trade and financial barriers, which made capital flight easy, corporations can also blackmail a state (usually developing countries) by threatening to invest somewhere else<sup>4</sup>.

It is now obvious why the global corporations became so hyper-powerful that one can even speak of corporatocracy, i.e. the dominance and the control of the society by corporations (Oxford Dictionaries, 2017). This has been emphasised by Dasa (2015, p. 34) when pointing out that Corporatocracy relates “to a society dominated politically and economically by large corporations. A society turns into a corporatocracy when its economic and political systems are controlled by corporations or corporate interests”.

They seem to transcend any defined territory or legislation. The major role played by global corporations has been highlighted in the following terms by Barber, Benjamin (1995, p. 23):

*By many measures, corporations are more central players in global affairs than nations,” he went on to add “We call them multinational but they are more accurately understood as postnational, transnational or even anti-national. For they abjure the very idea of nations or any other parochialism that limits them in time or space. (Younge, 2014).*

The denomination corporateocracy is not false at all, when one looks back at all the crimes in which the corporations were involved without being held accountable. To quote just few examples one can think of corporate manslaughter due to technical hazards posed by corporations, tax evasions, money laundering, etc.

Furthermore, it is critically important to stress the fact that many corporations operating in a cut throat competition are much more concerned with shareholders' than the wider stakeholders' values have recently been involved in massive overuse of natural resources. It is therefore not wrong to allege that recent economic development substantially contributed to the depletion and the destruction of our non-renewable natural resources, the rainforest, the oil and gas reserves by the global corporations (van Wouter, 1995, p.47). The whole ecosystem is endangered. The more an economy grows, the more energy consumption increases. The competition between nations is becoming fierce with the emergence of new economic powers such as Brazil, Russia, India China and South Africa; the so-called BRICS countries. Hence, the prospect of a conscious use of the natural resources in the near future seems to be bleak as the mightiest economic nation, the USA, refused to sign the Kyoto Treaty which is believed to help reducing carbon dioxide emission, a toxic substance as widely regarded being responsible for the destruction of the ozone layer. This situation is alarming as we are not only jeopardising our lives, but at the same time also those of the future generations. Corporations are becoming Frankenstein's monster; our own creature is now working towards our destruction.

In addition to the environment destruction, corporations have been accused of human rights abuses in many countries by promoting and exploiting sweatshop labour and a cheap labour policy. They have also been blamed for supporting repressive governments in order to ensure they retain a licence to operate. There have even been many attempts to overthrow democratically elected leaders when they refuse to comply with corporate requirements or pass an anti-corporate bill. The notorious examples, among others, are the scandal in which Shell was involved in Nigeria and the failed *coup d'état* against the late Venezuelan president Hugo Chavez in 2002. He overcame the coup thanks to the massive support of the Venezuelan people (Bellos, 2002).

By and large, the misbehaviour of global corporations has recently sparked many reactions from Seattle, Prague, London, Genoa, Hamburg. Thousands and thousands of people protested through non-governmental organisations and pressure groups, like ATTAC<sup>5</sup> against the global corporations and against the WTO as well. Around the world, an anti-corporate feeling is growing. Over the past years an extensive damage was made to McDonalds, Starbucks restaurants.

Aware of the various criticisms to which they have been subjected, the global corporations set out some guidelines that chiefly should be their codes of conduct or their commitment to being more environment friendly, to respect human rights and to improve the work conditions for their employees. This is termed as corporate social responsibility (CSR). Corporate social responsibility should also be understood as a self-regulation of the global corporations or an ethical commitment towards the stakeholders, shareholders, consumers, suppliers and communities. The World Business Council for Sustainable Development (WBCSD, 1999) defined CSR as “the continuing commitment by business to behave ethically and contribute to economic development while improving the quality of life of the workforce and their families as well as of the local community and society at large.”

As for the World Bank CSR as “the commitment of business to contribute to sustainable economic development, working with employees, their families, the local community and society at large to improve their quality of life, in ways that are both good for business and good for development”.

The core idea of CSR is basically that corporations should not only be held accountable to shareholders but also to society as a whole. A corporation is an entire part of society; it should therefore contribute to the welfare of society by enhancing the livelihood and investing back in society. The aim of CSR is to help corporates to responsible global citizens. The questions which arise here are the following: What is a corporation? Can global corporations be trusted to really behave ethically?

For the sake of clarity, it is firstly important to understand what a corporation means. Dasa (2015 p. 21) claims that the name “‘corporation’ derives from ‘corpus’, the Latin word for body, or a ‘body of people.’ Thus, a corporation is a legal entity that is created under the laws of a state designed to establish the entity as a separate legal entity having its own privileges and liabilities distinct from those of its members”. In a nutshell, it can be said that a corporation is an individual or a legal entity with some rights and also obligations and responsibilities. If so can a corporation really be trusted:

According to J. Bakan (2005), “The corporation’s legally defined mandate is to pursue, relentlessly and without exception, its own self-interest, regardless of the often-harmful consequences it might cause to others...”

The word ‘corporation’ derives from ‘corpus’, the Latin word for body, or a ‘body of people.’ Thus, a corporation is a legal entity that is created under the laws of a state designed to establish the entity as a separate legal entity having its own privileges and liabilities distinct from those of its members.

A corporation is by definition a self-centred organisation and only responsible to its shareholders. Its ultimate goal is to ensure a return on investment, i.e. profit. Hence, it is immoral for a corporation to be social and to abide by environmental standards. Corporate social responsibility is therefore difficult to be trusted. It can be seen in fact as a kind of strategy not only to weaken social protests, but also to enhance the tarnished reputation and image of the corporations.

A possible way of solving the current problem with the corporate activities is firstly a reform of the financial and economic institutions which have been distorted. They need to be redirected to their initial role that was to help achieve a sustainable development for all nations. Secondly, local democracies should be strengthened in order for people influence political decision making and to have more control on the institutions. Thirdly, an international external body should be established to monitor corporate activities. Corporations should legally be held accountable to local governments and to an international neutral institution. This is of paramount importance, for it is the only way to legally control and monitor the activities and the criminal behaviour of global corporations. Only in doing so would it be possible to minimise the deleterious corporate effects on ecosystems and their consequences. Preserving the environment is critical in order to foster sustainable development and to preserve the survival of business in general<sup>6</sup>. Otherwise we will face a self-destruction of the capitalism system and therefore of corporations themselves. The recent financial crisis of 2008 is a telling example of this. Various corporations had to be bailed out from taxpayers' monies and some were even nationalised in Western countries. A striking example of this was the nationalisation of the British bank Northern Rock by the British government in 2008 which collapsed because of the subprime mortgage crisis in America (Shin, 2009, p. 105).

To sum up, any global strategic business planning requires a broad understanding of the political and economic aspects of the current global business environment which is heavily dominated by the Neoliberalism. We have also tried to show how the financial institutions, the World Bank and the International Monetary Funds (IMF) and the WTO have been used to implement the neoliberalist system, which is in its manifestation a reification of market economics. This has led to the empowerment of corporations. Through their operations, corporations are jeopardising current and future generations. Finally, we have shown the ideological content of the so-called corporate social responsibility and the necessity to legally hold corporations accountable for the sustainability of business and for the sake of the endangered human life and the widespread poverty of the so-called developing countries which may be potentially a source of conflicts.

## REFERENCES

- Bakan, J. (2005). *The Corporation: The pathological pursuit of Profit and Power*. London, UK: Constable.
- Bellos, A. (2002) Chavez rises from very peculiar coup: Venezuela is back with the leader it had before a week of turmoil began. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2002/apr/15/venezuela.alexbellos>
- Crisp, B. F., & Kelly, M. J. (1999). The socioeconomic impacts of structural adjustment. *International Studies Quarterly*, 43(3), 533–552.
- Geo-JaJa, M. A., & Mangum, G. (2001). Structural Adjustment as an Inadvertent Enemy of Human Development in Africa in. *Journal of Black Studies*, 32(1), 30–49. doi:10.1177/002193470103200102
- Koenig, P. (2018) Libya-Why was Muammar Gaddafi killed – may we never forget. *Global Research*. Retrieved from <https://www.globalresearch.ca/libya-why-was-muammar-gaddafi-killed-may-we-never-forget/5590628>
- Lacey, A., & Ilcan, S. (2015). Tourism for development and the new global aid regime. *Global Social Policy*, 15(1), 40–60. doi:10.1177/1468018114523633
- Latta, A., & Aguayo, B. E. C. (2012). Testing the limits: Neoliberal ecologies from Pinochet to Bachelet. *Latin American Perspectives*, 39(4), 163–180.
- Morrison, J. (2002). *The international business environment*. New York: Pallgrave Macmillan.
- Randeep, R. (2003) The two faces of Rumsfeld. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2003/may/09/nuclear.northkorea>
- Rodrik, D. (2006). Goodbye Washington Consensus, Hello Washington Confusion? A Review of the World Bank’s “Economic Growth in the 1990s: Learning from a Decade of Reform.”. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 44(4), 973–987.
- Rosenbaum, D. E. (2004) A closer look at Cheney and Halliburton. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <https://www.nytimes.com/2004/09/28/us/a-closer-look-at-cheney-and-halliburton.html>

- Sadler, P. (2003). *Strategic Management*. Sterling: Kogan Page.
- Schilcher, D. (2007). Growth Versus Equity: The Continuum of Pro-Poor Tourism and Neoliberal Governance. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(2-3), 166–193. doi:10.2167/cit304.0
- Shin, H. S. (2009). Reflections on Northern Rock: The bank run that heralded the global financial crisis. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 23(1), 101–119.
- Springer, S. (2010). Neoliberalism and geography: Expansions, variegations, formations. *Geography Compass*, 4(8), 1025–1038. doi:10.1111/j.1749-8198.2010.00358.x
- Stiglitz, J. (2002). *Globalization and its Discontents*. Wiley.
- (2008). The Washington consensus reconsidered: Towards a new global governance. In Serra, N., & Stiglitz, J. E. (Eds.), *The Washington Consensus Reconsidered* (pp. 3–13). Oxford University Press on Demand.
- Thompson, J., & Martin, F. (2005). *Strategic management: Awareness and change*. UK: Cengage Learning.
- US Legal. (n.d.) Night watchman state law and legal definition. *US Legal*. Retrieved from <https://definitions.uslegal.com/n/night-watchman-state/>
- Van Wouter, D. (1995). *Taking Nature Into Account: A Report to the Club of Rome Toward a Sustainable National Income*. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag, Inc.
- Younge, G. (2014) Who's in control – nation states or global corporations. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2014/jun/02/control-nation-states-corporations-autonomy-neoliberalism>

## ENDNOTES

- <sup>1</sup> The World Bank and the IMF believe that countries that adopt SAP policies can free their economies from government control and this will stimulate growth for the benefit of all.
- <sup>2</sup> The term was coined in 1989 in Washington. A set of neoliberal policies applied on Latin American countries. The economic policies were then “advocated for developing countries in general by official Washington, meaning the international financial institutions (the IFIs, primarily the IMF and World Bank) and the US Treasury” (Williamson, 2004, p. 1).
- <sup>3</sup> According to the New York Times Mr. Kerry declared at a community centre in Albuquerque on Sept. 17 that: “Dick Cheney’s old company Halliburton has profited from the mess in Iraq at the expense of American troops and taxpayers. While Halliburton has been engaging in massive overcharging and wasteful practices under this no-bid contract, Dick Cheney has continued to receive compensation from his former company” (Rosenbaum, 2004).
- <sup>4</sup> In an interview with TV24 Peter Koenig claims that Gaddafi has been removed from power and murdered by Hillary Clinton and the former French president Sarkozy through his opponents because of his plans “to create a new African Union, based on a new African economic system. He had a plan to introduce the ‘Gold Dinar’ as backing for African currencies, so they could become free from the dollar dominated western monetary system, that kept and keeps usurping Africa; Africa’s vast natural resources, especially oil and minerals” (Koenig, 2018). In this perspective it is not wrong to say that Gaddafi was killed for business and political reasons.
- <sup>5</sup> ATTAC is a French acronym which stands for ‘Association pour la Taxation des Transactions financière et l’Aide aux Citoyens’ (Association for the Taxation of financial Transactions and Aid to Citizens). This pressure group is an alter-globalization movement founded in France in December 1998.
- <sup>6</sup> The Guardian (23.04.07) has reported the statement of Claire Melamed, head of trade and corporates at ActionAid: “The supermarket giants have proved unwilling or unable to police themselves effectively. The government needs to think very hard about the kind of corporate image UK PLC wants to portray – and if it isn’t one of exploitation and hardship then it must step in now.”



## Compilation of References

(2008). The Washington consensus reconsidered: Towards a new global governance. In Serra, N., & Stiglitz, J. E. (Eds.), *The Washington Consensus Reconsidered* (pp. 3–13). Oxford University Press on Demand.

Acosta, C. V., Leon, J., Conrad, C. R., & Malave, C. O. (2010). *Global engineering: Design, decision making, and communication*. Taylor & Francis Group.

Adebayo, K. (2015). The menace of Boko Haram in hospitality patronage in Nigeria and its effect on health and healthcare. *Developing Country Studies*, 5(8), 161–166.

Adeniyi, B. (2016). How Nollywood can Promote Nigeria's Hospitality Industry (blog post). *Jumia*. Retrieved from <https://travel.jumia.com/blog/ng/how-nollywood-can-promote-nigerias-hospitality-industry-5318>

Adler, N. (1997). *International Dimensions of Organizational Behavior* (3rd ed.). Ohio: South-Western College Publishing.

African Property News. (2016). Tourism, Airbnb growth boost demand for Cape Town CBD apartments. Retrieved from <http://www.africanpropertynews.com/southern-africa/>

Agaraj, X., & Murati, M. (2009). Tourism an important sector of economic development. *Annals of the Constantin Brancusi University of Targu Jiu. Economic Series*, 1, 83–90.

Ajunwa, C. (2012). Nigeria's Tourism Industry gets International Recognition. *All Africa*. Retrieved from <http://allafrica.com/stories/201211060298.html>

Akama, J. S. (2002). The role of government in the development of tourism in Kenya. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 4(1), 1–13. doi:10.1002/jtr.318

### **Compilation of References**

Albaum, G., Duerr, E., & Josiassen, A. (2016). *International marketing and export management*. Harlow, UK: Pearson.

Alexander, J. (2003). *The Meaning of Social Life: A Cultural Sociology*. Oxford: Oxford University Press. doi:10.1093/acprof:oso/9780195160840.001.0001

Alfreds, D. (2016). Here's how much money SA Airbnb hosts earn. Retrieved from <http://www.fin24.com/>

Aliber, M. (2003). Chronic poverty in South Africa: Incidence, causes, and policies. *World Development*, 31(3), 473–490. doi:10.1016/S0305-750X(02)00219-X

Alison, M. (2013). Ethnic Conflict and Political Violence [lecture]. In *Ethnic Conflict and Political Violence*.

Alkailani, M., Azzam, I., & Athamneh, A. (2012). Replicating Hofstede in Jordan: Ungeneralized, Reevaluating the Jordanian Culture. *International Business Research*, 5(4). doi:10.5539/ibr.v5n4p71

Anderson, P. (2000). Renewals. *New Left Review*, 1.

Angelevska-Najdeska, K., & Rakicevik, G. (2012). Planning for sustainable tourism development. *Procedia: Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 44, 210–220. doi:10.1016/j.sbspro.2012.05.022

Aragon-Correa, A., Martin-Tapia, I., & Torre-Ruiz, J. (2015). Sustainability issues and hospitality and tourism firms' strategies. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management*, 27(3), 498–522. doi:10.1108/IJCHM-11-2014-0564

Arch\_loved. (2008). Neoliberalism-World tourism [blog]. Retrieved Feb 15, 2018, from <http://neoliberalism-worldtourism.blogspot.co.uk/>

Aristotle. (1984). *The Complete Works of Aristotle, The Revised Oxford Translation* (Vol. 2). Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Ashley, C., & Mitchell, J. (2005). *Can tourism accelerate pro-poor growth in Africa?* Overseas Development Institute.

Assunto, R., Berleant, A., Berque, A., D'Angelo, P., Simmel, G., & Veríssimo Serrão, A. (2012). *Philosophy of Landscape. An anthology*. Lisboa: Centre of Philosophy of the University of Lisbon.

- Augustine. (2012). *The City of God. Translation by William Babcock, notes by Boniface Ramsey*. Hyde Park, NY: New City Press.
- Babatunde, J. (2015). Tourism: Linking Bridge to Economy Diversification. *Vanguard News*. Retrieved from <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2015/11/tourism-linking-bridge-to-economy-diversification/>
- Bakan, J. (2005). *The Corporation: The pathological pursuit of Profit and Power*. London, UK: Constable.
- Barbaric.com. (2017). *Lagos Emerging as the Hub of Tourism and Entertainment in Africa – Ambode*. Retrieved from <https://www.barbaric.com.ng/lagos-tourism-entertainment-africa/>
- BBC News. (2017) *Amazon Sorry over India Flag Doormat Fiasco*. Retrieved from <http://www.bbc.com/news/world-asia-india-38606101>
- Beckert, C. (2012). *Ética*. CFUL. U. Lisboa
- Bellos, A. (2002) Chavez rises from very peculiar coup: Venezuela is back with the leader it had before a week of turmoil began. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2002/apr/15/venezuela.alexbellos>
- Bentham, J. (2014). *An Introduction to the Principles of Morals and Legislation*.
- Berleant, A. (2011). Changing Landscapes [Keynote lecture]. In *Paysages en Transition [Transition Landscapes] International Conference*, Lisbon, Portugal
- Berque, A. (1993). L'écoumène, mesure terrestre de L'Homme, mesure humaine de la Terre: Pour une problématique du monde ambiant. *L'Espace Géographique*, 4(4), 299–305. doi:10.3406pgeo.1993.3225
- Bhattacharya, A. (2017). India's Foreign Minister threatened to deny Amazon Executives Visas for Selling Doormats Featuring Indian Flags. *QZ*. Retrieved from <https://qz.com/883059/indias-foreign-minister-threatened-to-deny-amazon-amzn-executives-visas-for-selling-doormats-with-indian-flags/>
- Bianchi, R. V., & Stephenson, M. L. (2017). *Tourism and Citizenship: Rights, freedoms, and responsibilities in the global order*. Oxon: Routledge.
- Blichtfeldt, B. S. (2007). The habit of holidays. *Tourist Studies*, 7(3), 249–250. doi:10.1177/1468797608092512

### **Compilation of References**

- Boddy, D. (2005). *Management an introduction* (3rd ed.). Prentice Hall.
- Botha, A. (2012). *Modeling tourism demand for South Africa using a system of equations approach: The Almost Ideal Demand System*. Johannesburg: Trade and Industrial Policy Strategies.
- Briedenhann, J. (2011). The potential of small tourism operators in the promotion of pro-poor tourism. *Journal of Hospitality Marketing & Management*, 20(3-4), 484–500. doi:10.1080/19368623.2011.562439
- Briedenhann, J., & Wickens, E. (2004). Tourism routes as a tool for the economic development of rural areas-vibrant hope or impossible dream? *Tourism Management*, 25(1), 71–79. doi:10.1016/S0261-5177(03)00063-3
- Britton, S. G. (1982). The political economy of tourism in the third world. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 9(3), 331–329. doi:10.1016/0160-7383(82)90018-4
- Brohman, J. (1995). Economism and critical silences in development studies: A theoretical critique of neoliberalism. *Third World Quarterly*, 16(2), 297–318. doi:10.1080/01436599550036149
- Brohman, J. (1996). New Directions in Tourism for Third World Development. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 23(1), 48–70. doi:10.1016/0160-7383(95)00043-7
- Brooks, I., Weatherston, J., & Wilkinson, G. (2004). *The international business environment*. Pearson Education.
- Brophy, S. (2017). Is Airbnb a threat to SA's tourism sector? Fedhasa thinks so as it calls for 'urgent regulation.' *Traveller 24*. Retrieved from <http://www.traveller24.com>
- Brown, M. (1991). South African gold mines and nationalization. *The Investment Analysts Journal*, 100–105.
- Brown, S. (2005). Traveling with a purpose: Understanding the motives and benefits of volunteer vacationers. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 8(6), 479–496. doi:10.1080/13683500508668232
- Buades, J. (2010). The Role of Tourism Corporations: The Neoliberal Attack on Local and Global Democracy. *Tourism Watch*. Retrieved Feb 5, 2018, from <https://www.tourism-watch.de/en/content/role-tourism-corporations-neoliberal-attack-local-and-global-democracy>

- Bull, C., Hoose, J., & Weed, M. (2003). *An Introduction to Leisure Studies*. Essex: Pearson.
- Cahill, D. (2013). Ideas-centered explanations of the rise of neoliberalism: A critique. *Australian Journal of Political Science*, 48(1), 71–84. doi:10.1080/10361146.2012.761174
- Callicott, J. (1989). *In Defense of the Land Ethic: Essays in Environmental Philosophy*. Albany, NY: the State University of New York Press
- Camus, A. (1988). *The Stranger* (M. Ward, Trans.). New York, NY: Knopf. (Originally published 1942)
- Canavan, B. (2016). Tourism culture: Nexus, characterises, context and sustainability. *Tourism Management*, 53, 229–243. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2015.10.002
- Caraway, T. L., Cook, M. L., & Crowley, S. (Eds.). (2015). *Working Through the Past: Labor and Authoritarian Legacies in Comparative Perspective*. Ithaca: Cornell University Press.
- Carolin, L., Lindsay, A., & Victor, Q. (2015). Sex trafficking in the tourism industry. *Journal of Tourism & Hospitality (Los Angeles, Calif.)*, 4(4), 166–171.
- Carrillo, A. M. (1999). La cocina del tomate, frijol y calabaza. *Clio*.
- Carvalho, J. (1991). Evolução Espiritual de Antero. In *Estudos sobre a Cultura Portuguesa do Século XIX\_ (I Antheriana)*, in *Obras Completas de Antero de Quental\_III, Filosofia, Organização, Introdução e Notas de Joel Serrão*. Universidade dos Açores. Lisboa, Portugal: Edit. Comunicação.
- Cernat, L., & Gourdon, J. (2007). *Is the concept of sustainable tourism sustainable?* Geneva: United Nations.
- Chapa, M. (1999). *Bebidas Mexicanas, la ruta del espíritu*. León, España: Editorial Everest.
- Chew, M. (2010). Delineating the emergent global cultural dynamic of ‘lobalisation’: The case of pass-off menswear in Chin. *Journal of Media and Cultural Studies*, 24(4), 559–571. doi:10.1080/10304310903222599

### **Compilation of References**

- Chok, S., Macbeth, J., & Warren, C. (2007). Tourism as a tool for poverty alleviation: A critical analysis of “pro-poor tourism” and implications for sustainability. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(2 &3), 144–165. doi:10.2167/cit303
- Chomsky, N. (1999). *Profit over people: Neoliberalism and global order*. Seven Stories Press.
- Chuang, T. (1984). *Basic Writings* (B. Watson, Trans.). New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Coghlan, A. (2006). Volunteer tourism as an emerging trend or an expansion of ecotourism? A look at potential clients’ perception of volunteer tourism organizations. *International Journal of Volunteer Sector Markets*, 11, 225–237.
- Collinson, S. (2016). *International business*. United Kingdom: Pearson.
- CONACULTA. (2010). La cocina tradicional mexicana, cultura comunitaria, ancestral, y viva. El paradigma de Michoacán. Retrieved from [http://www.cultura.gob.mx/turismocultural/patrimonio\\_cultural/cocina\\_mexicana/index.php#ad-image-0](http://www.cultura.gob.mx/turismocultural/patrimonio_cultural/cocina_mexicana/index.php#ad-image-0)
- Confucius. (2009). *The Analects*. Lun YÜ. Translated with an introduction by D.C. Lau, Preface by A.C. Grayling. London, UK: The Folio Society.
- Cooper, C., & Hall, M. C. (2013). *Contemporary tourism: An International Approach*. Oxford: Goodfellow Publishing.
- Crick, M. (1989). Representations of International Tourism in the Social Sciences: Sun, Sex, Sights, Savings, and Servility. *Annual Review of Anthropology*, 18(1), 307–344. doi:10.1146/annurev.an.18.100189.001515
- Crisp, B. F., & Kelly, M. J. (1999). The socioeconomic impacts of structural adjustment. *International Studies Quarterly*, 43(3), 533–552.
- Cruz, S. (1970). *Del Mexicano Gusto por el Vino*. D.F., México: Editorial Muñoz.
- Crystal, D. (2002). *Language death (New ed.)*. Cambridge University Press.
- David, L. (2011). Tourism ecology: Towards the responsible, sustainable tourism future. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 3(3), 210–216. doi:10.1108/17554211111142176

- Davidson, L., & Sahli, M. (2015). Foreign direct investment in tourism, poverty alleviation, and sustainable development: A review of the Gambian hotel sector. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 23(2), 167–187. doi:10.1080/09669582.2014.957210
- de Gil, A.M. & Zamarripa, C. (2004). *Platos y Vinos, el difícil arte del maridaje*. Madrid, España: Editorial Alianza.
- De'Angeli, A. G. (2014). *Larousse de la Cocina Mexicana*. Puebla: Larousse.
- Debbage, K. G. (1990). Oligopoly and the Resort Cycle in the Bahamas. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 17(4), 513–527. doi:10.1016/0160-7383(90)90024-L
- Descartes, R. (1991). *The Philosophical Writings of Descartes* (J. Cottingham, Trans.). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Devika. (2015). What is Glocalisation? Who all have made it big? *Maps of India*. Retrieved from <https://www.mapsofindia.com/my-india/business/what-is-glocalization-who-all-have-made-it-big>
- Dias, J. (1990). *Estudos de Antropologia* (Vol. 1). Lisboa: Imprensa Nacional-Casa da Moeda.
- Divisekera, S. (2010). Economic of tourist's consumption behavior: Some evidence from Australia. *Tourism Management*, 31(5), 629–636. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2009.07.001
- Douglas, K. (2015). How we made it in Africa – McDonald's in Nigeria: It's not about if, it's about when. *How we made it in Africa*. Retrieved from <https://www.howwemadeitinafrica.com/mcdonalds-in-nigeria-its-not-about-if-its-about-when/52504/>
- Egole, A. (2015, March 3). Guinness Celebrates Olamide, Eva, Phyno. *Vanguard News* Retrieved from <https://www.vanguardngr.com/2015/09/guinness-celebrates-olamide-eva-phyno/>
- Elbra, A. D. (2013). The forgotten resource curse: South Africa's poor experience with mining extraction. *Resources Policy*, 38(4), 549–557. doi:10.1016/j.resourpol.2013.09.004
- Elenkov, D., & Fileva, T. (2006). Anatomy of a business failure: Accepting the 'bad luck' explanation vs proactively learning in international business. *Cross Cultural Management*, 13(2), 132–141.

### **Compilation of References**

- Elliott, J. (1997). *Tourism: Politics and public sector management*. London: Routledge.
- Elueze, I. (2018). Bring Back Nigeria's 200 missing School Girls #BringBackOurGirls. *Change.org*. Retrieved from <https://www.change.org/p/all-world-leaders-bring-back-nigeria-s-200-missing-school-girls-bringbackourgirls>
- Encyclopedia of Tourism. (2016). *Entrance*. Mexico: Springer.
- Ensor, L. (2016). Foreign direct investment into SA nosedives 74%. *BDlive*. Retrieved from <http://www.bdlive.co.za/>
- Épicure. (1994). Sentences Vaticanes. In *Lettres et Maximes, Trad., Introd. and Notes de Jean-François Balaudé*. Paris: Librairie Générale Française.
- Espinosa, B. (1960). *Ética. Demonstrada à maneira dos géometras*. Coimbra: Parte I. De Deus. Introdução e Notas de Joaquim Carvalho. Atlântida Editora.
- Espinoza, R., Chávez, R., & Andrade, E. (2012). Lo global-local como base del turismo y la sustentabilidad. Una aproximación a la discusión teórica conceptual. In A. López et al. (Eds.), *Lo glocal y el turismo. Nuevos paradigmas de interpretación*. Academia Mexican de Investigación Turística A. C. Universidad de Guadalajara.
- Essa, A. (2013). *The meaning of Marikana*. Al-Jazeera.
- Ezeuduji, I. O. (2013). Nigerian tourists to South Africa: Challenges, expectations, and demands. *Acta Commercii*, 13(1), 170–179. doi:10.4102/ac.v13i1.170
- Faulkner, D., Loewald, C., & Makrelov, K. (2013). Achieving higher growth and employment: Policy options for South Africa (Working Paper WP/13/03). *South African Reserve Bank*, Pretoria: SARB.
- Fedor, M. (2012). *Global Marketing: Standardization or Adaptation?* [Google search results]. Retrieved from <http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:w6Kxjio9vIIJ:www.vuzf.bg/UserFiles/Files/GlobalMarketingStandardizationorAdaptation.pptx+&cd=6&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=ng>
- Fedor, M. (2012). *Global Marketing: Standardization or Adaptation?*.
- Ferreira, S. (2007). Role of tourism and place identity in the development of small towns in the Western Cape, South Africa. *Urban Forum*, 18, 191-209.



- Feuerbach, L. (1989). *The Essence of Christianity* (G. Eliot, trans.). Prometheus Books. (originally published in 1841)
- Fischer-French, M. (2017). How junk status affects you. Retrieved from <http://www.fin24.com/>
- Foley, M., McPherson, G., & Matheson, C. (2006). Glocalisation and Singaporean festivals. *International Journal of Event Management Research*, 2(1), 1–16.
- Frey-Ridgway, S. (1997). The cultural dimension of international business. *Collection Building*, 16(1), 12–23.
- Friedman, T. L. (2012). Why nations fail. *New York Times*.
- Friedman, T. L. (2000). *The Lexus and the olive tree: Understanding Globalization*. New York: Straus, and Giroux.
- Gaffey, C. (2017). Bring back our Girls: A brief history of what we know about the Missing Chibok women. *Newsweek*. Retrieved from <http://www.newsweek.com/chibok-girls-boko-haram-583584>
- Garma, E. (2012). *Vinos y Viñedos del Centro de México*. Querétaro: Sé, Taller de ideas.
- Geo-JaJa, M. A., & Mangum, G. (2001). Structural Adjustment as an Inadvertent Enemy of Human Development in Africa in. *Journal of Black Studies*, 32(1), 30–49. doi:10.1177/002193470103200102
- George, B. P., & Henthorne, T. L. (2007). Tourism and the general agreement on trade in services. *International Journal of Social Economics*, 34(3), 136–146. doi:10.1108/03068290710726702
- George, M. (2016). *How Did We Get Into This Mess?: Politics, Equality, Nature*. London, UK: Verso Books.
- Giroux, H. (2002). The war on the young: Corporate culture, schooling, and the politics of “zero tolerance.” In *Growing up postmodern: Neoliberalism and the war on the young* (pp. 35-46).
- Gloss, M., McGregor, M., & Brown, B. (2016). *Designing for Labour: Uber and the On-Demand Mobile Workforce*. CHI. doi:10.1145/2858036.2858476

### **Compilation of References**

- Gobo, G. (2016). Glocalization: A critical introduction. *European Journal of Cultural and Political Sociology*, 3(2-3), 381–385. doi:10.1080/23254823.2016.1209886
- Goodwin, H. (2008). Tourism, local economic development, and poverty reduction. *Applied Research in Economic Development*, 5(3), 55–63.
- Gooroochurn, N., & Sinclair, T. M. (2005). Economics of Tourism Taxation: Evidence from Mauritius. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(2), 479–498. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2004.10.003
- Gouda, E. A. S. (2012). Problems that impede sustainable tourism development in Egypt. *International Journal of Social, Behavioural, Education, Economic, Business and Industrial Engineering*, 6(11), 2800–2807.
- Grieco, J. M. (1993). Neorealism and neoliberalism: The contemporary debate. In D. Baldwin (Ed.), *Understanding the Problem of International Cooperation: The limits of Neoliberal Institutionalism and the Future of Realist theory* (pp. 301–338). New York: Columbia University Press.
- Grigorescu, A., & Zaif, A. (2017). The concept of glocalisation and its incorporation in global brands' marketing strategies. *International Journal of Business and Management Invention*, 6(1), 70–74.
- Gunder, M. (2010). Planning as the ideology of (neoliberal) space. *Planning Theory*, 9(4), 298–314. doi:10.1177/1473095210368878
- Guttentag, D. A. (2009). The possible negative impacts of volunteer tourism. *International Journal of Tourism Research*, 11(6), 537–551. doi:10.1002/jtr.727
- Haeckel, E- (1962). *Los Enigmas del Universo*. Valência: F. Sempere y C<sup>a</sup> Editores.
- Haeckel, E. (1884). *Histoire de la Création des Êtres Organisés D'après les Lois naturelles*. Paris, France: Libraire Germer Baillié et C<sup>a</sup>.
- Haeckel, E. (1882). *Les preuves du Transformisme. Réponse à Virchow*. Paris, France: C. Reinwald, Libraire-Éditeur.
- Hampton, M. P. (2003). Entry points for local tourism in developing countries: Evidence from Yogyakarta, Indonesia. *Geografiska Annaler*, 85(2), 85–101. doi:10.1111/1468-0467.00133

- Hardt, M., & Negri, A. (2001). *Empire*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Haron, J. (2016). Standardized Versus Localized Strategy: The Role of Cultural Patterns in Society on Consumption and Market Research. *Journal of Accounting & Marketing*, 05(01). doi:10.4172/2168-9601.1000151
- Harrison, D. (2008). Pro-poor tourism: A critique. *Third World Quarterly*, 29(5), 851–868. doi:10.1080/01436590802105983
- Harrison, D. (Ed.). (2001). *Tourism and the less developed world: issues and case studies*. CABI International. doi:10.1079/9780851994338.0000
- Harris, R., Griffin, T., & Williams, P. (2012). *Sustainability Tourism: A Global Perspective*. London: Butterworth-Heinemann.
- Hazbun, W. (2004). Globalization, Reterritorisation and the political economy of tourism in the Middle East. *Geopolitics*, 9(2), 310–341. doi:10.1080/14650040490442881
- Heidegger, M. (1962). *Being and Time* (J. Macquarie & E. Robinson, Trans.). London: SCM Press.
- Henama, U. S., & Sifolo, P. P. S. (2017). Uber: The South Africa Experience. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(2), 1–10.
- Herremans, R., Pyasi, N., & Lu, J. (2011). The journey toward sustainability reporting: How accountable are the tourism industry? *Tourism Recreation Research*, 36(3), 247–257. doi:10.1080/02508281.2011.11081670
- Hill, C. W., Jones, G. R., & Schilling, M. A. (2014). *Strategic management: theory: an integrated approach*. Cengage Learning.
- Hill, T., Nel, E., & Trotter, D. (2006). Small-scale, nature-based tourism as a pro-poor development intervention: Two examples in KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa. *Singapore Journal of Tropical Geography*, 27(2), 163–175. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9493.2006.00251.x
- Hollenhorst, S., Houge-Mackenzie, S., & Ostergren, D. M. (2014). The Trouble with Tourism. *Tourism Recreation Research*, 39(3), 305–319. doi:10.1080/02508281.2014.11087003
- Holloway, C. J. (2009). *The Business of Tourism* (8<sup>th</sup> ed.). Essex, UK: Prentice Hall.

### **Compilation of References**

- Honkanen, A., & Mustonen, P. (2007). Tourism consumption revisited-an empirical study of Finnish consumers. *Research on Finish Society, 1*, 41–58.
- Hurn, B. J. (2007). Pre-departure training for international business managers. *Industrial and Commercial Training, 39*(1), 9–17.
- Iyengar, R. (2017). Amazon has an India Problem. *CNN*. Retrieved from <http://money.cnn.com/2017/01/26/technology/amazon-india-products-outrage/index.html>
- Jaafar, M., Rasoolimanesh, M., & Lonik, K. A. T. (2015). Tourism growth and entrepreneurship: Empirical analysis of the development of rural hinterlands. *Tourism Management Perspectives, 14*, 17–24. doi:10.1016/j.tmp.2015.02.001
- Jamal, T., & Kim, H. (2005). Bridging the interdisciplinary divide. *Tourist Studies, 5*(1), 55–83. doi:10.1177/1468797605062715
- James, T. (2012). *Elite Statecraft and election administration. Bending the rules of the game?* Basingstoke: Palgrave-Macmillan. doi:10.1057/9781137035097
- Jamieson, W., Goodwin, H., & Edmunds, C. (2004). *The contribution of tourism to poverty alleviation*. Source Unknown.
- Jary, D., & Jary, J. (1991). *The HarperCollins Dictionary of Sociology*. HarperCollins.
- Jayawardena, C. (2013). Innovation solutions for future tourism development in Sri Lanka (2013-2026). *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes, 5*(5), 512–531. doi:10.1108/WHATT-05-2013-0033
- Jayawardena, C., Pollard, A., Chort, V., Choi, C., & Kibicho, W. (2013). Trends and sustainability in the Canadian tourism and hospitality industry. *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes, 5*(2), 132–150. doi:10.1108/17554211311314164
- Johansson, J. (2009). *Global marketing*. Boston, MA: McGraw-Hill Irwin.
- Johnston, C. (n.d.). Lao Teh King: An Interpretation of Lao Tse's Book of the Way and of Righteousness. *Kshetra Book*.
- Jonas, H. (1979). The Imperative of Responsibility. In *Search of an Ethics for the Technological Age*. Chicago, IL: The University of Chicago Press.
- Jones, P., Hillier, D., & Comfort, D. (2013). Sustainability in the global hotel industry. *International Journal of Contemporary Hospitality Management, 26*(1), 5–17. doi:10.1108/IJCHM-10-2012-0180

- Juul, M. (2015). *The sharing economy and tourism: Tourist Accommodation*. European Parliamentary Research Service.
- Kant, I. (2006). *Toward Perpetual Peace and Other Writings on Politics, Peace, and History*. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press
- Kanter, R. M. (1991). Transcending business boundaries: 12,000 world managers view change. *Harvard Business Review*, (May/June), 151-164.
- Kant, I. (1996). *The Metaphysics of Morals* (M. Gregor, Trans.). New York: Cambridge University Press. (Original work published 1927) doi:10.1017/CBO9780511809644
- Keesing, R. M., & Keesing, F. M. (1971). *New perspectives in Cultural Anthropology*. New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc.
- Keohane, R. (1993). Institutional Theory and the Realist Challenge after the Cold War. In D. Baldwin (Ed.), *Neorealism and Neoliberalism* (pp. 269-300). New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Keohane, R. O. (1990). Multilateralism: An agenda for research. *International Journal (Toronto, Ont.)*, 45(4), 731–764. doi:10.1177/002070209004500401
- Keul, A. (1914). Tourism neoliberalism and the swamp as an enterprise. *AREA, Royal Geographical Society*, 46(3). Retrieved from <http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/area.12106/full>
- Khondker, H. (2004). Glocalisation as globalisation: Evolution of a sociological concept. *Bangladesh e-Journal of Sociology*, 1(2), 12–20.
- Khondker, H. H. (2005). Globalisation to glocalisation: A conceptual exploration. *Intellectual Discourse*, 13(2), 181–199.
- Kierkegaard, S. (1983). *Fear and Trembling* (H. V. Hong & E. H. Hong, Trans.). Princeton: Princeton University Press. (Original work published 1843)
- Koenig, P. (2018) Libya-Why was Muammar Gaddafi killed – may we never forget. *Global Research*. Retrieved from <https://www.globalresearch.ca/libya-why-was-muammar-gaddafi-killed-may-we-never-forget/5590628>
- Kolawole, O. (2017). Understanding the Economics of Tourism in Nigeria. *Leadership*. Retrieved from <https://leadership.ng/2017/05/07/understanding-the-economics-of-tourism-in-nigeria/>

### **Compilation of References**

Kontogeorgopoulos, N. (2014). The relationship between volunteer tourism and development in Thailand. *Tourism (Zagreb)*, 62(3), 239–255.

Korstanje, M. E. (2016). *The Rise of Thana Capitalism and Tourism*. Abingdon: Routledge.

Korstanje, M. E., & George, B. (2012). Global warming and tourism: Chronicles of the apocalypse? *Worldwide Hospitality and Tourism Themes*, 4(4), 332–355. doi:10.1108/17554211211255684

Korstanje, M. E., & Skoll, G. (2016). Ethical assumptions: A criticism against modern pragmatism. *International Journal of Criminology and Sociology*, 5, 68–74. doi:10.6000/1929-4409.2016.05.06

Korstanje, M., & Seraphin, H. (2017). Revisiting the Sociology of Consumption in Tourism. In *The Routledge Handbook of Consumer Behaviour in Hospitality and Tourism* (pp. 46-55). Routledge.

Kotler, P., & Keller, K. (2012). *Marketing Management* (14th ed.). London, UK: Prentice Hall.

KPMG. (2014). *Nigeria's Oil and Gas Industry Brief*. Retrieved from <http://www.blog.kpmgafrica.com/wp-content/uploads/2016/10/Nigerias-oil-and-gas-Industry-brief.pdf>

KPML. (2006). *Global consumer markets: Value and international performance research: International Culture Spread*. Retrieved from [http://www.kpmg.com/cn/en/virtual\\_library/Consumer\\_markets/International\\_culture\\_spread.pdf](http://www.kpmg.com/cn/en/virtual_library/Consumer_markets/International_culture_spread.pdf)

Kuosmanen, T., & Kuosmanen, N. (2009). How not to measure sustainability value (and how one might). *Ecological Economics*, 69(2), 235–243. doi:10.1016/j.ecolecon.2009.08.008

Lacey, A., & Ilcan, S. (2015). Tourism for development and the new global aid regime. *Global Social Policy*, 15(1), 40–60. doi:10.1177/1468018114523633

Landman, J. P. (2003). *Poverty and Inequality in South Africa, 2004-2014*.

Larsen, J., & Urry, J. (2011). Gazing and performing. *Environment and Planning, D, Society & Space*, 29(6), 1110–1125. doi:10.1068/d21410

Lash, S., & Urry, J. (1993). *Economies of signs and space* (Vol. 26). London: Sage.

- Latour, B. (1993). *We Have Never Been Modern*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.
- Latour, B. (1993). *We have never been Modern*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.
- Latta, A., & Aguayo, B. E. C. (2012). Testing the limits: Neoliberal ecologies from Pinochet to Bachelet. *Latin American Perspectives*, 39(4), 163–180.
- Laurell, C., & Sandstrom, C. (2016). Analysing Uber in social media-Disruptive technology or institutional disruption? *International Journal of Innovation Management*, 20(5), 1–19. doi:10.1142/S1363919616400132
- Lea, J. (1988). *Tourism and Development in the Third World*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Lee, M. (2002). The implementation of the GATS and its impact on tourism development: A case study of Korea. Unpublished dissertation Bournemouth University, Bournemouth University.
- Leopold, A. (1949). *A Sand County Almanac*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Lerner, I. (n.d.) Glocalisation – the globalisation of the local community [Google search result]. Retrieved from <http://webcache.googleusercontent.com/search?q=cache:PYZxttXlghMJ:apps.acsa-arch.org/resources/proceedings/uploads/streamfile.aspx%3Fpath%3DACSA.FALL.11%26name%3DACSA.FALL.11.16.pdf+%&cd=2&hl=en&ct=clnk&gl=ng>
- Levit, T. (1983). The globalisation of markets. *Harvard Business Review*, 6(3), 92–102.
- Levitt, T. (1983). The globalization of markets. *Harvard Business Review*, 61(3), 92–101.
- Levitt, T. (1983). *The International Business Environment Challenges and Changes*. Harvard Business Review.
- Lichine, A. (1967). *Enciclopedia de Vinos y Alcoholes de Todos los Países*. Barcelona, España: Editorial Omega.
- Litheko, A. M., & Potgieter, M. (2016). Residents' awareness and support of tourism in Mahikeng, South Africa. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 5(2), 1–17.

### **Compilation of References**

- Liu, W., Denizci Guillet, B., Xiao, Q., & Law, R. (2014). Globalization or localization of consumer preferences: The case of hotel room booking. *Tourism Management*, *41*, 148–157. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2013.09.004
- Lorenz, K. (1973). *Die acht Todsünden der zivilisierten Menschheit*. München, Germany: Piper.
- Lowitt, S. (2006). *Sector studies and employment scenarios: A view of South Africa's Tourism Sector. Preliminary Findings*. Pretoria: HSRC.
- Lukács. (1978). *Velha e Nova Cultura*. In *Revolución y Antiparlamentarismo*, México: Ediciones Pasado y Presente.
- Luke, C. (2001). *Globalization and women in academia: North/west-south/east*. London: Routledge.
- Luke, L. G. (2016). *South Africa-Economic Challenges*. Strategic Analysis Paper. Future Directions International.
- MacCannell, D. (1973). Staged Authenticity: Arrangements of social space in tourist settings. *American Journal of Sociology*, *79*(3), 589–603. doi:10.1086/225585
- MacCannell, D. (1992). *Empty meeting grounds: The tourist papers*. London, UK: Psychology Press. doi:10.4324/9780203412145
- MacCannell, D. (2001). Tourist agency. *Tourist Studies*, *1*(1), 23–37. doi:10.1177/146879760100100102
- Mahony, K. (2007). Certification in the South African tourism industry: The case of Fair Trade in Tourism. *Development Southern Africa*, *24*(3), 393–408. doi:10.1080/03768350701445426
- Maniatis, A. (2016). Tourism and the 'rule of law.' *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, *5*(1), 1–13.
- Manuela, W. S. Jr, & De Vera, M. J. (2015). The impact of government failure on tourism in the Philippines. *Transport Policy*, *43*, 11–22. doi:10.1016/j.tranpol.2015.05.016
- Marcuse, H. (2001). *The Problem of Social Change in the Technological Society in Towards a Critical Theory of Society* (D. Kellner Ed.). London, UK: Routledge Press



- Martell, L. (2007). The third wave in globalization theory. *International Studies Review*, 9(2), 173–196. doi:10.1111/j.1468-2486.2007.00670.x
- Marten, P., & Raza, M. (2010). Is globalisation Sustainable? *Sustainability*, 2(1), 280–293. doi:10.3390/u2010280
- Marx, K., & Engels, F. (1962). *Selected Works* (Vols. 1–2). Moscow: Foreign Languages Publishing House.
- Mascarenhas Tramontin, R. G. (2010). Producción y transformación territorial: La gastronomía como atractivo turístico. In *Estudios y Perspectivas en Turismo* (pp. 776–791).
- Mayer, M. (2013). *They thought they were free: The Germans, 1933-45*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Mayrowitz, J. (2005). The Rise of Glocality: New Senses of Place and Identity in the Global Village. In K. Nyiri, (Ed.), *A Sense of Place: The Global and the Local in Mobile Communication* (pp. 21-30). Vienna, Austria: Passagen.
- Mbaiwa, J. E. (2005). The problems and prospects of sustainable tourism development in the Okavango Delta, Botswana. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 13(3), 203–227. doi:10.1080/01434630508668554
- Mbele, L. (2014). South Africa's economic challenges. Retrieved from: <http://www.bbc.com/news/business/>
- McChesney, R. W. (1999). Noam Chomsky and the struggle against neoliberalism. *Monthly Review* (New York, N.Y.), 50(11), 40. doi:10.14452/MR-050-11-1999-04\_4
- McKay, J. (2012). Natural Resources. Curse of Cure for Africa. Brenthurst Foundation Discussion Paper 5/2012. Retrieved from <https://www.thebrenthurstfoundation.org/>
- McLuhan, M., & Fiore, Q. (1968). *War and Peace in the Global Village*. New York, NY: Bantam.
- McLuhan, M., & Powers, B. (1989). *The Global Village*. Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Menon, R. (2014). Global or glocal: The future course for strategy? *Global journal of Finance and Management*, 6(5), 427-432.

### **Compilation of References**

- Merten, M. (2017). StatsSA Poverty Report 2017: Policies fail the people of South Africa. Retrieved from <https://www.dailymaverick.co.za/>
- Mograbi, J., & Rogerson, C. M. (2007). Maximising the local pro-poor impacts of dive tourism: Sodwana Bay, South Africa. *Urban Forum*, 18, 85-104.
- Molano, O.L. (2007). Identidad cultural un concepto que evoluciona. *Opera*, 69-84.
- Montecinos, A. (2012). *Planificación del turismo gastronómico sostenible*. México: CEGAHO.
- Morrison, J. (2006). *The International Business Environment: Global and Local Marketplaces in a Changing World* (2nd ed.). Palgrave MacMillan. doi:10.1007/978-0-230-20957-2
- Mosedale, J. (2003). Tourism and neoliberalism: states, the economy, and society. Retrieved Feb 12, 2018, from [https://www.researchgate.net/publication/282800882\\_Tourism\\_and\\_neoliberalism\\_states\\_the\\_economy\\_and\\_society](https://www.researchgate.net/publication/282800882_Tourism_and_neoliberalism_states_the_economy_and_society)
- Mosedale, J. (2016). Tourism and neoliberalism: states, the economy, and society.
- Mowforth, M., & Munt, I. (2015). *Tourism and Sustainability: Development, globalisation and new tourism in the Third World*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Mutayoba, V., & Mbwete, R. (2013). Is booming tourism in Zanzibar pro-poor? A micro-economic impact analysis. *Kuvukoni Journal*, 1(2), 104–120.
- Muzaffar, C. (2002). Globalization and religion: Some reflections. Retrieved from <http://www.islamonline.net>
- Nawijn, J. (2011). Happiness through Vacationing: Just a temporary boost or long-term benefits? *Journal of Happiness Studies*, 12(4), 651–665. doi:10.1007/10902-010-9221-y
- Neto, F. (2003). A new approach to sustainable tourism development: Moving beyond environmental protection. DESA Discussion Paper NO.29. United Nations.
- Ngonyama, S. (2016). Top 10 socio-economic problems in SA. Retrieved from <http://www.heraldlive.co.za/>
- Nietzsche, F. (1975). Thus Spoke Zarathustra. In *The Portable Nietzsche* (W. Kaufmann, Trans.). New York: Viking Press.

- Nkanjeni, U. (2017). Airbnb signs Africa's first city agreement with Cape Town. Retrieved from <http://www.fin24.com/>
- Noli, B., & Kirk, D. S. (2016). Uber and Metropolitan Traffic Fatalities in the United States. *American Journal of Epidemiology*, 184(3), 192–198. doi:10.1093/aje/kww062 PMID:27449416
- Nye, S. E. (2006). Technology and the production of difference. *American Quarterly*, 58(3), 597–618. doi:10.1353/aq.2006.0064
- Nyikana, S., & Sigxashe, Z. (2017). Owner/managers perceptions on the influence of the accommodation sector on tourism and local well-being in Coffee Bay. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 6(4), 1–15.
- Oskam, J., & Boswijk, A. (2016). Airbnb: The future of networked hospitality businesses. *Journal of Tourism Futures*, 2(1), 22–42. doi:10.1108/JTF-11-2015-0048
- Osland, J. (2003). Broadening the debate; The pros and cons of globalisation. *Journal of Management Inquiry*, 12(2), 137–154. doi:10.1177/1056492603012002005
- Overseas Development Institute. (2006). Can tourism help reduce poverty in Africa? Briefing Paper. Retrieved from HTTP: [www.odi.org.uk](http://www.odi.org.uk)
- Padin, C. (2012). A sustainable tourism planning model: Components and relationships. *European Business Review*, 24(6), 510–518. doi:10.1108/09555341211270528
- Pastran, S. H. (2014). Volunteer tourism: A postcolonial approach. *University of Saskatchewan Undergraduate Research Journal*, 1(1), 45–57.
- Pavlovic, D., & Knezevic, M. (2018). *Is contemporary tourism only a neoliberal manipulation?*
- Pells, R. H. (1989). *The Liberal Mind in a Conservative Age*. University Press of New England.
- Pérez, S. L. (2001). *El vino, arte que se puede beber*. México: Editorial Panorama.
- Porter, M. (1985). *Competitive advantage: creating and sustaining superior performance*. New York: Free Press.
- Powell, R. (1994). Anarchy in international relations theory: The neorealist-neoliberal debate. *International Organization*, 48(2), 313–344. doi:10.1017/S0020818300028204

### Compilation of References

Powell, S. (2006). Geert Hofstede: Challenges of cultural diversity. *Human Resource Management International Digest*, 14(3), 12–15.

PriceWaterhouseCoopers. (2012). SA Mine: Highlighting trends in the South African mining industry. Retrieved from <https://www.pwc.co.za/mining/>

QS. (2018). QS World University Rankings 2018. Retrieved from <https://www.topuniversities.com/university-rankings/world-university-rankings/2018>

Queirós, A. (2013). Cultural agents of change and the sunset of environmental services. The economy and ecology of heathlands. Retrieved from <http://philoietchal.blogspot.pt/>

Queirós, A. (2013). A new alliance, environmental tourism and cultural landscape. In *Landscape and Imagination, Towards a new baseline for education in a changing world. Paysage et Invention. Evolution des enseignements dans un monde en transition*. Florence, Italy: UNISCAPE.

Quelch, J. (2003). *The return of the global brand*. Boston: Harvard Business Review.

Quental, A. (1989). *Tendências Gerais da Filosofia na Segunda Metade do Século XIX*. Lisboa, Portugal: Comunicação.

Quental, A. (1991). *A Filosofia da Natureza dos Naturalistas in Obras Completas de Antero de Quental, Filosofia\_III, Organização, Introdução e Notas de Joel Serrão*. Lisboa, Portugal: Comunicação.

Radhakrishnan, S. (2010). Limiting Theory: Rethinking Approach to Cultures of Globalisation. In B. Turner (Ed.), *Routledge International Handbook of Globalisation* (pp. 22-41). London, UK: Routledge.

Radhakrishnan, S. (2010). Limiting theory: Rethinking approaches to cultures of globalization. In B.S. Turner (Ed.), *Routledge international handbook of globalization* (pp. 23–41). London, UK: Routledge.

Ram, U. (2004). Glocommodification: How the global consumes the local—McDonald's in Israel. *Current Sociology*, 52(1), 11–31. doi:10.1177/0011392104039311

Ramukumba, T. (2016). The role of government in support of tourism businesses: A perspective from guest houses in the Eden district region. *African Journal of Hospitality, Tourism and Leisure*, 5(1), 1–14.

- Randeeep, R. (2003) The two faces of Rumsfeld. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2003/may/09/nuclear.northkorea>
- Rawls, J. (2005). *Political liberalism*. New York, NY: Columbia University Press.
- Reagan, T., & Singer, P. (1989). *Animal Rights and Human Obligations*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.
- Reeves, H. (2002). *Les Dernières nouvelles du cosmos*. Paris, France: Éditions du Seuil.
- Richards, O. (2015). *Tourism as a Way of Diversifying Economy*. Retrieved from <https://guardian.ng/features/tourism-as-a-way-of-diversifying-economy/>
- Ricoeur, P. (1992). *Oneself as Another* (K. Blamey, Trans.). Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Ritzer, G. (2003). Rethinking globalisation: Glocalization/grobalisation and something/nothing. *Sociological Theory*, 21(3), 11–31. doi:10.1111/1467-9558.00185
- Ritzer, G. (2004). *The Globalisation of Nothing*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.
- Ritzer, G. (2007). *The Globalisation of Nothing 2*. London, UK: Pine Forge Press.
- Ritzer, G. (2010). *Globalisation: A Basic Text*. West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Ritzer, G. (2011). *Globalisation: The Essentials*. West Sussex, UK: Wiley-Blackwell.
- Robertson, R. (1995). Glocalisation: Time-Space and Homogeneity-Heterogeneity. In M. Featherstone, S. Lash & Robertson (Eds.), *Global Modernities* (pp. 25-44). London, UK: Sage Publication.
- Robertson, S. L. (2007). *Remaking the World: Neo-liberalism and the Transformation of Education and Teachers' Labour*. Centre for Globalisation, Education and Societies, University of Bristol, Bristol, UK. Retrieved Jan 5, 2018, from <http://www.bris.ac.uk/education/people/academicStaff/edslr/publications/17slr>
- Robertson, R. (1987). Globalization and societal modernization: A note on Japan and Japanese religion. *SA. Sociological Analysis*, 47(September), 35–43. doi:10.2307/3711650

### **Compilation of References**

- Robertson, R. (1990). Mapping the global condition: Globalisation as the central concept. *Theory, Culture & Society*, 7(2-3), 15–30. doi:10.1177/026327690007002002
- Robertson, R. (1992). *Globalisation – Social Theory and Global Culture*. London, UK: Sage Publication.
- Robertson, R. (1992). *Globalization: Social theory and global culture*. London, UK: Sage.
- Robertson, R. (1995). Glocalisation: time-space and homogeneity-heterogeneity. In M. Featherstone, S. Lash, & R. Robertson (Eds.), *Global Modernities* (pp. 25–44). London, UK: Sage. doi:10.4135/9781446250563.n2
- Robertson, R. (2003). Globalisation Theory 2000+: Major Problematics. In G. Ritzer & B. Smart (Eds.), *Handbook of Social Theory* (pp. 458–471). London, UK: Sage Publication.
- Robertson, R. (2013). Situating glocalization: A relatively autobiographical intervention. In G. S. Drori, M. A. Höllerer, & P. Walgenbach (Eds.), *Global themes and local variations in organization and management: Perspectives on glocalization* (pp. 25–36). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Robinson, A. D., & Acemoglu, R. (2012). *Why nations fail. The Origins of Power, Prosperity and Poverty*. New York, NY: Random House.
- Rodrik, D. (2006). Goodbye Washington Consensus, Hello Washington Confusion? A Review of the World Bank’s “Economic Growth in the 1990s: Learning from a Decade of Reform.”. *Journal of Economic Literature*, 44(4), 973–987.
- Rogerson, C. M. (2004). Regional tourism in South Africa: A case of ‘mass tourism of the South’. *GeoJournal*, 60(3), 229–237. doi:10.1023/B:GEJO.0000034730.05992.18
- Rogerson, C. M. (2012). Urban tourism, economic regeneration, and inclusion: Evidence from South Africa. *Local Economy*.
- Rogerson, C. M. (2013). Tourism and local development in South Africa: Challenging local government. *African Journal of Physical, Health Education, Recreation and Dance*, 2, 9–23.

- Rogerson, C. M. (2015). Tourism and regional development: The case of South Africa's distressed areas. *Development Southern Africa*, 32(3), 277–291. doi:10.1080/0376835X.2015.1010713
- Rogerson, C. M., & Rogerson, J. M. (2004a). Agritourism and local economic development in South Africa. *Bulletin of Geography. Socio-Economic Series*, 26, 93–106.
- Rogerson, C. M., & Rogerson, J. M. (2014b). *2030: The economic contours of "Linking Global City."* Johannesburg: American Behavioral Scientists.
- Rolfes, M. (2010). Poverty tourism: Theoretical reflections and empirical findings regarding an extraordinary form of tourism. *GeoJournal*, 75(5), 421–442. doi:10.1007/10708-009-9311-8
- Rolston, H., III. (1986). *Philosophy Gone Wild*. Buffalo, NY: Prometheus Books
- Rosenbaum, D. E. (2004) A closer look at Cheney and Halliburton. *The New York Times*. Retrieved from <https://www.nytimes.com/2004/09/28/us/a-closer-look-at-cheney-and-halliburton.html>
- Rosentraub, M. S., & Joo, M. (2009). Tourism and economic development: Which investments produce gains for regions? *Tourism Management*, xxx, 1–12.
- Roudometof, V. (2016). *Glocalisation: A Critical Introduction*. London, UK: Routledge.
- Ryan, C. (2018). More people on welfare than have jobs in SA. Retrieved from <https://www.moneyweb.co.za>
- Saayman, M., Rossouw, R., & Krugell, W. (2012). The impact of tourism on poverty in South Africa. *Development Southern Africa*, 29(3), 462–487. doi:10.1080/0376835X.2012.706041
- Saayman, M., & Saayman, A. (2012). Shopping tourism or tourists shopping? A case study of South Africa's African tourism market. *Tourism Economics*, 18(6), 1313–1329. doi:10.5367/te.2012.0169
- Sadler, P. (2003). *Strategic Management*. Sterling: Kogan Page.

### **Compilation of References**

- Salazar, N. (2005). Tourism and glocalisation: 'Local' tour guide. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 32(3), 628–646. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2004.10.012
- Sartre, J. (2007). *Existentialism is a Humanism* (C. Macomber, Trans.). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press. (Original work published 1946)
- Scheyvens, R. (2002). *Tourism Development: Empowering Communities*. Harlow, UK: Prentice Hall.
- Schiffman, L., & Kanuk, L. (2009). *Consumer Behaviour* (9th ed.). New Jersey: Pearson Prentice Hall Publishing.
- Schilcher, D. (2007). Growth Versus Equity: The Continuum of Pro-Poor Tourism and Neoliberal Governance. *Current Issues in Tourism*, 10(2-3), 166–193. doi:10.21677/cit304.0
- Schneider, S. C., & Barsoux, J. L. (2003). *Managing across cultures*. Pearson Education.
- Sena, J. (1984). Letter to my kids, about the shootings of Goya. Lisboa: Edições 70.
- Seymen, O. A. (2006). The cultural diversity phenomenon in organisations and different approaches for effective cultural diversity management: A literary review. *Cross Cultural Management*, 13(4), 296–315.
- Sharpley, R., & Telfer, D. (2014). *Tourism and development: concepts and issues*. Sydney, Australia: Channel View Publications.
- Sharpley, R., & Telfer, D. J. (2002). *Aspects of Tourism - Tourism, and Development-concepts and Issues*. Channel View Publication. Retrieved Feb 10, 2018, from [https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=Wvo1sljZH3UC&pg=PA56&lpg=PA56&dq=neoliberalism+in+tourism&source=bl&ots=r1ULvk3sdA&sig=U1p2e4GY-MnEOOIubedGfUWk0hs&hl=en&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwic7J-Y2K\\_ZAhWMmbQKHdDoC6IQ6AEIZjAH#v=onepage&q=neoliberalism%20in%20tourism&f=false](https://books.google.co.uk/books?id=Wvo1sljZH3UC&pg=PA56&lpg=PA56&dq=neoliberalism+in+tourism&source=bl&ots=r1ULvk3sdA&sig=U1p2e4GY-MnEOOIubedGfUWk0hs&hl=en&sa=X&ved=0ahUKEwic7J-Y2K_ZAhWMmbQKHdDoC6IQ6AEIZjAH#v=onepage&q=neoliberalism%20in%20tourism&f=false)
- Sharpley, R., & Telfer, D. J. (2004). *Tourism and Development: Concepts and Issues*. Clevedon, UK: Channel View Publications.
- Shaw, H. (2011). 'Glocalization' rules the world. *Financial Post*. Retrieved from <http://business.financialpost.com/news/glocalization-rules-the-world>



- Shaw, G., Saayman, M., & Saayman, A. (2012). Identifying risks facing the South African Tourism Industry. *SAJEMS*, 15(2), 190–206. doi:10.4102ajems.v15i2.170
- Shazi, N. (2018). The impact of VAT on ordinary South Africa. Retrieved from: <http://www.huffingtonpost.co.za>
- Shin, H. S. (2009). Reflections on Northern Rock: The bank run that heralded the global financial crisis. *The Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 23(1), 101–119.
- Singer, P. (1993). *Ética Prática*. São Paulo, Brazil: Editora Martins Fontes.
- Smith, S. (1997). the Self Images of a discipline: a Genealogy of International Relations Theory. In *International Relations Theory Today* (pp. 1–37). University Park, PA: The Pennsylvania State University Press.
- Sorensen, P. (2012). The Marikana Tragedy. *The International Journal of Environmental Studies*, 69(6), 871–873. doi:10.1080/00207233.2012.734046
- Spenceley, A., & Meyer, D. (2012). Tourism and poverty reduction: Theory and practice in less economically developed countries. *Journal of Sustainable Tourism*, 20(3), 297–317. doi:10.1080/09669582.2012.668909
- Spinoza, B. (n.d.). Digital and multilingual publication of Spinoza's Ethics. Retrieved from <http://www.ethicadb.org/index.php?p=&lanid=3&lg=en&ftop=488px>
- Springer, S. (2010). Neoliberalism and geography: Expansions, variegations, formations. *Geography Compass*, 4(8), 1025–1038. doi:10.1111/j.1749-8198.2010.00358.x
- Springer, S. (2011). Articulated neoliberalism: The specificity of patronage, kleptocracy, and violence in Cambodia's neoliberalization. *Environment & Planning A*, 43(11), 2554–2570. doi:10.1068/a43402
- Springer, S. (2012). Neoliberalism as discourse: Between Foucauldian political economy and Marxian poststructuralism. *Critical Discourse Studies*, 9(2), 133–147. doi:10.1080/17405904.2012.656375
- Sriussadaporn, R. (2006). Managing international business communication problems at work: A pilot study in foreign companies in Thailand. *Cross Cultural Management*, 13(4), 330–344.

### **Compilation of References**

- Steinbrink, M. (2012). "We do the Slum?"-Urban poverty tourism in historical perspectives. *Tourism Geographies*, 14(2), 213–234. doi:10.1080/14616688.2012.633216
- Steyn, J. N., & Spencer, J. P. (2011). South African tourism: An historical evaluation of macro tourism policies. *African Journal of Physical, Health Education, and Dance*, 17(2), 178–200.
- Stiglitz, J. (2002). *Globalization and its Discontents*. Wiley.
- Stilz, A. (2009). *Liberal Loyalty: freedom, obligation & the state*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press. doi:10.1515/9781400830701
- Strauss, L. (1952). *Race et Histoire*. Paris, France: UNESCO.
- Suchacek, J. (2011). *Globalisation and Glocalisation*. Ostrava: University of Ostrava.
- Svensson, G. (2001). 'Glocalisation' of business activities: A 'glocal strategy' approach. *Management Decision*, 36(1), 6–18. doi:10.1108/EUM000000005403
- Swyngedouw, E. (1997b). Neither Global nor Local: 'Glocalisation' and the Politics of Scale. In R. K. Cox (Ed.), *Space of Globalisation, Reasserting the Power of the Local* (pp. 137-166). New York, NY: The Guilford Press.
- Swyngedouw, E. (1997a). Neither Global nor Local: 'Glocalisation' and the Politics of Scale. In R. Kevin Cox (Ed.), *A Critical Assessment, Space of Globalisation, Reasserting the Power of the Local* (pp. 115–136). New York, London: The Guilford Press.
- Swyngedouw, E. (2004). Globalisation or glocalisation? Networks, territories and rescaling. *Cambridge Review of International Affairs*, 17(1), 25–48. doi:10.1080/0955757042000203632
- Tayeb, M. H. (2000). *The management of international enterprises: a socio-political view*. MacMillan. doi:10.1057/9780230598591\_5
- Taylor, M. (2002). Success for whom? An historical-materialist critique of neoliberalism in Chile. *Historical Materialism*, 10(2), 45–75. doi:10.1163/156920602320318084
- The Economist. (2007, July 17). *The Forbidden Latte: Do American Brands face Trouble in China?* Retrieved from <http://www.economist.com/node/9498776>

The Nigeria Voice. (2018). *Tourism and Economic Diversification*. Retrieved from <https://www.thenigerianvoice.com/thread/59528/77605/1>

Theobald, W. (1994). *Global Tourism: The Next Decade*. Oxford, UK: Butterworth-Heinemann.

Thirkettle, A., & Korstanje, M. (2013). Creating a new epistemology for tourism and hospitality disciplines. *International Journal of Qualitative Research in Services*, 1(1), 13–34. doi:10.1504/IJQRS.2013.054342

Thompson, J., & Martin, F. (2005). *Strategic management: Awareness and change*. UK: Cengage Learning.

Thorsen, D. E. (2009). The Neoliberal Challenge: What is Neoliberalism? (Working paper 10). University of Oslo, Department of Political Science.

Torreros, L., & Castro, R. (2012) ¿Geografía turística o Geografía del turismo? La importancia del territorio. In A. López et al. (Eds.), *Lo glocal y el turismo. Nuevos paradigmas de interpretación* (pp. 54-72). Academia Mexicana de Investigación Turística Universidad de Guadalajara.

Torres, G. M. (n.d.). El alimento, la cocina étnica, la gastronomía nacional, elemento patrimonial y un referente de identidad cultural. *Scripta Ethnologica*, 16, 55-66. Retrieved from <http://www.redalyc.org/pdf/148/14802603.pdf>

Torres, R. (2003). Linkages between tourism and agriculture in Mexico. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 30(3), 546–566. doi:10.1016/S0160-7383(02)00103-2

Tribe, J., & Liburd, J. J. (2016). The tourism knowledge system. *Annals of Tourism Research*, 57, 44–61. doi:10.1016/j.annals.2015.11.011

Turner, L. W., & Reisinger, Y. (2001). Shopping satisfaction for domestic tourists. *Journal of Retailing and Consumer Services*, 8(1), 15–27. doi:10.1016/S0969-6989(00)00005-9

Twala, C. (2012). The Marikana Massacre: A historical overview of the labor unrest in the mining sector in South Africa. *Southern African Peace and Security Studies*, 1(2), 61–67.

Tzanelli, R. (2016). *Thanatourism and Cinematic Representations of Risk: Screening the End of Tourism* (Vol. 176). Abingdon, UK: Routledge.

### **Compilation of References**

UNCHE. (1972). Action Plan for the Human Environment. B.5. Development and Environment. United Nations Conference on the Human Environment A/CONF.48/14/Rev.1 - Stockholm, Sweden.

Unger, K., Garduño, R., & Ibarra, J. E. (2014). Especializaciones reveladas y ventajas competitivas en el Bajío mexicano. *EconoQuantum*, 11(2), 41-74. Retrieved from [http://www.scielo.org.mx/scielo.php?script=sci\\_arttext&pid=S1870-66222014000200002&lng=es&tlng=es](http://www.scielo.org.mx/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S1870-66222014000200002&lng=es&tlng=es)

United Nations Development Programme. (2011). Tourism and Poverty Reduction Strategies in the Integrated Framework for Least Developed Countries: A Discussion Paper. Retrieved from [www.undop.org/poverty](http://www.undop.org/poverty)

United Nations World Tourism Organisation. (2010). *Tourism and the Millennium Development Goals*. Madrid, Spain: United Nations World Tourism Travel World Organization.

United Nations World Tourism Organisation. (2013). *UNWTO Tourism Highlights* (2013 ed.). Madrid, Spain: United Nations World Tourism Travel World Organization.

United Nations. (1948, December 10). Universal Declaration of Human Rights, adopted by the UN on December 10, 1948 (A/RES/217). Retrieved from <http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/>

University of Sunderland (2004). *International Business Environment* [Masters of Business Administration].

UNWTO. (2018). UNWTO. Retrieved Feb 12, 2018, from <http://www2.unwto.org/>

Urry, J. (1999). Mobile cultures. Department of Sociology, Lancaster University. Retrieved from <http://www.comp.lancs.ac.uk/sociology/030ju.htm>

Urry, J. (1988). Cultural change and contemporary holiday-making. *Theory, Culture & Society*, 5(1), 35–55. doi:10.1177/026327688005001003

Urry, J. (1992). The Tourist Gaze and the environment. *Theory, Culture & Society*, 9(1), 1–26. doi:10.1177/026327692009003001

US Legal. (n.d.) Night watchman state law and legal definition. *US Legal*. Retrieved from <https://definitions.uslegal.com/n/night-watchman-state/>

- Van Niekerk, J. P. (2013). The health of mine(r)s. *South African Medical Journal*, 103(1), 3–4. doi:10.7196/SAMJ.6509 PMID:23346564
- Van Wouter, D. (1995). *Taking Nature Into Account: A Report to the Club of Rome Toward a Sustainable National Income*. New York, NY: Springer-Verlag, Inc.
- Van Zyl, G. (2015). Cape Town is Airbnb's top African market. Retrieved from <http://www.fin24.com/>
- Venugopal, R. (2015). Neoliberalism as concept. *Economy and Society*, 44(2), 165–187. doi:10.1080/03085147.2015.1013356
- Verstappen, H. (2009). Geography, sustainability and the concept of glocalisation. *International Institute for Geoinformation Science and Earth Observation*, 70, 106–113.
- Vetter, S. (2016). Uber, digital, and disruption: what's happening and why does it work. Retrieved from <https://digotal.pwc.co.nz/ideas/>
- Vizureanu, V. (2013). Some remarks concerning the concept of glocalisation. *Journal of Public Reason*, 5(1), 69–86.
- Wall, G., & Mathieson, A. (2006). *Tourism: Change, Impacts, and Opportunities*. Essex, UK: Pearson.
- Walltsten, S. (2015). The competitive effects of the sharing economy: How is Uber changing Taxi's. *Technology Policy Institute*. Retrieved from <http://www.techpolicyinstitute.org/>
- Walt, J. L. (2017). Neoliberalism and education: A reformational-pedagogical perspective (part 1). *Koers*, 82(1). Retrieved Jan 6, 2018, from [http://www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?script=sci\\_arttext&pid=S2304-85572017000100002](http://www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S2304-85572017000100002)
- Waltz, K. N. (2000). Structural realism after the Cold War. *International Security*, 25(1), 5–41. doi:10.1162/016228800560372
- Wearing, S., & McGehee, N. G. (2013). Volunteer tourism: A review. *Tourism Management*, 38, 120–130. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2013.03.002
- Wiesenthal, M. (2012). *Diccionario del Vino*. Barcelona, España: Editorial De Vecchi.

### **Compilation of References**

Williamson, J. (2004), *From the Washington Consensus towards a new Global Governance*.

Wittgenstein, L. (1963). *Philosophical Investigations* (G. E. M. Anscombe, Trans.). Oxford, UK: Basil Blackwell.

Wood, R. E. (2005). *Tourism and Globalisation (Liberate Studies Graduation Course, Spring 2005)*. Rutgers.

WTTC. (2017). Travel and Tourism - Economic Impact 2017 World. Retrieved Feb 14, 2018, from <https://www.wttc.org/-/media/files/reports/economic-impact-research/regions-2017/world2017.pdf>

Younge, G. (20014) Who's in control – nation states or global corporations. *The Guardian*. Retrieved from <https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2014/jun/02/control-nation-states-corporations-autonomy-neoliberalism>

Yuksel, A. (2004). Shopping experience evaluation: A case of domestic and international visitors. *Tourism Management*, 25(6), 751–759. doi:10.1016/j.tourman.2003.09.012

Zurita, R. M. (2012). *Diccionario Enciclopédico de la Gastronomía Mexicana*. México: Larousse.

## Related References

To continue our tradition of advancing information science and technology research, we have compiled a list of recommended IGI Global readings. These references will provide additional information and guidance to further enrich your knowledge and assist you with your own research and future publications.

Abtahi, M. S., Behboudi, L., & Hasanabad, H. M. (2017). Factors Affecting Internet Advertising Adoption in Ad Agencies. *International Journal of Innovation in the Digital Economy*, 8(4), 18–29. doi:10.4018/IJIDE.2017100102

Agrawal, S. (2017). The Impact of Emerging Technologies and Social Media on Different Business(es): Marketing and Management. In O. Rishi & A. Sharma (Eds.), *Maximizing Business Performance and Efficiency Through Intelligent Systems* (pp. 37–49). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2234-8.ch002

Alnoukari, M., Razouk, R., & Hanano, A. (2016). BSC-SI: A Framework for Integrating Strategic Intelligence in Corporate Strategic Management. *International Journal of Social and Organizational Dynamics in IT*, 5(2), 1–14. doi:10.4018/IJSODIT.2016070101

Alnoukari, M., Razouk, R., & Hanano, A. (2016). BSC-SI, A Framework for Integrating Strategic Intelligence in Corporate Strategic Management. *International Journal of Strategic Information Technology and Applications*, 7(1), 32–44. doi:10.4018/IJSITA.2016010103

Altındağ, E. (2016). Current Approaches in Change Management. In A. Goksoy (Ed.), *Organizational Change Management Strategies in Modern Business* (pp. 24–51). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9533-7.ch002

### **Related References**

- Alvarez-Dionisi, L. E., Turner, R., & Mitra, M. (2016). Global Project Management Trends. *International Journal of Information Technology Project Management*, 7(3), 54–73. doi:10.4018/IJITPM.2016070104
- Anantharaman, R. N., Rajeswari, K. S., Angusamy, A., & Kuppusamy, J. (2017). Role of Self-Efficacy and Collective Efficacy as Moderators of Occupational Stress Among Software Development Professionals. *International Journal of Human Capital and Information Technology Professionals*, 8(2), 45–58. doi:10.4018/IJHCITP.2017040103
- Aninze, F., El-Gohary, H., & Hussain, J. (2018). The Role of Microfinance to Empower Women: The Case of Developing Countries. *International Journal of Customer Relationship Marketing and Management*, 9(1), 54–78. doi:10.4018/IJCRMM.2018010104
- Arsenijević, O. M., Orčić, D., & Kastratović, E. (2017). Development of an Optimization Tool for Intangibles in SMEs: A Case Study from Serbia with a Pilot Research in the Prestige by Milka Company. In M. Vemić (Ed.), *Optimal Management Strategies in Small and Medium Enterprises* (pp. 320–347). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1949-2.ch015
- Aryanto, V. D., Wismantoro, Y., & Widyatmoko, K. (2018). Implementing Eco-Innovation by Utilizing the Internet to Enhance Firm's Marketing Performance: Study of Green Batik Small and Medium Enterprises in Indonesia. *International Journal of E-Business Research*, 14(1), 21–36. doi:10.4018/IJEBR.2018010102
- Atiku, S. O., & Fields, Z. (2017). Multicultural Orientations for 21st Century Global Leadership. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Management Education for Global Leadership* (pp. 28–51). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1013-0.ch002
- Atiku, S. O., & Fields, Z. (2018). Organisational Learning Dimensions and Talent Retention Strategies for the Service Industries. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Global Practices in Knowledge Management for Societal and Organizational Development* (pp. 358–381). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3009-1.ch017
- Ávila, L., & Teixeira, L. (2018). The Main Concepts Behind the Dematerialization of Business Processes. In M. Khosrow-Pour, D.B.A. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology*, Fourth Edition (pp. 888-898). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2255-3.ch076



- Bartens, Y., Chunpir, H. I., Schulte, F., & Voß, S. (2017). Business/IT Alignment in Two-Sided Markets: A COBIT 5 Analysis for Media Streaming Business Models. In S. De Haes & W. Van Grembergen (Eds.), *Strategic IT Governance and Alignment in Business Settings* (pp. 82–111). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0861-8.ch004
- Bashayreh, A. M. (2018). Organizational Culture and Organizational Performance. In W. Lee & F. Sabetzadeh (Eds.), *Contemporary Knowledge and Systems Science* (pp. 50–69). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-5655-8.ch003
- Bedford, D. A. (2018). Sustainable Knowledge Management Strategies: Aligning Business Capabilities and Knowledge Management Goals. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Global Practices in Knowledge Management for Societal and Organizational Development* (pp. 46–73). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3009-1.ch003
- Benmoussa, F., Nakara, W. A., & Jaouen, A. (2016). The Use of Social Media by SMEs in the Tourism Industry. In I. Lee (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of E-Commerce Development, Implementation, and Management* (pp. 2159–2170). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9787-4.ch155
- Berger, R. (2016). Indigenous Management and Bottom of Pyramid Countries: The Role of National Institutions. In U. Aung & P. Ordoñez de Pablos (Eds.), *Managerial Strategies and Practice in the Asian Business Sector* (pp. 107–123). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9758-4.ch007
- Bharwani, S., & Musunuri, D. (2018). Reflection as a Process From Theory to Practice. In M. Khosrow-Pour, D.B.A. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology, Fourth Edition* (pp. 1529-1539). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2255-3.ch132
- Bhatt, G. D., Wang, Z., & Rodger, J. A. (2017). Information Systems Capabilities and Their Effects on Competitive Advantages: A Study of Chinese Companies. *Information Resources Management Journal*, 30(3), 41–57. doi:10.4018/IRMJ.2017070103
- Bhushan, M., & Yadav, A. (2017). Concept of Cloud Computing in ESB. In R. Bhadoria, N. Chaudhari, G. Tomar, & S. Singh (Eds.), *Exploring Enterprise Service Bus in the Service-Oriented Architecture Paradigm* (pp. 116–127). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2157-0.ch008

### **Related References**

- Bhushan, S. (2017). System Dynamics Base-Model of Humanitarian Supply Chain (HSCM) in Disaster Prone Eco-Communities of India: A Discussion on Simulation and Scenario Results. *International Journal of System Dynamics Applications*, 6(3), 20–37. doi:10.4018/IJSDA.2017070102
- Biswas, A., & De, A. K. (2017). On Development of a Fuzzy Stochastic Programming Model with Its Application to Business Management. In S. Trivedi, S. Dey, A. Kumar, & T. Panda (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Advanced Data Mining Techniques and Applications for Business Intelligence* (pp. 353–378). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2031-3.ch021
- Bücker, J., & Ernste, K. (2018). Use of Brand Heroes in Strategic Reputation Management: The Case of Bacardi, Adidas, and Daimler. In A. Erdemir (Ed.), *Reputation Management Techniques in Public Relations* (pp. 126–150). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3619-2.ch007
- Bureš, V. (2018). Industry 4.0 From the Systems Engineering Perspective: Alternative Holistic Framework Development. In R. Brunet-Thornton & F. Martinez (Eds.), *Analyzing the Impacts of Industry 4.0 in Modern Business Environments* (pp. 199–223). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3468-6.ch011
- Buzady, Z. (2017). Resolving the Magic Cube of Effective Case Teaching: Benchmarking Case Teaching Practices in Emerging Markets – Insights from the Central European University Business School, Hungary. In D. Latusek (Ed.), *Case Studies as a Teaching Tool in Management Education* (pp. 79–103). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0770-3.ch005
- Campatelli, G., Richter, A., & Stocker, A. (2016). Participative Knowledge Management to Empower Manufacturing Workers. *International Journal of Knowledge Management*, 12(4), 37–50. doi:10.4018/IJKM.2016100103
- Căpusneanu, S., & Topor, D. I. (2018). Business Ethics and Cost Management in SMEs: Theories of Business Ethics and Cost Management Ethos. In I. Oncioiu (Ed.), *Ethics and Decision-Making for Sustainable Business Practices* (pp. 109–127). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3773-1.ch007
- Carneiro, A. (2016). Maturity in Health Organization Information Systems: Metrics and Privacy Perspectives. *International Journal of Privacy and Health Information Management*, 4(2), 1–18. doi:10.4018/IJPHIM.2016070101

Chan, R. L., Mo, P. L., & Moon, K. K. (2018). Strategic and Tactical Measures in Managing Enterprise Risks: A Study of the Textile and Apparel Industry. In K. Strang, M. Korstanje, & N. Vajjhala (Eds.), *Research, Practices, and Innovations in Global Risk and Contingency Management* (pp. 1–19). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-4754-9.ch001

Chandan, H. C. (2016). Motivations and Challenges of Female Entrepreneurship in Developed and Developing Economies. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Entrepreneurship in the Contemporary Knowledge-Based Global Economy* (pp. 260–286). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-8798-1.ch012

Charlier, S. D., Burke-Smalley, L. A., & Fisher, S. L. (2018). Undergraduate Programs in the U.S: A Contextual and Content-Based Analysis. In J. Mendy (Ed.), *Teaching Human Resources and Organizational Behavior at the College Level* (pp. 26–57). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2820-3.ch002

Chaudhuri, S. (2016). Application of Web-Based Geographical Information System (GIS) in E-Business. In U. Panwar, R. Kumar, & N. Ray (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Promotional Strategies and Consumer Influence in the Service Sector* (pp. 389–405). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0143-5.ch023

Choudhuri, P. S. (2016). An Empirical Study on the Quality of Services Offered by the Private Life Insurers in Burdwan. In U. Panwar, R. Kumar, & N. Ray (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Promotional Strategies and Consumer Influence in the Service Sector* (pp. 31–55). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0143-5.ch002

Dahlberg, T., Kivijärvi, H., & Saarinen, T. (2017). IT Investment Consistency and Other Factors Influencing the Success of IT Performance. In S. De Haes & W. Van Grembergen (Eds.), *Strategic IT Governance and Alignment in Business Settings* (pp. 176–208). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0861-8.ch007

Damnjanović, A. M. (2017). Knowledge Management Optimization through IT and E-Business Utilization: A Qualitative Study on Serbian SMEs. In M. Vemić (Ed.), *Optimal Management Strategies in Small and Medium Enterprises* (pp. 249–267). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1949-2.ch012

### **Related References**

Daneshpour, H. (2017). Integrating Sustainable Development into Project Portfolio Management through Application of Open Innovation. In M. Vemić (Ed.), *Optimal Management Strategies in Small and Medium Enterprises* (pp. 370–387). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1949-2.ch017

Daniel, A. D., & Reis de Castro, V. (2018). Entrepreneurship Education: How to Measure the Impact on Nascent Entrepreneurs. In A. Carrizo Moreira, J. Guilherme Leitão Dantas, & F. Manuel Valente (Eds.), *Nascent Entrepreneurship and Successful New Venture Creation* (pp. 85–110). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2936-1.ch004

David, F., van der Sijde, P., & van den Besselaar, P. (2016). Entrepreneurial Incentives, Obstacles, and Management in University-Business Co-Operation: The Case of Indonesia. In J. Saiz-Álvarez (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Social Entrepreneurship and Solidarity Economics* (pp. 499–518). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0097-1.ch024

David, R., Swami, B. N., & Tangirala, S. (2018). Ethics Impact on Knowledge Management in Organizational Development: A Case Study. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Global Practices in Knowledge Management for Societal and Organizational Development* (pp. 19–45). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3009-1.ch002

Delias, P., & Lakiotaki, K. (2018). Discovering Process Horizontal Boundaries to Facilitate Process Comprehension. *International Journal of Operations Research and Information Systems*, 9(2), 1–31. doi:10.4018/IJORIS.2018040101

Denholm, J., & Lee-Davies, L. (2018). Success Factors for Games in Business and Project Management. In *Enhancing Education and Training Initiatives Through Serious Games* (pp. 34–68). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3689-5.ch002

Deshpande, M. (2017). Best Practices in Management Institutions for Global Leadership: Policy Aspects. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Management Education for Global Leadership* (pp. 1–27). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1013-0.ch001

Deshpande, M. (2018). Policy Perspectives for SMEs Knowledge Management. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Knowledge Integration Strategies for Entrepreneurship and Sustainability* (pp. 23–46). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-5115-7.ch002

- Dezdar, S. (2017). ERP Implementation Projects in Asian Countries: A Comparative Study on Iran and China. *International Journal of Information Technology Project Management*, 8(3), 52–68. doi:10.4018/IJITPM.2017070104
- Domingos, D., Martinho, R., & Varajão, J. (2016). Controlled Flexibility in Healthcare Processes: A BPMN-Extension Approach. In M. Cruz-Cunha, I. Miranda, R. Martinho, & R. Rijo (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of E-Health and Telemedicine* (pp. 521–535). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9978-6.ch040
- Domingos, D., Respício, A., & Martinho, R. (2017). Reliability of IoT-Aware BPMN Healthcare Processes. In C. Reis & M. Maximiano (Eds.), *Internet of Things and Advanced Application in Healthcare* (pp. 214–248). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1820-4.ch008
- Dosumu, O., Hussain, J., & El-Gohary, H. (2017). An Exploratory Study of the Impact of Government Policies on the Development of Small and Medium Enterprises in Developing Countries: The Case of Nigeria. *International Journal of Customer Relationship Marketing and Management*, 8(4), 51–62. doi:10.4018/IJCRM.2017100104
- Durst, S., Bruns, G., & Edvardsson, I. R. (2017). Retaining Knowledge in Smaller Building and Construction Firms. *International Journal of Knowledge and Systems Science*, 8(3), 1–12. doi:10.4018/IJKSS.2017070101
- Edvardsson, I. R., & Durst, S. (2017). Outsourcing, Knowledge, and Learning: A Critical Review. *International Journal of Knowledge-Based Organizations*, 7(2), 13–26. doi:10.4018/IJKBO.2017040102
- Edwards, J. S. (2018). Integrating Knowledge Management and Business Processes. In M. Khosrow-Pour, D.B.A. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology*, Fourth Edition (pp. 5046-5055). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2255-3.ch437
- Ejiogu, A. O. (2018). Economics of Farm Management. In *Agricultural Finance and Opportunities for Investment and Expansion* (pp. 56–72). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3059-6.ch003
- Ekanem, I., & Abiade, G. E. (2018). Factors Influencing the Use of E-Commerce by Small Enterprises in Nigeria. *International Journal of ICT Research in Africa and the Middle East*, 7(1), 37–53. doi:10.4018/IJICTRAME.2018010103

### **Related References**

- Ekanem, I., & Alrossais, L. A. (2017). Succession Challenges Facing Family Businesses in Saudi Arabia. In P. Zgheib (Ed.), *Entrepreneurship and Business Innovation in the Middle East* (pp. 122–146). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2066-5.ch007
- El Faquih, L., & Fredj, M. (2017). Ontology-Based Framework for Quality in Configurable Process Models. *Journal of Electronic Commerce in Organizations*, 15(2), 48–60. doi:10.4018/JECO.2017040104
- El-Gohary, H., & El-Gohary, Z. (2016). An Attempt to Explore Electronic Marketing Adoption and Implementation Aspects in Developing Countries: The Case of Egypt. *International Journal of Customer Relationship Marketing and Management*, 7(4), 1–26. doi:10.4018/IJCRMM.2016100101
- Entico, G. J. (2016). Knowledge Management and the Medical Health Librarians: A Perception Study. In J. Yap, M. Perez, M. Ayson, & G. Entico (Eds.), *Special Library Administration, Standardization and Technological Integration* (pp. 52–77). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9542-9.ch003
- Faisal, M. N., & Talib, F. (2017). Building Ambidextrous Supply Chains in SMEs: How to Tackle the Barriers? *International Journal of Information Systems and Supply Chain Management*, 10(4), 80–100. doi:10.4018/IJISSCM.2017100105
- Fernandes, T. M., Gomes, J., & Romão, M. (2017). Investments in E-Government: A Benefit Management Case Study. *International Journal of Electronic Government Research*, 13(3), 1–17. doi:10.4018/IJEGR.2017070101
- Fouda, F. A. (2016). A Suggested Curriculum in Career Education to Develop Business Secondary Schools Students' Career Knowledge Management Domains and Professional Thinking. *International Journal of Technology Diffusion*, 7(2), 42–62. doi:10.4018/IJTD.2016040103
- Gallardo-Vázquez, D., & Pajuelo-Moreno, M. L. (2016). How Spanish Universities are Promoting Entrepreneurship through Your Own Lines of Teaching and Research? In L. Carvalho (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Entrepreneurial Success and its Impact on Regional Development* (pp. 431–454). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9567-2.ch019

Gao, S. S., Oreal, S., & Zhang, J. (2018). Contemporary Financial Risk Management Perceptions and Practices of Small-Sized Chinese Businesses. In I. Management Association (Ed.), *Global Business Expansion: Concepts, Methodologies, Tools, and Applications* (pp. 917-931). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-5481-3.ch041

Garg, R., & Berning, S. C. (2017). Indigenous Chinese Management Philosophies: Key Concepts and Relevance for Modern Chinese Firms. In B. Christiansen & G. Koc (Eds.), *Transcontinental Strategies for Industrial Development and Economic Growth* (pp. 43–57). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2160-0.ch003

Gencer, Y. G. (2017). Supply Chain Management in Retailing Business. In U. Akkucuk (Ed.), *Ethics and Sustainability in Global Supply Chain Management* (pp. 197–210). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2036-8.ch011

Giacosa, E. (2016). Innovation in Luxury Fashion Businesses as a Means for the Regional Development. In L. Carvalho (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Entrepreneurial Success and its Impact on Regional Development* (pp. 206–222). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9567-2.ch010

Giacosa, E. (2018). The Increasing of the Regional Development Thanks to the Luxury Business Innovation. In L. Carvalho (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Entrepreneurial Ecosystems and Social Dynamics in a Globalized World* (pp. 260–273). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3525-6.ch011

Gianni, M., & Gotzamani, K. (2016). Integrated Management Systems and Information Management Systems: Common Threads. In P. Papajorgji, F. Pinet, A. Guimarães, & J. Papathanasiou (Eds.), *Automated Enterprise Systems for Maximizing Business Performance* (pp. 195–214). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-8841-4.ch011

Gianni, M., Gotzamani, K., & Linden, I. (2016). How a BI-wise Responsible Integrated Management System May Support Food Traceability. *International Journal of Decision Support System Technology*, 8(2), 1–17. doi:10.4018/IJDSST.2016040101

Glykas, M., & George, J. (2017). Quality and Process Management Systems in the UAE Maritime Industry. *International Journal of Productivity Management and Assessment Technologies*, 5(1), 20–39. doi:10.4018/IJPMAT.2017010102

### **Related References**

Glykas, M., Valiris, G., Kokkinaki, A., & Koutsoukou, Z. (2018). Banking Business Process Management Implementation. *International Journal of Productivity Management and Assessment Technologies*, 6(1), 50–69. doi:10.4018/IJPMAT.2018010104

Gomes, J., & Romão, M. (2017). The Balanced Scorecard: Keeping Updated and Aligned with Today's Business Trends. *International Journal of Productivity Management and Assessment Technologies*, 5(2), 1–15. doi:10.4018/IJPMAT.2017070101

Gomes, J., & Romão, M. (2017). Aligning Information Systems and Technology with Benefit Management and Balanced Scorecard. In S. De Haes & W. Van Grembergen (Eds.), *Strategic IT Governance and Alignment in Business Settings* (pp. 112–131). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0861-8.ch005

Grefen, P., & Turetken, O. (2017). Advanced Business Process Management in Networked E-Business Scenarios. *International Journal of E-Business Research*, 13(4), 70–104. doi:10.4018/IJEER.2017100105

Haider, A., & Saetang, S. (2017). Strategic IT Alignment in Service Sector. In S. Rozenes & Y. Cohen (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Strategic Alliances and Value Co-Creation in the Service Industry* (pp. 231–258). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2084-9.ch012

Haider, A., & Tang, S. S. (2016). Maximising Value Through IT and Business Alignment: A Case of IT Governance Institutionalisation at a Thai Bank. *International Journal of Technology Diffusion*, 7(3), 33–58. doi:10.4018/IJTD.2016070104

Hajilari, A. B., Ghadaksaz, M., & Fasghandis, G. S. (2017). Assessing Organizational Readiness for Implementing ERP System Using Fuzzy Expert System Approach. *International Journal of Enterprise Information Systems*, 13(1), 67–85. doi:10.4018/IJEIS.2017010105

Haldorai, A., Ramu, A., & Murugan, S. (2018). Social Aware Cognitive Radio Networks: Effectiveness of Social Networks as a Strategic Tool for Organizational Business Management. In H. Bansal, G. Shrivastava, G. Nguyen, & L. Stanciu (Eds.), *Social Network Analytics for Contemporary Business Organizations* (pp. 188–202). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-5097-6.ch010

Hall, O. P. Jr. (2017). Social Media Driven Management Education. *International Journal of Knowledge-Based Organizations*, 7(2), 43–59. doi:10.4018/IJKBO.2017040104



Hanifah, H., Halim, H. A., Ahmad, N. H., & Vafaei-Zadeh, A. (2017). Innovation Culture as a Mediator Between Specific Human Capital and Innovation Performance Among Bumiputera SMEs in Malaysia. In N. Ahmad, T. Ramayah, H. Halim, & S. Rahman (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Small and Medium Enterprises in Developing Countries* (pp. 261–279). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2165-5.ch012

Hartlieb, S., & Silvius, G. (2017). Handling Uncertainty in Project Management and Business Development: Similarities and Differences. In Y. Raydugin (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Leveraging Risk and Uncertainties for Effective Project Management* (pp. 337–362). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1790-0.ch016

Hass, K. B. (2017). Living on the Edge: Managing Project Complexity. In Y. Raydugin (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Leveraging Risk and Uncertainties for Effective Project Management* (pp. 177–201). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1790-0.ch009

Hassan, A., & Privitera, D. S. (2016). Google AdSense as a Mobile Technology in Education. In J. Holland (Ed.), *Wearable Technology and Mobile Innovations for Next-Generation Education* (pp. 200–223). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0069-8.ch011

Hassan, A., & Rahimi, R. (2016). Consuming “Innovation” in Tourism: Augmented Reality as an Innovation Tool in Digital Tourism Marketing. In N. Pappas & I. Bregoli (Eds.), *Global Dynamics in Travel, Tourism, and Hospitality* (pp. 130–147). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0201-2.ch008

Hawking, P., & Carmine Sellitto, C. (2017). Developing an Effective Strategy for Organizational Business Intelligence. In M. Tavana (Ed.), *Enterprise Information Systems and the Digitalization of Business Functions* (pp. 222–237). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2382-6.ch010

Hawking, P., & Sellitto, C. (2017). A Fast-Moving Consumer Goods Company and Business Intelligence Strategy Development. *International Journal of Enterprise Information Systems*, 13(2), 22–33. doi:10.4018/IJEIS.2017040102

Hawking, P., & Sellitto, C. (2017). Business Intelligence Strategy: Two Case Studies. *International Journal of Business Intelligence Research*, 8(2), 17–30. doi:10.4018/IJBIR.2017070102

### **Related References**

Haynes, J. D., Arockiasamy, S., Al Rashdi, M., & Al Rashdi, S. (2016). Business and E Business Strategies for Coopetition and Thematic Management as a Sustained Basis for Ethics and Social Responsibility in Emerging Markets. In M. Al-Shammari & H. Masri (Eds.), *Ethical and Social Perspectives on Global Business Interaction in Emerging Markets* (pp. 25–39). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9864-2.ch002

Hee, W. J., Jalleh, G., Lai, H., & Lin, C. (2017). E-Commerce and IT Projects: Evaluation and Management Issues in Australian and Taiwanese Hospitals. *International Journal of Public Health Management and Ethics*, 2(1), 69–90. doi:10.4018/IJPHME.2017010104

Hernandez, A. A. (2018). Exploring the Factors to Green IT Adoption of SMEs in the Philippines. *Journal of Cases on Information Technology*, 20(2), 49–66. doi:10.4018/JCIT.2018040104

Hernandez, A. A., & Ona, S. E. (2016). Green IT Adoption: Lessons from the Philippines Business Process Outsourcing Industry. *International Journal of Social Ecology and Sustainable Development*, 7(1), 1–34. doi:10.4018/IJSESD.2016010101

Hollman, A., Bickford, S., & Hollman, T. (2017). Cyber InSecurity: A Post-Mortem Attempt to Assess Cyber Problems from IT and Business Management Perspectives. *Journal of Cases on Information Technology*, 19(3), 42–70. doi:10.4018/JCIT.2017070104

Igbinakhase, I. (2017). Responsible and Sustainable Management Practices in Developing and Developed Business Environments. In Z. Fields (Ed.), *Collective Creativity for Responsible and Sustainable Business Practice* (pp. 180–207). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1823-5.ch010

Ilahi, L., Ghannouchi, S. A., & Martinho, R. (2016). A Business Process Management Approach to Home Healthcare Processes: On the Gap between Intention and Reality. In M. Cruz-Cunha, I. Miranda, R. Martinho, & R. Rijo (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of E-Health and Telemedicine* (pp. 439–457). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9978-6.ch035

Iwata, J. J., & Hoskins, R. G. (2017). Managing Indigenous Knowledge in Tanzania: A Business Perspective. In P. Jain & N. Mnjama (Eds.), *Managing Knowledge Resources and Records in Modern Organizations* (pp. 198–214). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1965-2.ch012

Jabeen, F., Ahmad, S. Z., & Alkaabi, S. (2016). The Internationalization Decision-Making of United Arab Emirates Family Businesses. In N. Zakaria, A. Abdul-Talib, & N. Osman (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Impacts of International Business and Political Affairs on the Global Economy* (pp. 1–22). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9806-2.ch001

Jain, P. (2017). Ethical and Legal Issues in Knowledge Management Life-Cycle in Business. In P. Jain & N. Mnjama (Eds.), *Managing Knowledge Resources and Records in Modern Organizations* (pp. 82–101). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1965-2.ch006

Jamali, D., Abdallah, H., & Matar, F. (2016). Opportunities and Challenges for CSR Mainstreaming in Business Schools. *International Journal of Technology and Educational Marketing*, 6(2), 1–29. doi:10.4018/IJTEM.2016070101

James, S., & Hauli, E. (2017). Holistic Management Education at Tanzanian Rural Development Planning Institute. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Management Education for Global Leadership* (pp. 112–136). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1013-0.ch006

Janošková, M., Csikósová, A., & Čulková, K. (2018). Measurement of Company Performance as Part of Its Strategic Management. In R. Leon (Ed.), *Managerial Strategies for Business Sustainability During Turbulent Times* (pp. 309–335). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2716-9.ch017

Jean-Vasile, A., & Alecu, A. (2017). Theoretical and Practical Approaches in Understanding the Influences of Cost-Productivity-Profit Trinomial in Contemporary Enterprises. In A. Jean Vasile & D. Nicolò (Eds.), *Sustainable Entrepreneurship and Investments in the Green Economy* (pp. 28–62). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2075-7.ch002

Jha, D. G. (2016). Preparing for Information Technology Driven Changes. In S. Tiwari & L. Nafees (Eds.), *Innovative Management Education Pedagogies for Preparing Next-Generation Leaders* (pp. 258–274). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9691-4.ch015

Joia, L. A., & Correia, J. C. (2018). CIO Competencies From the IT Professional Perspective: Insights From Brazil. *Journal of Global Information Management*, 26(2), 74–103. doi:10.4018/JGIM.2018040104

### **Related References**

- Juma, A., & Mzera, N. (2017). Knowledge Management and Records Management and Competitive Advantage in Business. In P. Jain & N. Mnjama (Eds.), *Managing Knowledge Resources and Records in Modern Organizations* (pp. 15–28). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1965-2.ch002
- K., I., & A, V. (2018). Monitoring and Auditing in the Cloud. In K. Munir (Ed.), *Cloud Computing Technologies for Green Enterprises* (pp. 318-350). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3038-1.ch013
- Kabra, G., Ghosh, V., & Ramesh, A. (2018). Enterprise Integrated Business Process Management and Business Intelligence Framework for Business Process Sustainability. In A. Paul, D. Bhattacharyya, & S. Anand (Eds.), *Green Initiatives for Business Sustainability and Value Creation* (pp. 228–238). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2662-9.ch010
- Kaoud, M. (2017). Investigation of Customer Knowledge Management: A Case Study Research. *International Journal of Service Science, Management, Engineering, and Technology*, 8(2), 12–22. doi:10.4018/IJSSMET.2017040102
- Kara, M. E., & Firat, S. Ü. (2016). Sustainability, Risk, and Business Intelligence in Supply Chains. In M. Erdoğan, T. Arun, & I. Ahmad (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Green Economic Development Initiatives and Strategies* (pp. 501–538). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0440-5.ch022
- Katuu, S. (2018). A Comparative Assessment of Enterprise Content Management Maturity Models. In N. Gwangwava & M. Mutingi (Eds.), *E-Manufacturing and E-Service Strategies in Contemporary Organizations* (pp. 93–118). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3628-4.ch005
- Khan, M. A. (2016). MNEs Management Strategies in Developing Countries: Establishing the Context. In M. Khan (Ed.), *Multinational Enterprise Management Strategies in Developing Countries* (pp. 1–33). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0276-0.ch001
- Khan, M. A. (2016). Operational Approaches in Organizational Structure: A Case for MNEs in Developing Countries. In M. Khan (Ed.), *Multinational Enterprise Management Strategies in Developing Countries* (pp. 129–151). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0276-0.ch007

- Kinnunen, S., Ylä-Kujala, A., Marttonen-Arola, S., Kärri, T., & Baglee, D. (2018). Internet of Things in Asset Management: Insights from Industrial Professionals and Academia. *International Journal of Service Science, Management, Engineering, and Technology*, 9(2), 104–119. doi:10.4018/IJSSMET.2018040105
- Klein, A. Z., Sabino de Freitas, A., Machado, L., Freitas, J. C. Jr, Graziola, P. G. Jr, & Schlemmer, E. (2017). Virtual Worlds Applications for Management Education. In L. Tomei (Ed.), *Exploring the New Era of Technology-Infused Education* (pp. 279–299). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1709-2.ch017
- Kožuch, B., & Jabłoński, A. (2017). Adopting the Concept of Business Models in Public Management. In M. Lewandowski & B. Kożuch (Eds.), *Public Sector Entrepreneurship and the Integration of Innovative Business Models* (pp. 10–46). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2215-7.ch002
- Kumar, J., Adhikary, A., & Jha, A. (2017). Small Active Investors' Perceptions and Preferences Towards Tax Saving Mutual Fund Schemes in Eastern India: An Empirical Note. *International Journal of Asian Business and Information Management*, 8(2), 35–45. doi:10.4018/IJABIM.2017040103
- Lassoued, Y., Bouzguenda, L., & Mahmoud, T. (2016). Context-Aware Business Process Versions Management. *International Journal of e-Collaboration*, 12(3), 7–33. doi:10.4018/IJeC.2016070102
- Lavassani, K. M., & Movahedi, B. (2017). Applications Driven Information Systems: Beyond Networks toward Business Ecosystems. *International Journal of Innovation in the Digital Economy*, 8(1), 61–75. doi:10.4018/IJIDE.2017010104
- Lazzareschi, V. H., & Brito, M. S. (2017). Strategic Information Management: Proposal of Business Project Model. In G. Jamil, A. Soares, & C. Pessoa (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Information Management for Effective Logistics and Supply Chains* (pp. 59–88). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0973-8.ch004
- Lederer, M., Kurz, M., & Lazarov, P. (2017). Usage and Suitability of Methods for Strategic Business Process Initiatives: A Multi Case Study Research. *International Journal of Productivity Management and Assessment Technologies*, 5(1), 40–51. doi:10.4018/IJPMAT.2017010103

### **Related References**

- Lee, I. (2017). A Social Enterprise Business Model and a Case Study of Pacific Community Ventures (PCV). In V. Potocan, M. Ūnġan, & Z. Nedelko (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Managerial Solutions in Non-Profit Organizations* (pp. 182–204). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0731-4.ch009
- Lee, L. J., & Leu, J. (2016). Exploring the Effectiveness of IT Application and Value Method in the Innovation Performance of Enterprise. *International Journal of Enterprise Information Systems*, 12(2), 47–65. doi:10.4018/IJEIS.2016040104
- Lee, Y. (2016). Alignment Effect of Entrepreneurial Orientation and Marketing Orientation on Firm Performance. *International Journal of Customer Relationship Marketing and Management*, 7(4), 58–69. doi:10.4018/IJCRMM.2016100104
- Leon, L. A., Seal, K. C., Przasnyski, Z. H., & Wiedenman, I. (2017). Skills and Competencies Required for Jobs in Business Analytics: A Content Analysis of Job Advertisements Using Text Mining. *International Journal of Business Intelligence Research*, 8(1), 1–25. doi:10.4018/IJBIR.2017010101
- Leu, J., Lee, L. J., & Krischke, A. (2016). Value Engineering-Based Method for Implementing the ISO14001 System in the Green Supply Chains. *International Journal of Strategic Decision Sciences*, 7(4), 1–20. doi:10.4018/IJSDS.2016100101
- Levy, C. L., & Elias, N. I. (2017). SOHO Users' Perceptions of Reliability and Continuity of Cloud-Based Services. In M. Moore (Ed.), *Cybersecurity Breaches and Issues Surrounding Online Threat Protection* (pp. 248–287). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1941-6.ch011
- Levy, M. (2018). Change Management Serving Knowledge Management and Organizational Development: Reflections and Review. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Global Practices in Knowledge Management for Societal and Organizational Development* (pp. 256–270). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3009-1.ch012
- Lewandowski, M. (2017). Public Organizations and Business Model Innovation: The Role of Public Service Design. In M. Lewandowski & B. Kożuch (Eds.), *Public Sector Entrepreneurship and the Integration of Innovative Business Models* (pp. 47–72). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2215-7.ch003
- Lhannaoui, H., Kabbaj, M. I., & Bakkoury, Z. (2017). A Survey of Risk-Aware Business Process Modelling. *International Journal of Risk and Contingency Management*, 6(3), 14–26. doi:10.4018/IJRCM.2017070102

Li, J., Sun, W., Jiang, W., Yang, H., & Zhang, L. (2017). How the Nature of Exogenous Shocks and Crises Impact Company Performance?: The Effects of Industry Characteristics. *International Journal of Risk and Contingency Management*, 6(4), 40–55. doi:10.4018/IJRCM.2017100103

Lu, C., & Liu, S. (2016). Cultural Tourism O2O Business Model Innovation-A Case Study of CTrip. *Journal of Electronic Commerce in Organizations*, 14(2), 16–31. doi:10.4018/JECO.2016040102

Machen, B., Hosseini, M. R., Wood, A., & Bakhshi, J. (2016). An Investigation into using SAP-PS as a Multidimensional Project Control System (MPCS). *International Journal of Enterprise Information Systems*, 12(2), 66–81. doi:10.4018/IJEIS.2016040105

Malega, P. (2017). Small and Medium Enterprises in the Slovak Republic: Status and Competitiveness of SMEs in the Global Markets and Possibilities of Optimization. In M. Vemić (Ed.), *Optimal Management Strategies in Small and Medium Enterprises* (pp. 102–124). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1949-2.ch006

Malewska, K. M. (2017). Intuition in Decision-Making on the Example of a Non-Profit Organization. In V. Potocan, M. Üngan, & Z. Nedelko (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Managerial Solutions in Non-Profit Organizations* (pp. 378–399). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0731-4.ch018

Maroofi, F. (2017). Entrepreneurial Orientation and Organizational Learning Ability Analysis for Innovation and Firm Performance. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Innovation and Shifting Perspectives in Management Education* (pp. 144–165). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1019-2.ch007

Martins, P. V., & Zacarias, M. (2017). A Web-based Tool for Business Process Improvement. *International Journal of Web Portals*, 9(2), 68–84. doi:10.4018/IJWP.2017070104

Matthies, B., & Coners, A. (2017). Exploring the Conceptual Nature of e-Business Projects. *Journal of Electronic Commerce in Organizations*, 15(3), 33–63. doi:10.4018/JECO.2017070103

McKee, J. (2018). Architecture as a Tool to Solve Business Planning Problems. In M. Khosrow-Pour, D.B.A. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology*, Fourth Edition (pp. 573-586). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2255-3.ch050

### **Related References**

McMurray, A. J., Cross, J., & Caponecchia, C. (2018). The Risk Management Profession in Australia: Business Continuity Plan Practices. In N. Bajgoric (Ed.), *Always-On Enterprise Information Systems for Modern Organizations* (pp. 112–129). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3704-5.ch006

Meddah, I. H., & Belkadi, K. (2018). Mining Patterns Using Business Process Management. In R. Hamou (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Biomimicry in Information Retrieval and Knowledge Management* (pp. 78–89). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3004-6.ch005

Mendes, L. (2017). TQM and Knowledge Management: An Integrated Approach Towards Tacit Knowledge Management. In D. Jaziri-Bouagina & G. Jamil (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Tacit Knowledge Management for Organizational Success* (pp. 236–263). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2394-9.ch009

Mnjama, N. M. (2017). Preservation of Recorded Information in Public and Private Sector Organizations. In P. Jain & N. Mnjama (Eds.), *Managing Knowledge Resources and Records in Modern Organizations* (pp. 149–167). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1965-2.ch009

Mokoqama, M., & Fields, Z. (2017). Principles of Responsible Management Education (PRME): Call for Responsible Management Education. In Z. Fields (Ed.), *Collective Creativity for Responsible and Sustainable Business Practice* (pp. 229–241). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1823-5.ch012

Muniapan, B. (2017). Philosophy and Management: The Relevance of Vedanta in Management. In P. Ordóñez de Pablos (Ed.), *Managerial Strategies and Solutions for Business Success in Asia* (pp. 124–139). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1886-0.ch007

Muniapan, B., Gregory, M. L., & Ling, L. A. (2016). Marketing Education in Sarawak: Looking at It from the Employers' Viewpoint. In B. Smith & A. Porath (Eds.), *Global Perspectives on Contemporary Marketing Education* (pp. 112–130). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9784-3.ch008

Murad, S. E., & Dowaji, S. (2017). Using Value-Based Approach for Managing Cloud-Based Services. In A. Turuk, B. Sahoo, & S. Addya (Eds.), *Resource Management and Efficiency in Cloud Computing Environments* (pp. 33–60). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1721-4.ch002



Mutahar, A. M., Daud, N. M., Thurasamy, R., Isaac, O., & Abdulsalam, R. (2018). The Mediating of Perceived Usefulness and Perceived Ease of Use: The Case of Mobile Banking in Yemen. *International Journal of Technology Diffusion*, 9(2), 21–40. doi:10.4018/IJTD.2018040102

Naidoo, V. (2017). E-Learning and Management Education at African Universities. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Management Education for Global Leadership* (pp. 181–201). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1013-0.ch009

Naidoo, V., & Igbinakhase, I. (2018). Opportunities and Challenges of Knowledge Retention in SMEs. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Knowledge Integration Strategies for Entrepreneurship and Sustainability* (pp. 70–94). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-5115-7.ch004

Nayak, S., & Prabhu, N. (2017). Paradigm Shift in Management Education: Need for a Cross Functional Perspective. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Management Education for Global Leadership* (pp. 241–255). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1013-0.ch012

Ndede-Amadi, A. A. (2016). Student Interest in the IS Specialization as Predictor of the Success Potential of New Information Systems Programmes within the Schools of Business in Kenyan Public Universities. *International Journal of Information Systems and Social Change*, 7(2), 63–79. doi:10.4018/IJISSC.2016040104

Nedelko, Z., & Potocan, V. (2016). Management Practices for Processes Optimization: Case of Slovenia. In G. Alor-Hernández, C. Sánchez-Ramírez, & J. García-Alcaraz (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Managerial Strategies for Achieving Optimal Performance in Industrial Processes* (pp. 545–561). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0130-5.ch025

Nedelko, Z., & Potocan, V. (2017). Management Solutions in Non-Profit Organizations: Case of Slovenia. In V. Potocan, M. Üngan, & Z. Nedelko (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Managerial Solutions in Non-Profit Organizations* (pp. 1–22). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0731-4.ch001

Nedelko, Z., & Potocan, V. (2017). Priority of Management Tools Utilization among Managers: International Comparison. In V. Wang (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Strategic Leadership and Management* (pp. 1083–1094). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1049-9.ch075

### **Related References**

- Nedelko, Z., Raudeliūnienė, J., & Črešnar, R. (2018). Knowledge Dynamics in Supply Chain Management. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Knowledge Integration Strategies for Entrepreneurship and Sustainability* (pp. 150–166). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-5115-7.ch008
- Nguyen, H. T., & Hipsher, S. A. (2018). Innovation and Creativity Used by Private Sector Firms in a Resources-Constrained Environment. In S. Hipsher (Ed.), *Examining the Private Sector's Role in Wealth Creation and Poverty Reduction* (pp. 219–238). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3117-3.ch010
- Nycz, M., & Pólkowski, Z. (2016). Business Intelligence as a Modern IT Supporting Management of Local Government Units in Poland. *International Journal of Knowledge and Systems Science*, 7(4), 1–18. doi:10.4018/IJKSS.2016100101
- Obaji, N. O., Senin, A. A., & Olugu, M. U. (2016). Supportive Government Policy as a Mechanism for Business Incubation Performance in Nigeria. *International Journal of Information Systems and Social Change*, 7(4), 52–66. doi:10.4018/IJISSC.2016100103
- Obicci, P. A. (2017). Risk Sharing in a Partnership. In *Risk Management Strategies in Public-Private Partnerships* (pp. 115–152). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2503-5.ch004
- Obidallah, W. J., & Raahemi, B. (2017). Managing Changes in Service Oriented Virtual Organizations: A Structural and Procedural Framework to Facilitate the Process of Change. *Journal of Electronic Commerce in Organizations*, 15(1), 59–83. doi:10.4018/JECO.2017010104
- Ojasalo, J., & Ojasalo, K. (2016). Service Logic Business Model Canvas for Lean Development of SMEs and Start-Ups. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Entrepreneurship in the Contemporary Knowledge-Based Global Economy* (pp. 217–243). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-8798-1.ch010
- Ojo, O. (2017). Impact of Innovation on the Entrepreneurial Success in Selected Business Enterprises in South-West Nigeria. *International Journal of Innovation in the Digital Economy*, 8(2), 29–38. doi:10.4018/IJIDE.2017040103
- Okdinawati, L., Simatupang, T. M., & Sunitiyoso, Y. (2017). Multi-Agent Reinforcement Learning for Value Co-Creation of Collaborative Transportation Management (CTM). *International Journal of Information Systems and Supply Chain Management*, 10(3), 84–95. doi:10.4018/IJISSCM.2017070105

Ortner, E., Mevius, M., Wiedmann, P., & Kurz, F. (2016). Design of Interactional Decision Support Applications for E-Participation in Smart Cities. *International Journal of Electronic Government Research*, 12(2), 18–38. doi:10.4018/IJEGR.2016040102

Pal, K. (2018). Building High Quality Big Data-Based Applications in Supply Chains. In A. Kumar & S. Saurav (Eds.), *Supply Chain Management Strategies and Risk Assessment in Retail Environments* (pp. 1–24). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3056-5.ch001

Palos-Sanchez, P. R., & Correia, M. B. (2018). Perspectives of the Adoption of Cloud Computing in the Tourism Sector. In J. Rodrigues, C. Ramos, P. Cardoso, & C. Henriques (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Technological Developments for Cultural Heritage and eTourism Applications* (pp. 377–400). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2927-9.ch018

Parry, V. K., & Lind, M. L. (2016). Alignment of Business Strategy and Information Technology Considering Information Technology Governance, Project Portfolio Control, and Risk Management. *International Journal of Information Technology Project Management*, 7(4), 21–37. doi:10.4018/IJITPM.2016100102

Pashkova, N., Trujillo-Barrera, A., Apostolakis, G., Van Dijk, G., Drakos, P. D., & Baourakis, G. (2016). Business Management Models of Microfinance Institutions (MFIs) in Africa: A Study into Their Enabling Environments. *International Journal of Food and Beverage Manufacturing and Business Models*, 1(2), 63–82. doi:10.4018/IJFBMBM.2016070105

Patiño, B. E. (2017). New Generation Management by Convergence and Individual Identity: A Systemic and Human-Oriented Approach. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Innovation and Shifting Perspectives in Management Education* (pp. 119–143). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1019-2.ch006

Pawliczek, A., & Rössler, M. (2017). Knowledge of Management Tools and Systems in SMEs: Knowledge Transfer in Management. In A. Bencsik (Ed.), *Knowledge Management Initiatives and Strategies in Small and Medium Enterprises* (pp. 180–203). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1642-2.ch009

Pejic-Bach, M., Omazic, M. A., Aleksic, A., & Zoroja, J. (2018). Knowledge-Based Decision Making: A Multi-Case Analysis. In R. Leon (Ed.), *Managerial Strategies for Business Sustainability During Turbulent Times* (pp. 160–184). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2716-9.ch009

### **Related References**

- Perano, M., Hysa, X., & Calabrese, M. (2018). Strategic Planning, Cultural Context, and Business Continuity Management: Business Cases in the City of Shkoder. In A. Presenza & L. Sheehan (Eds.), *Geopolitics and Strategic Management in the Global Economy* (pp. 57–77). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2673-5.ch004
- Pereira, R., Mira da Silva, M., & Lapão, L. V. (2017). IT Governance Maturity Patterns in Portuguese Healthcare. In S. De Haes & W. Van Grembergen (Eds.), *Strategic IT Governance and Alignment in Business Settings* (pp. 24–52). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0861-8.ch002
- Perez-Uribe, R., & Ocampo-Guzman, D. (2016). Conflict within Colombian Family Owned SMEs: An Explosive Blend between Feelings and Business. In J. Saiz-Álvarez (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Social Entrepreneurship and Solidarity Economics* (pp. 329–354). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0097-1.ch017
- Pérez-Uribe, R. I., Torres, D. A., Jurado, S. P., & Prada, D. M. (2018). Cloud Tools for the Development of Project Management in SMEs. In R. Perez-Uribe, C. Salcedo-Perez, & D. Ocampo-Guzman (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Intrapreneurship and Organizational Sustainability in SMEs* (pp. 95–120). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3543-0.ch005
- Petrisor, I., & Cozmiuc, D. (2017). Global Supply Chain Management Organization at Siemens in the Advent of Industry 4.0. In L. Saglietto & C. Cezanne (Eds.), *Global Intermediation and Logistics Service Providers* (pp. 123–142). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2133-4.ch007
- Pierce, J. M., Velliari, D. M., & Edwards, J. (2017). A Living Case Study: A Journey Not a Destination. In N. Sifton (Ed.), *Exploring the Benefits of Creativity in Education, Media, and the Arts* (pp. 158–178). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0504-4.ch008
- Radosavljevic, M., & Andjelkovic, A. (2017). Multi-Criteria Decision Making Approach for Choosing Business Process for the Improvement: Upgrading of the Six Sigma Methodology. In J. Stanković, P. Delias, S. Marinković, & S. Rochhia (Eds.), *Tools and Techniques for Economic Decision Analysis* (pp. 225–247). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0959-2.ch011
- Radovic, V. M. (2017). Corporate Sustainability and Responsibility and Disaster Risk Reduction: A Serbian Overview. In M. Camilleri (Ed.), *CSR 2.0 and the New Era of Corporate Citizenship* (pp. 147–164). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1842-6.ch008

Raghunath, K. M., Devi, S. L., & Patro, C. S. (2018). Impact of Risk Assessment Models on Risk Factors: A Holistic Outlook. In K. Strang, M. Korstanje, & N. Vajjhala (Eds.), *Research, Practices, and Innovations in Global Risk and Contingency Management* (pp. 134–153). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-4754-9.ch008

Raman, A., & Goyal, D. P. (2017). Extending IMPLEMENT Framework for Enterprise Information Systems Implementation to Information System Innovation. In M. Tavana (Ed.), *Enterprise Information Systems and the Digitalization of Business Functions* (pp. 137–177). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2382-6.ch007

Rao, Y., & Zhang, Y. (2017). The Construction and Development of Academic Library Digital Special Subject Databases. In L. Ruan, Q. Zhu, & Y. Ye (Eds.), *Academic Library Development and Administration in China* (pp. 163–183). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0550-1.ch010

Ravasan, A. Z., Mohammadi, M. M., & Hamidi, H. (2018). An Investigation Into the Critical Success Factors of Implementing Information Technology Service Management Frameworks. In K. Jakobs (Ed.), *Corporate and Global Standardization Initiatives in Contemporary Society* (pp. 200–218). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-5320-5.ch009

Renna, P., Izzo, C., & Romaniello, T. (2016). The Business Process Management Systems to Support Continuous Improvements. In W. Nuninger & J. Châtelet (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Quality Assurance and Value Management in Higher Education* (pp. 237–256). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0024-7.ch009

Rezaie, S., Mirabedini, S. J., & Abtahi, A. (2018). Designing a Model for Implementation of Business Intelligence in the Banking Industry. *International Journal of Enterprise Information Systems*, 14(1), 77–103. doi:10.4018/IJEIS.2018010105

Riccò, R. (2016). Diversity Management: Bringing Equality, Equity, and Inclusion in the Workplace. In J. Prescott (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Race, Gender, and the Fight for Equality* (pp. 335–359). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0047-6.ch015

Romano, L., Grimaldi, R., & Colasuonno, F. S. (2017). Demand Management as a Success Factor in Project Portfolio Management. In L. Romano (Ed.), *Project Portfolio Management Strategies for Effective Organizational Operations* (pp. 202–219). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2151-8.ch008

### **Related References**

Rostek, K. B. (2016). Risk Management: Role and Importance in Business Organization. In D. Jakóbczak (Ed.), *Analyzing Risk through Probabilistic Modeling in Operations Research* (pp. 149–178). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9458-3.ch007

Rouhani, S., & Savoji, S. R. (2016). A Success Assessment Model for BI Tools Implementation: An Empirical Study of Banking Industry. *International Journal of Business Intelligence Research*, 7(1), 25–44. doi:10.4018/IJBIR.2016010103

Ruan, Z. (2016). A Corpus-Based Functional Analysis of Complex Nominal Groups in Written Business Discourse: The Case of “Business”. *International Journal of Computer-Assisted Language Learning and Teaching*, 6(2), 74–90. doi:10.4018/IJCALLT.2016040105

Ruhi, U. (2018). Towards an Interdisciplinary Socio-Technical Definition of Virtual Communities. In M. Khosrow-Pour, D.B.A. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology*, Fourth Edition (pp. 4278-4295). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2255-3.ch371

Ryan, J., Doster, B., Daily, S., & Lewis, C. (2016). A Case Study Perspective for Balanced Perioperative Workflow Achievement through Data-Driven Process Improvement. *International Journal of Healthcare Information Systems and Informatics*, 11(3), 19–41. doi:10.4018/IJHISI.2016070102

Safari, M. R., & Jiang, Q. (2018). The Theory and Practice of IT Governance Maturity and Strategies Alignment: Evidence From Banking Industry. *Journal of Global Information Management*, 26(2), 127–146. doi:10.4018/JGIM.2018040106

Sahoo, J., Pati, B., & Mohanty, B. (2017). Knowledge Management as an Academic Discipline: An Assessment. In B. Gunjal (Ed.), *Managing Knowledge and Scholarly Assets in Academic Libraries* (pp. 99–126). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1741-2.ch005

Saini, D. (2017). Relevance of Teaching Values and Ethics in Management Education. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Management Education for Global Leadership* (pp. 90–111). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1013-0.ch005

Sambhanthan, A. (2017). Assessing and Benchmarking Sustainability in Organisations: An Integrated Conceptual Model. *International Journal of Systems and Service-Oriented Engineering*, 7(4), 22–43. doi:10.4018/IJSSOE.2017100102

- Sambhanthan, A., & Potdar, V. (2017). A Study of the Parameters Impacting Sustainability in Information Technology Organizations. *International Journal of Knowledge-Based Organizations*, 7(3), 27–39. doi:10.4018/IJKBO.2017070103
- Sánchez-Fernández, M. D., & Manríquez, M. R. (2018). The Entrepreneurial Spirit Based on Social Values: The Digital Generation. In P. Isaias & L. Carvalho (Eds.), *User Innovation and the Entrepreneurship Phenomenon in the Digital Economy* (pp. 173–193). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2826-5.ch009
- Sanchez-Ruiz, L., & Blanco, B. (2017). Process Management for SMEs: Barriers, Enablers, and Benefits. In M. Vemić (Ed.), *Optimal Management Strategies in Small and Medium Enterprises* (pp. 293–319). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1949-2.ch014
- Sanz, L. F., Gómez-Pérez, J., & Castillo-Martinez, A. (2018). Analysis of the European ICT Competence Frameworks. In V. Ahuja & S. Rathore (Eds.), *Multidisciplinary Perspectives on Human Capital and Information Technology Professionals* (pp. 225–245). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-5297-0.ch012
- Sarvepalli, A., & Godin, J. (2017). Business Process Management in the Classroom. *Journal of Cases on Information Technology*, 19(2), 17–28. doi:10.4018/JCIT.2017040102
- Satpathy, B., & Muniapan, B. (2016). Ancient Wisdom for Transformational Leadership and Its Insights from the Bhagavad-Gita. In U. Aung & P. Ordoñez de Pablos (Eds.), *Managerial Strategies and Practice in the Asian Business Sector* (pp. 1–10). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9758-4.ch001
- Saygili, E. E., Ozturkoglu, Y., & Kocakulah, M. C. (2017). End Users' Perceptions of Critical Success Factors in ERP Applications. *International Journal of Enterprise Information Systems*, 13(4), 58–75. doi:10.4018/IJEIS.2017100104
- Saygili, E. E., & Saygili, A. T. (2017). Contemporary Issues in Enterprise Information Systems: A Critical Review of CSFs in ERP Implementations. In M. Tavana (Ed.), *Enterprise Information Systems and the Digitalization of Business Functions* (pp. 120–136). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2382-6.ch006
- Seidenstricker, S., & Antonino, A. (2018). Business Model Innovation-Oriented Technology Management for Emergent Technologies. In M. Khosrow-Pour, D.B.A. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology*, Fourth Edition (pp. 4560-4569). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2255-3.ch396

### **Related References**

Senaratne, S., & Gunarathne, A. D. (2017). Excellence Perspective for Management Education from a Global Accountants' Hub in Asia. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Management Education for Global Leadership* (pp. 158–180). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1013-0.ch008

Sensuse, D. I., & Cahyaningsih, E. (2018). Knowledge Management Models: A Summative Review. *International Journal of Information Systems in the Service Sector*, 10(1), 71–100. doi:10.4018/IJISSS.2018010105

Sensuse, D. I., Wibowo, W. C., & Cahyaningsih, E. (2016). Indonesian Government Knowledge Management Model: A Theoretical Model. *Information Resources Management Journal*, 29(1), 91–108. doi:10.4018/irmj.2016010106

Seth, M., Goyal, D., & Kiran, R. (2017). Diminution of Impediments in Implementation of Supply Chain Management Information System for Enhancing its Effectiveness in Indian Automobile Industry. *Journal of Global Information Management*, 25(3), 1–20. doi:10.4018/JGIM.2017070101

Seyal, A. H., & Rahman, M. N. (2017). Investigating Impact of Inter-Organizational Factors in Measuring ERP Systems Success: Bruneian Perspectives. In M. Tavana (Ed.), *Enterprise Information Systems and the Digitalization of Business Functions* (pp. 178–204). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2382-6.ch008

Shaikh, A. A., & Karjaluo, H. (2016). On Some Misconceptions Concerning Digital Banking and Alternative Delivery Channels. *International Journal of E-Business Research*, 12(3), 1–16. doi:10.4018/IJEER.2016070101

Shams, S. M. (2016). Stakeholder Relationship Management in Online Business and Competitive Value Propositions: Evidence from the Sports Industry. *International Journal of Online Marketing*, 6(2), 1–17. doi:10.4018/IJOM.2016040101

Shamsuzzoha, A. (2016). Management of Risk and Resilience within Collaborative Business Network. In R. Addo-Tenkorang, J. Kantola, P. Helo, & A. Shamsuzzoha (Eds.), *Supply Chain Strategies and the Engineer-to-Order Approach* (pp. 143–159). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0021-6.ch008

Shaqrah, A. A. (2018). Analyzing Business Intelligence Systems Based on 7s Model of McKinsey. *International Journal of Business Intelligence Research*, 9(1), 53–63. doi:10.4018/IJBIR.2018010104



Sharma, A. J. (2017). Enhancing Sustainability through Experiential Learning in Management Education. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Management Education for Global Leadership* (pp. 256–274). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1013-0.ch013

Shetty, K. P. (2017). Responsible Global Leadership: Ethical Challenges in Management Education. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Innovation and Shifting Perspectives in Management Education* (pp. 194–223). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1019-2.ch009

Sinthupundaja, J., & Kohda, Y. (2017). Effects of Corporate Social Responsibility and Creating Shared Value on Sustainability. *International Journal of Sustainable Entrepreneurship and Corporate Social Responsibility*, 2(1), 27–38. doi:10.4018/IJSECSR.2017010103

Škarica, I., & Hrgović, A. V. (2018). Implementation of Total Quality Management Principles in Public Health Institutes in the Republic of Croatia. *International Journal of Productivity Management and Assessment Technologies*, 6(1), 1–16. doi:10.4018/IJPMAT.2018010101

Smuts, H., Kotzé, P., Van der Merwe, A., & Loock, M. (2017). Framework for Managing Shared Knowledge in an Information Systems Outsourcing Context. *International Journal of Knowledge Management*, 13(4), 1–30. doi:10.4018/IJKM.2017100101

Soares, E. R., & Zaidan, F. H. (2016). Information Architecture and Business Modeling in Modern Organizations of Information Technology: Professional Career Plan in Organizations IT. In G. Jamil, J. Poças Rascão, F. Ribeiro, & A. Malheiro da Silva (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Information Architecture and Management in Modern Organizations* (pp. 439–457). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-8637-3.ch020

Sousa, M. J., Cruz, R., Dias, I., & Caracol, C. (2017). Information Management Systems in the Supply Chain. In G. Jamil, A. Soares, & C. Pessoa (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Information Management for Effective Logistics and Supply Chains* (pp. 469–485). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0973-8.ch025

### **Related References**

Spremic, M., Turulja, L., & Bajgoric, N. (2018). Two Approaches in Assessing Business Continuity Management Attitudes in the Organizational Context. In N. Bajgoric (Ed.), *Always-On Enterprise Information Systems for Modern Organizations* (pp. 159–183). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3704-5.ch008

Steenkamp, A. L. (2018). Some Insights in Computer Science and Information Technology. In *Examining the Changing Role of Supervision in Doctoral Research Projects: Emerging Research and Opportunities* (pp. 113–133). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2610-0.ch005

Studdard, N., Dawson, M., Burton, S. L., Jackson, N., Leonard, B., Quisenberry, W., & Rahim, E. (2016). Nurturing Social Entrepreneurship and Building Social Entrepreneurial Self-Efficacy: Focusing on Primary and Secondary Schooling to Develop Future Social Entrepreneurs. In Z. Fields (Ed.), *Incorporating Business Models and Strategies into Social Entrepreneurship* (pp. 154–175). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-8748-6.ch010

Sun, Z. (2016). A Framework for Developing Management Intelligent Systems. *International Journal of Systems and Service-Oriented Engineering*, 6(1), 37–53. doi:10.4018/IJSSOE.2016010103

Swami, B., & Mphele, G. T. (2016). Problems Preventing Growth of Small Entrepreneurs: A Case Study of a Few Small Entrepreneurs in Botswana Sub-Urban Areas. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Entrepreneurship in the Contemporary Knowledge-Based Global Economy* (pp. 479–508). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-8798-1.ch020

Tabach, A., & Croteau, A. (2017). Configurations of Information Technology Governance Practices and Business Unit Performance. *International Journal of IT/Business Alignment and Governance*, 8(2), 1–27. doi:10.4018/IJITBAG.2017070101

Taluae, G. M., & Iqbal, T. (2017). Assessment of e-Business Mode of Selected Private Universities in the Philippines and Pakistan. *International Journal of Online Marketing*, 7(4), 63–77. doi:10.4018/IJOM.2017100105

Tam, G. C. (2017). Project Manager Sustainability Competence. In *Managerial Strategies and Green Solutions for Project Sustainability* (pp. 178–207). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2371-0.ch008

Tambo, T. (2018). Fashion Retail Innovation: About Context, Antecedents, and Outcome in Technological Change Projects. In I. Management Association (Ed.), *Fashion and Textiles: Breakthroughs in Research and Practice* (pp. 233-260). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3432-7.ch010

Tambo, T., & Mikkelsen, O. E. (2016). Fashion Supply Chain Optimization: Linking Make-to-Order Purchasing and B2B E-Commerce. In S. Joshi & R. Joshi (Eds.), *Designing and Implementing Global Supply Chain Management* (pp. 1–21). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9720-1.ch001

Tandon, K. (2016). Innovative Andragogy: The Paradigm Shift to Heutagogy. In S. Tiwari & L. Nafees (Eds.), *Innovative Management Education Pedagogies for Preparing Next-Generation Leaders* (pp. 238–257). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9691-4.ch014

Tantau, A. D., & Frățilă, L. C. (2018). Information and Management System for Renewable Energy Business. In *Entrepreneurship and Business Development in the Renewable Energy Sector* (pp. 200–244). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3625-3.ch006

Teixeira, N., Pardal, P. N., & Rafael, B. G. (2018). Internationalization, Financial Performance, and Organizational Challenges: A Success Case in Portugal. In L. Carvalho (Ed.), *Handbook of Research on Entrepreneurial Ecosystems and Social Dynamics in a Globalized World* (pp. 379–423). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3525-6.ch017

Trad, A., & Kalpić, D. (2016). The E-Business Transformation Framework for E-Commerce Architecture-Modeling Projects. In I. Lee (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of E-Commerce Development, Implementation, and Management* (pp. 733–753). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9787-4.ch052

Trad, A., & Kalpić, D. (2016). The E-Business Transformation Framework for E-Commerce Control and Monitoring Pattern. In I. Lee (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of E-Commerce Development, Implementation, and Management* (pp. 754–777). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9787-4.ch053

Trad, A., & Kalpić, D. (2018). The Business Transformation Framework, Agile Project and Change Management. In M. Khosrow-Pour, D.B.A. (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Information Science and Technology, Fourth Edition* (pp. 620-635). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2255-3.ch054

### **Related References**

Trad, A., & Kalpić, D. (2018). The Business Transformation and Enterprise Architecture Framework: The Financial Engineering E-Risk Management and E-Law Integration. In B. Sergi, F. Fidanoski, M. Ziolo, & V. Naumovski (Eds.), *Regaining Global Stability After the Financial Crisis* (pp. 46–65). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-4026-7.ch003

Turulja, L., & Bajgoric, N. (2018). Business Continuity and Information Systems: A Systematic Literature Review. In N. Bajgoric (Ed.), *Always-On Enterprise Information Systems for Modern Organizations* (pp. 60–87). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3704-5.ch004

van Wessel, R. M., de Vries, H. J., & Ribbers, P. M. (2016). Business Benefits through Company IT Standardization. In K. Jakobs (Ed.), *Effective Standardization Management in Corporate Settings* (pp. 34–53). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9737-9.ch003

Vargas-Hernández, J. G. (2017). Professional Integrity in Business Management Education. In N. Baporikar (Ed.), *Management Education for Global Leadership* (pp. 70–89). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1013-0.ch004

Vasista, T. G., & AlAbdullatif, A. M. (2017). Role of Electronic Customer Relationship Management in Demand Chain Management: A Predictive Analytic Approach. *International Journal of Information Systems and Supply Chain Management*, 10(1), 53–67. doi:10.4018/IJISSCM.2017010104

Vergidis, K. (2016). Rediscovering Business Processes: Definitions, Patterns, and Modelling Approaches. In P. Papajorgji, F. Pinet, A. Guimarães, & J. Papathanasiou (Eds.), *Automated Enterprise Systems for Maximizing Business Performance* (pp. 97–122). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-8841-4.ch007

Vieru, D., & Bourdeau, S. (2017). Survival in the Digital Era: A Digital Competence-Based Multi-Case Study in the Canadian SME Clothing Industry. *International Journal of Social and Organizational Dynamics in IT*, 6(1), 17–34. doi:10.4018/IJSODIT.2017010102

Vijayan, G., & Kamarulzaman, N. H. (2017). An Introduction to Sustainable Supply Chain Management and Business Implications. In M. Khan, M. Hussain, & M. Ajmal (Eds.), *Green Supply Chain Management for Sustainable Business Practice* (pp. 27–50). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0635-5.ch002

- Vlachvei, A., & Notta, O. (2017). Firm Competitiveness: Theories, Evidence, and Measurement. In A. Vlachvei, O. Notta, K. Karantininis, & N. Tsounis (Eds.), *Factors Affecting Firm Competitiveness and Performance in the Modern Business World* (pp. 1–42). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-0843-4.ch001
- von Rosing, M., Fullington, N., & Walker, J. (2016). Using the Business Ontology and Enterprise Standards to Transform Three Leading Organizations. *International Journal of Conceptual Structures and Smart Applications*, 4(1), 71–99. doi:10.4018/IJCSSA.2016010104
- von Rosing, M., & von Scheel, H. (2016). Using the Business Ontology to Develop Enterprise Standards. *International Journal of Conceptual Structures and Smart Applications*, 4(1), 48–70. doi:10.4018/IJCSSA.2016010103
- Walczak, S. (2016). Artificial Neural Networks and other AI Applications for Business Management Decision Support. *International Journal of Sociotechnology and Knowledge Development*, 8(4), 1–20. doi:10.4018/IJSKD.2016100101
- Wamba, S. F., Akter, S., Kang, H., Bhattacharya, M., & Upal, M. (2016). The Primer of Social Media Analytics. *Journal of Organizational and End User Computing*, 28(2), 1–12. doi:10.4018/JOEUC.2016040101
- Wang, C., Schofield, M., Li, X., & Ou, X. (2017). Do Chinese Students in Public and Private Higher Education Institutes Perform at Different Level in One of the Leadership Skills: Critical Thinking?: An Exploratory Comparison. In V. Wang (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Strategic Leadership and Management* (pp. 160–181). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-1049-9.ch013
- Wang, F., Raisinghani, M. S., Mora, M., & Wang, X. (2016). Strategic E-Business Management through a Balanced ScoreCard Approach. In I. Lee (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of E-Commerce Development, Implementation, and Management* (pp. 361–386). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9787-4.ch027
- Wang, J. (2017). Multi-Agent based Production Management Decision System Modelling for the Textile Enterprise. *Journal of Global Information Management*, 25(4), 1–15. doi:10.4018/JGIM.2017100101
- Wiedemann, A., & Gewalt, H. (2017). Examining Cross-Domain Alignment: The Correlation of Business Strategy, IT Management, and IT Business Value. *International Journal of IT/Business Alignment and Governance*, 8(1), 17–31. doi:10.4018/IJITBAG.2017010102

### **Related References**

Wolf, R., & Thiel, M. (2018). Advancing Global Business Ethics in China: Reducing Poverty Through Human and Social Welfare. In S. Hipsher (Ed.), *Examining the Private Sector's Role in Wealth Creation and Poverty Reduction* (pp. 67–84). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3117-3.ch004

Wu, J., Ding, F., Xu, M., Mo, Z., & Jin, A. (2016). Investigating the Determinants of Decision-Making on Adoption of Public Cloud Computing in E-government. *Journal of Global Information Management*, 24(3), 71–89. doi:10.4018/JGIM.2016070104

Xu, L., & de Vrieze, P. (2016). Building Situational Applications for Virtual Enterprises. In I. Lee (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of E-Commerce Development, Implementation, and Management* (pp. 715–724). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-4666-9787-4.ch050

Yablonsky, S. (2018). Innovation Platforms: Data and Analytics Platforms. In *Multi-Sided Platforms (MSPs) and Sharing Strategies in the Digital Economy: Emerging Research and Opportunities* (pp. 72–95). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-5457-8.ch003

Yusoff, A., Ahmad, N. H., & Halim, H. A. (2017). Agropreneurship among Gen Y in Malaysia: The Role of Academic Institutions. In N. Ahmad, T. Ramayah, H. Halim, & S. Rahman (Eds.), *Handbook of Research on Small and Medium Enterprises in Developing Countries* (pp. 23–47). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2165-5.ch002

Zanin, F., Comuzzi, E., & Costantini, A. (2018). The Effect of Business Strategy and Stock Market Listing on the Use of Risk Assessment Tools. In *Management Control Systems in Complex Settings: Emerging Research and Opportunities* (pp. 145–168). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-3987-2.ch007

Zgheib, P. W. (2017). Corporate Innovation and Intrapreneurship in the Middle East. In P. Zgheib (Ed.), *Entrepreneurship and Business Innovation in the Middle East* (pp. 37–56). Hershey, PA: IGI Global. doi:10.4018/978-1-5225-2066-5.ch003

## About the Contributors

**Vipin Nadda** is working as Lecturer and Programme Lead (MSc-Tourism & Hospitality) with University of Sunderland in London. Some of his previous responsibilities was as a lecturer for tourism and hospitality management at Oxford House College, London and Kurukshetra University in India. He also freelances as a 'consultant' for University of East London, Confederation of tourism and Hospitality, Anglia Ruskin University, BPP University and Cardiff Metropolitan University. He has more than twenty years of experience in education, industry and research. Besides a PhD in tourism, he has also written book chapters, published two books and attended and presented papers at various international conferences/seminars. As an experienced academician, he has been lecturing/teaching a variety of subjects ranging from, strategic tourism development, destination branding, global tourism, sustainable tourism development, hospitality management studies, tourism marketing and international hospitality marketing, marketing strategy, international business environment, applied research methods, supervising MBA. He has MSc and PhD dissertation projects in the UK as well as overseas. Dr. Nadda has been also actively involved in the development of programs at different awarding bodies. He has been working with the confederation of tourism and hospitality awarding body based in London as an exam board member, external examiner, and assessor for last seven years and has helped to develop level-5/6 qualifications for them which are Ofqual recognised and delivered globally. Also, he developed level-5/6 qualifications for global examination board, at the University of East London for the assessment of undergraduate and postgraduate tourism and hospitality qualifications for the University of Sunderland. He also has international exposure having taught students from various nationalities which evidences his adaptability, diversity and multi-levelled skills.

### **About the Contributors**

**Sahidi M. Bilan** is a senior lecturer and Programme Manager at University of Sunderland in London. He is holder of a PhD in Philosophy, Politics and Sociology from the RWTH-Aachen University (Germany). He holds also three masters' in Business (University of Sunderland), Marketing & Innovation from Anglia Ruskin University and Strategy. He is specialised in the Hegelian Philosophy and very active in the current research on the Ultimate Foundation of Raison and Ethics.

**Muhammad Azam** is a senior academic with extensive experience in teaching, developing and leading academic, professional and executive education programmes in business management and has held many senior academic roles in higher education institutes. Currently, he is working at the University of Sunderland in London as a postgraduate lecturer where he delivers lectures and workshops to the Master of Business Administration (MBA) and Master of Business Management (MBM) students. His academic and research interests lie within international business, marketing, strategy, and entrepreneurship. He is a keen advocate of entrepreneurial learning in higher education programmes. He has previously worked in commercial organisations at a senior level and now trains and advises entrepreneurs and established businesses. He has been invited as a guest speaker and participated in many higher education and business management-related international conferences and trained various organisations, including delegates from European Union agencies. He is also a reviewer for the *International Journal of Higher Education Management* and the *Journal of Business & Retail Management Research*.

**Dirisa Mulindwa** has an educational background in tourism development and has a PhD, awarded in 2009 by Anglia Ruskin University, and has a thesis titled: *An Investigation into the relationship between community-based ecotourism and poverty alleviation in Bigodi Parish near Kibale National Park, Western Uganda*. He is interested in researching how local communities in developing countries can move away from being dependent on external organisations to initiate development projects to these communities developing a sense of independence and empowerment by initiating their own projects through tourism. This research brought together the concepts of tourism, community development, community empowerment, conservation, poverty alleviation and participation. His personal research interests include: tourism in developing countries; poverty alleviation; rural and community development; tourism destination management; new technologies in tourism and hospitality; tourism and hospitality education; and sustainability. His current research is primarily concerned with analysing the authenticity, ethnicity and representation of food in ethnic restaurants. This involves research on migrant mobility and their relationships with their culture in the diaspora.

\* \* \*



**Husam Alharahsheh** is a lecturer of Business Management at (University of Wales Trinity Saint David), Associate Senior lecturer across several UK based academic institutions.

**Sumesh S. Dadwal** is a Senior Lecturer and Programme Leader at the University of Northumbria, London Campus, London, UK; Email: sumesh.dadwal@northumbria.ac.uk. Dr. Dadwal has 20 years of experience in business academic research, teaching, e-Learning, quality assurances and in a wide range of business, tourism and healthcare subjects. He is actively engaged in postgraduate and Ph.D. research supervision. His core areas include international marketing and globalisation, contemporary and technological trends in the marketing, strategic and technological innovation management. Besides this, he is also a freelance consultant (business analysis) for emerging markets and also a member of the advisory and editorial board of academics at some journals of repute.

**Michael Abayomi Fowowe** received his Msc. in Management from the University of Lagos, in 2015, where he won the 2015 Best Graduating Student Award. In 2016, he gained admission to the Ekiti State University, Ado-Ekiti to study PhD in Business Administration. Prior to his PhD admission, he worked as a Business Developer and consultant to Neito-Biz Consulting International Limited, and presently, serves as external consultant to the firm. He manages an online platform in providing academics and business consultation with clients across the globe, and develops interests in contemporary research that enhances human capacity building, developing business core competence, and promoting economic relevance of developing economies.

**Babu George** has a PhD in Management Studies and Doctor of Business Administration. Besides serving as an Associate professor and International Program Coordinator at Fort Hays State University Kansas US, Babu George has more than fifteen years of advanced business research, university teaching, and administrative service experience, in the US and internationally. Before joining Fort Hays State University in 2015, Dr. George has worked for the Swiss Management Center University, the University of Liverpool, the University of Nevada Las Vegas, the Alaska Pacific University, and the University of Southern Mississippi, among others. He is a visiting professor at various higher education institutions around the world. He is the editor of the *International Journal of Qualitative Research in Services*. Until recently, he was the managing editor of the *Journal of Tourism*. He has more than a hundred peer-reviewed and well-cited research publications to his credit. He has

### **About the Contributors**

authored or edited more than seven books. He is a passionate observer of the complex dynamics of creative destruction that makes idea innovations possible. In his free time, he offers free consulting for the budding grassroots-level entrepreneurs.

**Unathi Sonwabile Henama** is a specialist in disruptive technology and teaches marketing in tourism at the Tshwane University of Technology. He has published extensively and has presented papers at local and international conferences.

**Maximiliano E. Korstanje** is editor in chief of the *International Journal of Safety and Security in Tourism* (UP, Argentina) and Editor in Chief Emeritus of the *International Journal of Cyber Warfare and Terrorism* (IGI Global, USA). Besides being a Senior Researcher in the Department of Economics at the University of Palermo, Argentina, he is a global affiliate of the Tourism Crisis Management Institute (University of Florida US), the Centre for Ethnicity and Racism Studies (University of Leeds), The Forge (University of Lancaster and University of Leeds UK) and The International Society for Philosopher, hosted in Sheffield UK. With more than 700 published papers and 25 books, Korstanje was awarded as Outstanding Reviewer of 2012. Now he co-edits almost 10 specialized journals in such themes as human rights, mobility, tourism and terrorism. Korstanje is subject to biographical records for Marquis Who's Who in the World since 2009. He had nominated to 5 honorary doctorates for his contribution in the study of the effects of terrorism in tourism. In 2015, he was awarded as a Visiting Research Fellow at School of Sociology and Social Policy, University of Leeds, UK and the University of La Habana Cuba. In 2017, he was elected as a Foreign Faculty Member of AMIT, Mexican Academy in the study of Tourism, which is the most prominent institutions dedicated to tourism research in Mexico.

**Celeste Nava** has a PhD in Tourism Studies.

**António Queirós** is a Researcher of Environmental Philosophy and Ethics, in Lisbon University Philosophy Center, visiting the Universities of Salamanca and Sorbonne. He is a member of the Way Ching Research Center at the University of Hong Kong. He is also part of the research staff of the Cultural Tourism, Tourism of Nature and Sustainable Development at the University of Aveiro, Portugal. His research interests include ethics, higher education, international heritage and environmental projects. He is the Association of Museum and Science Centers of Portugal MC2P (ONG) President; Secretary General of CCDPCh Chamber of Portugal; China Cooperation and Development 葡萄牙-中国合作发展协会; and Adviser of Forum dos Serviços, Confederation of trade and services of Portugal (CCP).

# Index

## A

Africa 6-9, 29-33, 36-38, 40-42, 65, 70,  
121, 144, 166, 168  
Airbnb 39-41

## B

Baja California, 108  
business value 83-84, 86

## C

China 3, 32, 64, 121, 123, 127, 136, 150,  
168  
competitive advantage 42, 60, 83-84, 86,  
88, 96, 124  
consumption 14-15, 19-22, 30, 34-35, 37,  
39, 41-42, 55, 65, 70, 73, 101, 106,  
108, 110, 144-145, 161, 168  
corporate social responsibility 169-170  
Creolisation 67  
cross-cutting nature 34, 36  
cuisine 66, 99, 101-103, 105-106  
cultural contexts 63, 95  
Cyprus 61, 71

## D

dark tourism 14, 21-24  
death 15, 21-24, 40, 135, 148  
developed countries 2, 7-8, 12, 35, 37, 120,  
127, 165  
developing countries 1-2, 6, 9, 12, 31-32,  
36, 38, 127-128, 162-163, 165-167,  
170

## E

economic development 2, 12, 35, 42, 70,  
84, 163, 168-169  
experience 15, 34, 85-88, 94, 99, 101, 132-  
133, 139, 141

## F

free operations 158-160, 164

## G

gastronomy 99-101, 103, 106, 110, 113  
GEAR 31  
global corporations 158-160, 163, 166-170  
globalization 18-20, 22, 38, 41, 53-54,  
83-84, 92, 94-96, 100, 110, 112, 127,  
132, 134, 150  
glocal 53, 57, 60, 62, 66, 75, 90, 94, 96,  
99-100, 103, 110-113  
glocalization 62, 83-84, 92-96  
glocal strategy 53, 57, 75  
grobalition 63-64

## H

hybridization 55, 61, 64-66

## I

India 7, 64, 66, 96, 121, 123, 127, 168

## L

liberalism 3-4, 7, 15-16, 18, 23, 54, 68,  
160, 165

## **Index**

lobalisation 64

localization 56, 83, 87, 90, 92-96, 100

## **M**

Margaret Thatcher 3, 30, 161-162, 165

Mexican cuisine 99, 101-103, 105

Mexico 65, 99, 101-102, 104, 106-108,  
110, 112, 121

mining 29, 31-33, 42, 105

## **N**

neoliberalism 1-9, 12, 14-19, 21, 30, 38,  
54, 63, 68, 158-162, 165, 170

Nigeria 60-61, 64-65, 71-73, 168

## **P**

privatisation 4, 6, 12, 30, 161, 164-165

## **S**

South Africa 7, 29-33, 36-38, 40-42, 121,  
168

structural adjustment 7, 30, 162, 166

sustainability 6, 53, 57, 67-70, 72-75, 112,  
148, 170

## **T**

tourism 1-3, 5-12, 14-15, 19-24, 29-30, 32-  
42, 53, 59, 61, 65, 67-75, 85-86, 88,  
90, 93-95, 100, 102, 106, 112-113,  
120-122, 124, 132-134, 143-147, 150,  
159, 165

tourist 2, 8, 10, 12, 23, 34-35, 69-70, 72-  
74, 99-100, 110, 113, 145-146

travels 2, 17, 144

## **U**

Uber 39-40

## **W**

wine 96, 99, 101, 106-110, 112-113

World Bank 6, 8-9, 121, 162, 166, 169-170

## **Y**

young chefs 102